

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

GULISTAN STATE UNIVERSITY

DEPARTMENT OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE



**THEORETICAL ASPECTS OF THE STUDIED LANGUAGE
(LEXICOLOGY)**

METHODOLOGICAL COMPLEX

Area of knowledge:	100000 – Humanitarian sciences
Area of Education:	110000 – Pedagogy
Specialty:	5111400 – Foreign language and literature (The English language)

Gulistan – 2022

The given methodological complex is compiled on the basis of model curriculum on the Lexicology approved according to the 2nd appendix of the order No. 418 of the Ministry of Higher and Special Secondary Education of the Republic of Uzbekistan as of 14 August, 2020.

Compiler: S.Ayubova, teacher of the English Language and
Literature department

O.Tilavoldiyev, senior teacher of the English Language and
Literature department

Reviewer: Kh. Tojiev, Associate professor of the English Language and
Literature department

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LECTURE SESSIONS

5-semester

№	Theme	Hours
1	Lexicology as a science. Lexicology and its object .	2
2	English Lexicography . Types of dictionaries.	2
3	Semasiology. Word-meaning.	2
4	Types of meaning.	2
5	Change of meaning and its result	2
6	Semantic systems in English . Polysemy, Homonyms.	2
7	Synonyms, Antonyms.	2
8	Classification of semantic words.	2
9	Morphological structure of the word.	2
10	Word formation.	2
11	Conversion.	2
12	Secondary ways of word formation.	2
13	Phraseology.	2
14	Etymology.	2
15	Methods of using vocabulary units.	2
	Total	30

LECTURE 1

THEME: LEXICOLOGY AND ITS OBJECT

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF LECTURE SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабалар сони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машғулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	Lecture (visual type)
<i>Машғулот режаси /ўқув машғулотининг тузилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: I. Lexicology as a subject: 1. Subject of Lexicology, its types and branches 2. Interrelations of Lexicology with other linguistic sciences 3. The concept of the lexical unit 4. Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of lexical units 5. The word as the basic lexical unit II. Lexicography as a branch of Lexicology 1. History of English Lexicography 2. Types of dictionaries 3. Problems of dictionary compiling
<i>Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:</i>	<u>To provide students with information about the English vocabulary</u>
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; • To explain the subject matter of Lexicology	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> • Be able to understand the concepts • Be able to understand the main units • Be able to compare types of lexical units
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Lecture
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Lecture hall

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF LECTURE SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities	Exerciese on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video

	addressing all learning styles			materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

Problems to be discussed:

1. Subject matter of Lexicology
2. Types of Lexicology and its links with other branches of Linguistics
3. Relationships, approaches and subbranches
4. Word and word studies in Lexicology
5. Comparative study of the English and Uzbek languages

Key words: General lexicology, special lexicology, descriptive lexicology, historical or diachronic lexicology, comparative Lexicology, relationship, approaches, vocabulary, investigation

Subject matter of Lexicology

The term «Lexicology» is of Greek origin from «lexis» - «word» and «logos» - «science». Lexicology is the part of linguistics which deals with the vocabulary and characteristic features of words and word-groups. The term «vocabulary» is used to denote the system of words and word-groups that the language possesses.

The term «word» denotes the main lexical unit of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning. This unit is used in grammatical functions. It is the smallest unit of a language which can stand alone as a complete utterance. The term «word-group» denotes a group of words which exists in the language as a ready-made unit, has the unity of meaning, the unity of syntactical function, *For example*, the word-group «as loose as a goose» means «clumsy» and is used in a sentence as a predicative. "He is as loose as a goose". Lexicology can study the development of the vocabulary, the origin of words and word-groups, their semantic relations and the development of their semantic structure, change of meaning.

Thus, the literal meaning of the term "Lexicology" is "the science of the word". Lexicology as a branch of linguistics has its own aims and methods of scientific research. Its basic task - is a study and systematic description of vocabulary in respect to its origin, development and its current use. Lexicology is concerned with words, variable word-groups, phraseological units and morphemes which make up words.

Uriel Weinreich gave an idea on the subject of Lexicology and wrote that «To an American observer, the strangest thing about Lexicology is that it exists. No corresponding discipline is officially distinguished in Western European or American linguistics: in such American textbooks as H. A. Gleason's (introduction to Descriptive Linguistics or C. F. Hockett's «Course in Modern Linguistics New York. 1958 there is no mention of «Lexicology» and what these books have to say about the study of vocabulary bears the marks of half-hearted improvisation. By contrast, textbooks assign to Lexicology a prominence comparable to that enjoyed by phonology and grammar. A sizable literature of articles, dissertations, book-length monographs, specialized collections and a lively stream of conferences on various lexicological subjects reflect the relative importance of Lexicology

Types of Lexicology and its links with other branches of linguistics

There are 5 types of Lexicology: 1) general; 2) special; 3) descriptive; 4) historical; 5) comparative.

General Lexicology is a part of General linguistics which studies the general properties of words, the specific features of words of any particular language. It studies the peculiarities of words common to all the languages. General Lexicology attempts to find out the universals of vocabulary development and patterns. Linguistic phenomena and properties common to all languages are generally called language universals.

Special Lexicology deals with the words of a definite language. *Ex.*: English Lexicology, Russian Lexicology, Uzbek Lexicology and so on.

Descriptive Lexicology studies the words at a synchronic aspect. It is concerned with the vocabulary of a language as they exist at the present time.

Historical or diachronic Lexicology deals with the development of the *vocabulary* and the changes it has undergone. *For example.* In descriptive Lexicology the words «to take», «to adopt» are considered as being English not differing from such native words as «child», «foot», «stone» etc. But in historical Lexicology they are treated as borrowed words.

Comparative Lexicology deals with the properties of the vocabulary of two or more languages. In comparative Lexicology the main characteristic features of the words of two or more languages are compared. *For example.* Russian—English Lexicology, English—French Lexicology and etc.

Lexicology is closely connected with other aspects of the language: Grammar, Phonetics, the History of the language and Stylistics.

Lexicology is connected with grammar because the word seldom occurs in isolation. Words alone do not form communication. It is only when words are connected and joined by the grammar rules of a language communication becomes possible. On the other hand grammatical form and function of the word affect its lexical meaning. *For example.* When the verb «go» in the continuous tenses is followed by «to» and an infinitive, it expresses a future action. *For example.* He is not going to read this book. Participle II of the verb «go» following the link verb «be» denotes the negative meaning. *For example.* The house is gone.

So the lexical meanings of the words are grammatically conditioned.

Lexicology is linked with phonetics because the order and the arrangement of phonemes are related to its meaning. *For example.* The words «tip» and «pit» consist of the same phonemes and it is the arrangement of phonemes alone which determines the meaning of the words. The arrangement of phonemes in the words «increase» and «increase» is the same. Only stress determines the difference in meaning.

Lexicology is also closely linked with the History of the language. In examining the word information in terms of its historical development we establish its French origin and study the changes in its semantic and morphological structures. If we don't know the history of the language it will be very difficult to establish different changes in the meaning and form of the words which have undergone in the course of the historical development of the language.

There is also a close relationship between Lexicology and Stylistics. The words «to begin» and «to commence» mean one and the same meaning but they can never be used interchangeably because they have different stylistic references.

Relationships, approaches and subbranches in Lexicology

The relationship existing between words may be either syntagmatic or paradigmatic.

The syntagmatic relationship is found in the context. The context is the minimum stretch of speech which is necessary to bring out the meaning of a word. *For example,* take tea (чай ичмок — пить чай), take tram (трамвайда юрмок — ехать на трамвае).

The paradigmatic relationship is the relations between words within the vocabulary: polysemy, synonymy, antonymy of words etc.

There are two approaches to the study of the vocabulary of a language — diachronic and synchronic.

Synchronic approach deals with the vocabulary as it exists at a given time, at the present time. The diachronic approach studies the changes and the development of vocabulary in the course of time, *For example*. Synchronically the words «*help*», «*accept*», «*work*», «*produce*» are all of them English words. But diachronically they came from different languages. Such words as «*childhood*», «*kingdom*», «*friendship*», «*freedom*» were at one time compound words because the suffixes -hood, -ship were independent words but synchronically they are derived words because «*dom*» and «*hood*» and «*ship*» became suffixes. Diachronic research gives a valuable result for the development of synchronic investigation.

In the 19th century and at the beginning of the 20th century Lexicology was mainly based on historical principles. At the present time the cognitive and conceptual analysis of the vocabulary are developing the following method of linguistic research are widely used by lexicologists: distributional, transformational, analysis into immediate constituents, statistical, componential, comparative etc. The choice of the method in each case depends on what method will yield the most reliable results in each particular case.

Lexicology has some subdivisions such as:

- 1) *Semasiology* (deals with the meaning of the word);
- 2) *Wordformation* (studies all possible ways of the formation of new words in English);
- 3) *Etymology* (studies the origin of words);
- 4) *Phraseology* (studies the set-expressions, phraseological units);
- 5) *Lexicography* (studies compiling dictionaries).

Word and word studies

What Is a Word? What is Lexicology? What's in a name? That which we call a rose by any other name would smell as sweet... (W. Shakespeare. *Romeo and Juliet*, Act II.)

These famous lines reflect one of the fundamental problems of linguistic research: what is in a name, in a word? Is there any direct connection between a word and the object it represents? Could a rose have been called by "any other name" as Juliet says? These and similar questions are answered by lexicological research.

For some people studying words may seem uninteresting. But if it is studied properly, it may well prove just as exciting and novel as unearthing the mysteries of Outer Space.

It is significant that many scholars have attempted to define the word as a linguistic phenomenon. Yet none of the definitions can be considered totally satisfactory in all aspects. It is equally surprising that, despite all the achievements of modern science, certain essential aspects of the nature of the word still escape us. Nor do we fully understand the phenomenon called "language", of which the word is a fundamental unit.

We do not know much about the origin of language and, consequently, of the origin of words. It is true that there are several hypotheses, some of them no less fantastic than the theory of the divine origin of language. We know nothing — or almost nothing — about the mechanism by which a speaker's mental process is converted into sound groups called "words", nor about the reverse process whereby a listener's brain converts the acoustic phenomena into concepts and ideas, thus establishing a two-way process of communication. We know very little about the nature of relations between the word and the referent (i. e. object, phenomenon, quality, action, etc. denoted by the word). If we assume that there is a direct relation between the word and the referent — which seems logical — it gives rise to another question: how should we explain the fact that the same referent is designated by quite different sound groups in different languages. We do know by now — though with vague uncertainty — that there is nothing accidental about

the vocabulary of the language; that each word is a small unit within a vast, efficient and perfectly balanced system. But we do not know why it possesses these qualities, nor do we know much about the processes by which it has acquired them.

The list of unknowns could be extended, but it is probably high time to look at the brighter side and register some of the things we do know about the nature of the word.

We do know that the word is a unit of speech which, as such, serves the purposes of human communication. Thus, the word can be defined as a *unit of communication*. Then, the word can be perceived as the total of the sounds which comprise it and the word, viewed structurally, possesses several characteristics.

The modern approach to word studies is based on distinguishing between the external and the internal structures of the word. By the vocabulary of a language is understood the total sum of its words. Another term for the same is the stock of words.

The external structure of the word is its morphological structure. *For example*, in the word *post-impressionists* the following morphemes can be distinguished: the prefixes *post-*, *im-*, the root *press*, the noun-forming suffixes *-ion*, *-ist*, and the grammatical suffix of plurality *-s*. These morphemes constitute the external structure of the word *post-impressionists*. The external structure of words, and also typical word-formation patterns, are studied in the section on word-formation.

The internal structure of the word, or its *meaning*, is nowadays commonly referred to as the word's *semantic structure*. This is certainly the word's main aspect. Words can serve the purposes of human communication due to their meanings, and it is most unfortunate when this fact is ignored by some contemporary scholars. The area of Lexicology specialising in the semantic studies of the word is called *semantics*.

Another structural aspect of the word is its unity. The word possesses both external (or formal) unity and semantic unity. Formal unity of the word is sometimes inaccurately interpreted as indivisibility. The example of *post-impressionists* has already shown that the word is not, strictly speaking, indivisible. Yet, its component morphemes are permanently linked together in opposition to word-groups, both free and with fixed contexts, whose components possess a certain structural freedom, *For example*, bright light, to take for granted.

The formal unity of the word can best be illustrated by comparing a word and a word-group comprising identical constituents. The difference between a *blackbird* and a *black bird* is best explained by their relationship with the grammatical system of the language. The word *blackbird*, which is characterised by unity, possesses a single grammatical framing: *blackbirds*. The first constituent *black* is not subject to any grammatical changes. In the word-group a *black bird* each constituent can acquire grammatical forms of its own: *the blackest birds I've ever seen*. Other words can be inserted between the components which is impossible so far as the word is concerned as it would violate its unity: *a black night bird*.

The same example may be used to illustrate what we mean by semantic unity. In the word-group a *black bird* each of the meaningful words conveys a separate concept: *bird* — a kind of living creature; *black* — a colour. The word *blackbird* conveys only one concept: the type of bird. This is one of the main features of any word: it always conveys one concept, no matter how many component morphemes it may have in its external structure.

A further structural feature of the word is its susceptibility to grammatical employment. In speech most words can be used in different grammatical forms in which their interrelations are realised. So far we have only underlined the word's major peculiarities, to convey the general idea of the difficulties and questions faced by the scholar attempting to give a detailed definition of the word. The difficulty does not merely consist in the considerable number of aspects that are to be taken into account, but, also, in the essential unanswered questions of word theory which concern the nature of its meaning.

All that we have said about the word can be summed up as follows. The word is a speech unit used for the purposes of human communication, materially representing a group of sounds, possessing a meaning, susceptible to grammatical employment and characterised by formal and semantic unity.

Comparative study of the English and Uzbek languages.

Comparative study of different peculiarities of English words with words of other languages shows that there are various symptoms of this contrast between English and other languages.

The wordformation, the semantic structure of correlated words and their usage in speech are different in different languages. Every language has its own lexical system. Not all the meanings which the English word has may be found in its corresponding word in Uzbek. *For example.* Compare the meanings of the word «*hand*» and its corresponding word "кул".

«кул» 1) одамнинг бармоқ учларидан елкагача бўлган қисми, аъзоси (рука); 2) хайвонларнинг олдинги оёқлари (лапа); 3) бармоқ (палец); 4) ҳар кимнинг ёзув усули (почерк); 5) имзо (подпись); 6) иш усули (прием работы); 7) ихтиер, изм (воля); 8) имконият (условия)

«**hand**» 1) кул (рука); 2) хайвонларнинг олдинги оёқлари (лапа) 3) тараф (сторона положения), 4) бошқариш (контроль положения) 5) розилик, ваъда (согласия,обещание); 6) ёрдам (помощь) 7) бир уйинчи кулидаги карта (карты, исходящие на руках у одного игрока); 8) ишчи (рабочий); 9) денгизчи (матрос); 10) бажарувчи шахс (исполнитель, автор); 11)бир туда одам (компания, группа); 12) уста (мастер); 13) эпчиллик (ловкость,); 14)ёзув, хат (почерк); 16) қарсақлар (аплодисменты); 17) манба (источник); 18) соат стрелкаси (стрелка); 19) қанот (крыло); 20) боғлам, даста (пучок); 21) кафт (ладонь) 22) сон гушти (окорок); 23) жилов (повод)

As can be seen from the above only some meanings may be described as identical but others are different. The correlated words «**hand**» and «қўл» may be the components of different phraseological units:

« hand »	« қўл »
the hand of god — худо рози (божья воля)	қўли ишга бормайди (рука не поднимается)
at the hand — ёнида , якинида (близко , рядом)	қўлни қўлга бериб (рука об руку)
to live from hand to mouth— зўрга кун кўрмоқ (перебиваться)	қўлингга эрк берма (рукам воли не давай)
at any hand — ҳар эҳтимолга қарши (во всяком случае)	қўлидан келмайди (руки короткие)
to have clean hands — ҳақиқатгуй бўлмоқ (быть честным)	қўли тегмайди (руки не доходят)

Besides that the correlated words in English and in Uzbek may coin different derivatives. *For example.* «**hand**» (handful, handless, handy, handily. handiness, hand v), «**қўл**» (қўл , қўлла , қўлсиз , қўлли). The verb «*to taken*» does not coincide in the number of meanings with its corresponding word «*olmoq*».

For example, to take an exam — имтихон топширмак (с давать экзамен); to take tea — чой ичмоқ (пить чай); to take off — ечинмоқ (раздеваться); имтихон олмоқ (

принимать экзамен) — to give an examination; дам олмок (отдыхать) — to have a rest; расм олмок

(фотографировать)- to photograph. In the semantic structure of the Uzbek word there may be a definite figurative meaning which its corresponding English word doesn't possess. **For example.** Бу воқеа менга катта мактаб бўлди (Это событие было для меня уроком.) This event was a good lesson to me (not «this event was a good school to me»).

The norm of lexical valancy of a word in English is not the same as in Uzbek. **For example.** In Uzbek the verb « кутармок » (поднимать) may be combined with the nouns” кул » (ру ка) and « стул » (с тул). However, its corresponding English verb «to raise» can be combined with the noun «hand» («to raise hands but not «to raise chair» (to lift chair).

The number of English synonymic sets may be substituted by one word in Uzbek. **For example.** The verbs «accept», «admit», «adopt», «take», «receive» correspond to the meanings of the Uzbek word « кабул қилмок »(принимать). In English to the Uzbek word « рассом » (художник) correspond three words. They are: painter, artist, drawer. In Uzbek 6 words are used to express the notion «blow» (уриш, зарба, зарб, урилиш, тақиллатиш, тегиш). In English more than 20 words denote this notion. They are: blow, smack, slap, whack, poke, dig, rap, knock, stroke etc. The correlated words «to make» and «қилмок;» have different lexical valancies. to make soup — шурва қилмок (пиширмак) (готовить суп), to make tea — чой дамламак (заварить чай), to make a table — стол ясамак (сделать стол,) дарс қилмок (готовить урок) — to do lessons, телефон қилмок (позвонить) — to ring up, ният қилмок (желать доброе) — to wish, харакат қилмок (стараться) — to try etc.

Some languages are remarkably rich in words with specific meanings, while others utilize general terms and neglect unnecessary details. French is usually regarded as a highly abstract language, whereas German is fond of concrete, particular terms. German has three or four specific verbs corresponding to one generic term in French: French will often use a derivative where German and English have a more specific compound: cendrier — ashtray, aschenbecher; theiere — teapot...

Study Questions

1. What is the subject-matter of Lexicology?
2. What types of Lexicology do you know?
3. What is the difference between general and special Lexicologies?
4. What is the difference between descriptive and historical Lexicologies?
5. What is the difference between comparative and noncomparative Lexicologies?
6. What can you say about the connection of Lexicology with other aspects of the language?
7. How is Lexicology connected with grammar (phonetics, stylistics, history of the language)?
8. What are the main relationships between the words?
9. What is the difference between the paradigmatic and syntagmatic relationships in words?
10. What do you know about diachronic and synchronic approaches to the study of the vocabulary of the language?
11. What are the methods of linguistic analysis used in Modern Lexicology?
12. What are the main subdivisions of Lexicology? 13. What is the word study?

LECTURE 2

THEME: ENGLISH LEXICOGRAPHY. TYPES OF DICTIONARIES.

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF LECTURE SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабаларсони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машғулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	lecture (visual type)
<i>Машғулот режаси /ўқув машғулотининг тuzилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 1. The meaning of the dictionary . 2. Unilingual and bilingual dictionaries. 3. Differences between general and special dictionaries.
<i>Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:</i>	<u>To provide students with information about the English vocabulary</u>
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; To explain: 1. The meaning of the dictionary . 2. Unilingual and bilingual dictionaries. 3. Differences between general and special dictionaries.	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> • Be able to understand the concepts • Be able to understand the meaning of the dictionary. • Be able know about unilingual and bilingual dictionaries. • Be able to compare general and special dictionaries.
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Lecture
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Lecture hall

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF LECTURE SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	20	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exercise on the new topic.	20	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

Problems to be discussed:

1. Dictionary compiling and its origin

2. Types of dictionaries
3. Entry of a dictionary
4. Attitudes towards dictionaries

Key words: Lexicography, dictionary, contain, specialized dictionaries, selection of words, compiling, entry, structure

Dictionary compiling and its origin

The theory and practice of compiling dictionaries is called lexicography. The history of compiling dictionaries for English comes as far back as the Old English period, where we can find glosses of religious books / interlinear translations from Latin into English/. Regular bilingual dictionaries began to appear in the 15-th century /Anglo-Latin, Anglo-French , Anglo-German/.

The first unilingual dictionary explaining difficult words appeared in 1604, the author was Robert Cawdry, a schoolmaster. He compiled his dictionary for school children. In 1721 an English scientist and writer Nathan Bailey published the first etymological dictionary which explained the origin of English words. It was the first scientific dictionary, it was compiled for philologists.

In 1775 an English scientist compiled a famous explanatory dictionary. Its author was Samuel Johnson. Every word in his dictionary was illustrated by examples from English literature, the meanings of words were clear from the contexts in which they were used.. The dictionary was a great success and it influenced the development of lexicography in all countries. The dictionary influenced normalization of the English vocabulary. But at the same time it helped to preserve the English spelling in its conservative form.

In 1858 one of the members of the English philological society Dr. Trench raised the question of compiling a dictionary including all the words existing in the language. The philological society adopted the decision to compile the dictionary and the work started. More than a thousand people took part in collecting examples, and 26 years later in 1884 the first volume was published. It contained words beginning with «A» and «B». The last volume was published in 1928 that is 70 years after the decision to compile it was adopted. The dictionary was called NED and contained 12 volumes.

In 1933 the dictionary was republished under the title «The Oxford English Dictionary», because the work on the dictionary was conducted in Oxford . This dictionary contained 13 volumes. As the dictionary was very large and terribly expensive scientists continued their work and compiled shorter editions of the dictionary: «A Shorter Oxford Dictionary*» consisting of two volumes. It had the same number of entries, but far less examples from literature. They also compiled «A Concise Oxford Dictionary») consisting of one volume and including only modern words and no examples from literature.

The American lexicography began to develop much later, at the end of the 18-th century. The most famous American English dictionary was compiled by Noah Webster. He was an active statesman and public man and he published his first dictionary in 1806. He went on with his work on the dictionary and in 1828 he . published a two-volume dictionary. He tried to simplify the English spelling and transcription. He introduced the alphabetical system of transcription where he used letters and combinations of letters instead of transcription signs. He denoted vowels in closed syllables by the corresponding vowels. He denoted vowels in the open syllable by the same letters, but with a dash above them, **For example.** / a/, /e/, /i/, /o/, /u/. He denoted vowels in the position before /r/ as the same letters with two dots above them, **For example.** / a/, /o/ and by the letter «e» with two dots above it for the combinations «en», «ir»,

«ur» because they are pronounced identically. The same tendency is preserved for other sounds : /u:/ is denoted by /oo/, [y] is used for the sound /j/ etc.

Thus, lexicography is a science of dictionary-compiling. Modern English lexicography appeared in the 15 th century. In this period English-Latin dictionaries were in existence. New English Dictionary or Oxford English Dictionary was written from 1888 up to 19 28. It covers the vocabulary of English with a full historical evidence. It gives the full history of words. It has a supplement containing neologisms (new words).

Types of dictionaries

There are encyclopedic and linguistic dictionaries. An Encyclopaedic dictionary gives the information of extralinguistic world. It gives the information about the important events, animals, and all branches of knowledge. They deal not with words, but with facts and concepts.

There are two main types of dictionaries: general dictionaries and special dictionaries. General dictionaries are divided into explanatory dictionaries and parallel or translation dictionaries (bilingual and multilingual). The best known explanatory dictionaries are: «The Shorter^ Oxford Dictionary») in two volumes, based on the NED, the COD (one volume). Chamber's 20 th Century Dictionary (one volume), WNID, New Comprehensive Standard Dictionary, the New Random House Dictionary, "Webster's Collegiate Dictionary etc.

Most of these dictionaries present the spelling, usage, pronunciation and meaning of words, grammatical information, origin of words, derivatives, phraseology, etymology, synonyms and antonyms. Pronunciation is shown either by means of the International phonetic transcription or in British phonetic notation which is somewhat different in each of the larger reference books. *For example*. (d:] is given as oh, aw, o, or, etc.

Translation dictionaries or parallel are word-books containing vocabulary items in one language and their equivalents in another language. *For example*. Russian-English Dictionary under the edition of prof. A. I. Smirnitsky. The English-Russian dictionary by Milller, New English-Russian Dictionary by I. R. Galperin. The Pocket English-Russian Dictionary, by EepmoK, HepniOK English-Uzbek dictionary by J. Buranov and K- R. Rahmanberdiev etc. The translation dictionaries are based on the comparative study of the languages.

Among the general dictionaries we find Learner's Dictionary which is compiled for foreign language learners at different stages of advancement. *For example*. The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English by Hornby, Gatenby, Wakefield : It is a one-language (monolingual) dictionary compiled on the basis of COD. It differs from other dictionaries because it gives the information about the lexical or grammatical valency of words. The Learner's English-Russian Dictionary by Folomkina, Weiser contains approximately 3.500 words.

Specialized dictionaries give us the information of one or two particular peculiarities of words (*For example*, synonyms, collocability, frequency, etymology, pronunciation, phraseological units etc).

The best known dictionary of synonyms is Dictionary of English Synonyms Expressions by Soule and Webster's Dictionary of synonyms. The best and most comprehensive collection of English phraseology is A. V. iCoonin's English Russian phraseological Dictionary (in two volumes). The Oxford Dictionary of English Proverbs, Collin's Book of English Idioms.

There are other types of specialized dictionaries. Dictionaries of collocations. A Reum's Dictionary of English Style, Dictionaries of word Frequency (Dictionary of frequency Value of Combinability of words. Moscow 1976). The Teacher's Book of 30.000 words by E. S. Thorndike and Lorge. Michael West. A General Service List of English Words. Etymological dictionaries; *For example*. W. Skeat's Etymological Dictionary of the English Language. Pronouncing dictionaries: English Pronouncing Dictionary by D. Jones etc.

The most important problems the lexicographer comes across in compiling dictionaries are the selection of words, the selection, arrangement and definition of meanings, and the illustrative examples to be supplied. Dictionaries can't possibly register all occasional words. It is impossible to present all occurring technical terms because they are too numerous (*For example*, there are more than 400.000 chemical terminology in English). Therefore selection is made according to the aim of the dictionary.

The choice of correct equivalents depends on the type of the dictionary, and on the aim of the compilers.

Entry of a dictionary.

The entry of translation dictionaries presents the meanings of words with the help of other languages. Different types of dictionaries differ in their aim, in the information they provide and in their size. They differ in the structure and content of the entry. Compare the following dictionary entries from the point of view of the way lexical meanings are presented.

For example. awful

I. N. C. Wyld. The Universal Dictionary of the English Language.

1. a) apt to fill others with awe, inspiring awe; dreadful, appalling;
b) deserving and inspiring respect and reverence, solemnly impressive awful dignity.
2. (colloq) used as a mere intensive: an awful nuisance: awful nonsense.

II, The Concise Oxford Dictionary.

awful

inspiring awe, worthy of profound respect; solemnly impressive, (arch) reverential:

(si —notable in its kind as — — scrawl, bore, relief, something. HI. The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English.

awful

1. dreadful, impressive, causing awe. He died and death. His sufferings were to behold.
2. (colloq intensive) very bad, very great; extreme of its kind, what nuisance! what — handwriting (weather)!

IV. Collin's New English Dictionary.

awful

full of awe, filling with fear and admiration; impressive, venerable; ugly- unsightly; extremely.

V. Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language.

awful

I. inspiring awe. 2. Terrifying, appalling. 3. Worthy of reverence and solemn respect. 4. (colloq) a) very bad, ugly, disagreeable: unpleasant, etc; as, an awful joke, b) great as, an awful bore.

Compare the **entry** for **the** word **arrive** given in **the** following dictionaries.

arrive

Concise Oxford Dictionary

v. /. come to destination (lit, and fig) or end of journey (at Bath , in Paris , upon scene, at conclusion; (as Gallicism) establish one's repute or position; (of things) be brought; (of time) come; (of events) come about, [f. OF «ariver» f. L, «arribare» f. L. A Dripare come to shore (ripa)]

Webster's Collegiate Dictionary.

arrive

v. / (OF, ariver, deriv. of L. adto+ripa shore, bank)

1. Obs. To come to the shore. 2. To reach a place; as, to arrive at home. 3. To gain an object, attain a state by effort, study, etc; as. to arrive at a conclusion. 4. to come; — said of time. 5. To attain success or recognition.

syn. arrive, come, arrive implies more definitely than come the attainment of a destination. —v. t. Archaic. To reach; come to.

Большой англо-русский словарь под ред. Гальперина И.Р.

arrive

v. i. (at , in , upon) — прибывать, приезжать, to ~ in London — прибыть в Лондон : the police - d upon the scene —на место происшествия прибыла полиция ; to ~ punctually (tardily , in good time) — прибыть точно, с опозданием, вовремя; sold «to ~ » ком . К прибытию (ус ловия сделки при продаже товара, находящегося в пути) 2. (at) ~ достигать (чего-либо,приходить (к чему-либо): to ~ at understanding — достигать взаимопонимания: to ~ at a decision — принять решение ; to ~ at a conclusion — прийти к заключению.

M. West. The General Service List.

arrive

v. 532. 1) Arrive home in London . Arrive at an age when . . . 74%: 2) The parcel has arrived. The time has arrived when ... 11 %; 3) Arrive at a conclusion ... 12°/- Oxford Etymological Dictionary

arrive

+ bring or come to shore, land XIII; come to the end of journey, a goal, etc, XIV;+reach (a port, etc) XVI; come to pass XVII. —OF ariver (mod, arriver, arrive, happen) -Pr. aribar, Sp arribar: Rorn+arripare come to land, f ad+ripo shore (of River) Formerly sometimes inflected + arove + ariven; cf STRIVE. Jones' Pronouncing Dictionary

arrive

arriv/e-s,-ing, ed-[al/s] -[s'raiv]-3, [irj],-d, -[al/z]

The most complicated type of entry is found in explanatory dictionaries. The entry of an explanatory dictionary of the synchronic type usually presents the following data: accepted spelling, pronunciation, grammatical characteristics, the indication of the part of speech, definition of meanings, modern currency, illustrative examples, derivatives, phraseological units, etymology, synonyms, antonyms etc.

Selection and the arrangement of meanings of words in different dictionaries are different. They depend on the aim of the compilers. Diachronic dictionaries list more meanings than synchronic dictionaries of current English as they give not only the meanings in present-day use but also those

which have already become archaic or gone out of use. *For example.* SOD gives 8 meanings of the verb «arrive» while. COD lists only five. The meanings of words in dictionaries may be defined by means of phrases, synonymous words and expressions. Frequency dictionaries, spelling books, etymological, ideographic and other dictionaries may have illustrative examples.

""The structure of the dictionary consists of an Introduction and Guide to the use of the dictionary. It explains all the peculiarities of the dictionary and also gives a key to pronunciation, the list of abbreviations. Dictionaries have some supplementary material. It may include addenda and various word-lists: geographical names, foreign words, tables of weights and measures.

«Students should know something about the large, unabridged dictionaries to which they have ready access in college. They might well be given brief sketches of the 'Oxford English Dictionary, The English Dialect by Joseph Wright, the old Century Dictionary (12 volumes) and the modern unabridged Webster. These may be called the «Big Four» in the dictionary field.

An acquaintance with these larger works will not only make the students aware of what kind of information about words is available in them, but it will leave him much better prepared to make efficient use of the desk — size dictionary with which he has some familiarity. «clinic»

is from a Greek word meaning a bed, and the meanings of the word and those of its derivatives and combination stem from this significance. (*MitfordM. Mathews*)

The Oxford English Dictionary (OED) is not a dictionary to which you turn to see whether or not a certain word is a «good» word to use. It is a book which attempts scientifically to record the history and development of every printed word in the language from the time of King Alfred to the current date of publication ...

the OED does not try to set a standard for English. It tells you as completely as possible what the language is and where it has been.

The entries for single words in the OED "after" run on four pages. The word «set» with its definition and other materials fills more than eighteen pages «go» fills thirty — five columns and over seventy separate senses or given for «get».

In all the OED contains over 414.000 definitions, which are in turn illustrated by almost two million quotations. The total number of words in all the volumes is estimated at fifty million.

Thus, the OED records 414,825 words, of which 240.165 are main words 67,105 subordinate words, 47,800 special combinations and 59.755 obvious combinations. There are about 500.000 definitions and more than 1,800,000 illustrative quotations. There are 16,570 pages in its 13 volumes. (*L. I. Stupin.*)

Attitudes towards dictionaries

Lexicography depends on its development in the solution of some general problems of Lexicology. So, lexicography is closely connected with the problems of Lexicology. The compilers approach to lexicological problems differently. For example, there is no clear borderline between homonymy and polysemy in different dictionaries. Thus in some dictionaries words such as fly — namuia (Myxa), (a two winged insect) and a fly — Tynna ynyH Marepnaji.1 (a flap of cloth covering duttons on the garment are treated as two different words and in others (*For example the Concise Oxford Dictionary and the Advanced Learners Dictionary of Current English*) — as different meanings of one and the same word.

Many of the significant contributors to the present understanding of meaning (such as Katz and Fodor 1963; FULmore 1968; Fillmore 1971; Chafe 1970; Jackendoff 1975; Winograd 1972; Schank 1972) have generally ignored dictionaries. Yet, each has presented a formulaic structure for lexical entries to serve as a basis for the creation of a new dictionary. Although their perceptions about the nature of language are well-established, their formalisms for lexical entries have not taken advantage of the equally well-established practices of lexicography.

The rationale underlying the development of new formalisms, expressed in some cases and implicit in others, is that lexical entries in dictionaries are unsatisfactory because they do not contain sufficient information. These formalisms thus require that semantic features such as "animate" or "state" be appended to particular entries. While it is true that ordinary dictionary entries do not overtly identify all appropriate features, this may be less a difficulty inherent in definitions than the fact that no one has developed the necessary mechanisms for surfacing features from definitions.

Thus, for example, "nurse" may not have the feature "animate" in its definition, but "nurse" is defined as a "woman" which is defined as a "person" which is defined as a "being" which is defined as a "living thing"; this string seems sufficient to establish "nurse" as "animate." In general, it seems that, if a semantic feature is essential to the meaning of a particular entry, it is similarly necessary that the feature be discoverable within the semantic structure of a dictionary.

Otherwise, there is a defect in one or more definitions, or the dictionary contains some internal inconsistency. (Clearly, it is beyond expectation that any present dictionary will be free of these problems.)

The possibility of defective definitions has also generated criticisms, more direct than above, on the potential usefulness of a dictionary. One hand, definitions are viewed as "deficient in the presentation of relevant data" since they provide meanings by using "substitutable words (i.e. synonyms), rather than by listing distinctive features" (Nida 1975: 172). On another hand, the proliferation of meanings attached to an entry is viewed as only a case of "apparent polysemy" which obscures the more general meaning of a lexeme by the addition of "redundant features already determined by the environment" (Bennett 1975: 4-11). Both objections may have much validity and to that extent would necessitate revisions to individual or sets of definitions.

However, neither viewpoint is sufficient to preclude an analysis of what actually appears in any dictionary. It is possible that a comprehensive analysis might more readily surface such difficulties and make their amelioration (and the consequent improvement of definitions) that much easier.

Even though dictionaries are viewed somewhat askance by many who study meaning, it seems that this viewpoint is influenced more by the difficulty of systematically tapping their contents than by any substantive objections which conclusively establish them as useless repositories of semantic content. However, it is necessary to demonstrate that; systematic approach exists and can yield useful results.

Some attempts have been made to probe the nature and structure of dictionary definitions. A review of relevant aspects of two such studies will help the material presented here stand out in sharper relief.

We started with the assumption that the English vocabulary comprises all the words and phraseological units existing in the language. The term "phraseological unit", however, is rather vague and allows of interpretation. If term is to be taken as including any "idiomatic expression" the meaning of which cannot be directly inferred from the meaning of its components, then all kind of various lexical items ranging from two-word groups of type give up, take in, etc. to proverbs and sayings *For example*, its the early birds that catches the worm, that is where the shoe pinches, etc., would have to be listed as separate vocabulary entries, thus greatly increasing the number of vocabulary units in English.

Another problem in Lexicology is connected with phraseological units as best man (noun equivalent), at length (adverb equivalent). They should be treated as individual vocabulary units; other types of the so-called idiomatic expressions are treated in the entries devoted to the component words of the idiomatic expressions.

Another debatable problem is the problem of homonymy, especially lexico- grammatical homonymy. If it is held by, the compiler that identical sound-forms *For example*, work (noun) and work(verb), are but different grammatical and semantic variants of one and the same word, they are accordingly treated within one and the same dictionary entry and counted as one word. This conception tends to diminish the total number of vocabulary units in English. In some cases of lexical homony my the boundary line between various meanings of polisemantic word and the meaning of two homony mous word is not suffitiently sharp and clear and allows of different approaches to the problem.

There is one more point of interest in connection with the problem of the number of words that should be mentioned here. Paradoxical as it may seem a great number of lexical items actually used by English-speaking people are never or scarcely ever recorded in dictionaries. These are words like footballer, hero- worshipper and others formed on highly productive word-building patterns. Such words are easily understood, they never strike one as 'unusual' or 'unclear'. They may be used by any member of speech community whenever the need to express a certain concept arises. Such words are usually referred to as "potential", "occasional" or "nonce-words". The terms imply that vocabulary units of this type are created for a given occasion only may be considered as but "potentially" existing in English vocabulary. The

approach of the dictionary compilers to occasional words also effects the number of dictionary entries. Those dictionaries that regularly record such occasional words naturally increase the number of dictionary entries.

It may be easily observed from the above that the divergent views concerning the nature of basic vocabulary units can not but affect the estimate of the size of English vocabulary in terms of exact figures.

The connection between Lexicology and lexicography can, perhaps, best illustrated in the discussion of the number of vocabulary units in Modern English.

All the words and phraseological units existing in the language are said to be recorded in dictionaries. But the analysis of dictionaries, even those bearing the little "complete", does not allow one to draw any definite conclusion as to the exact number of vocabulary units in Modern English. Different dictionaries register different number of words. The entries even in the most comprehensive dictionaries range from 500.000 to 600.000. the problem of vocabulary counts is closely connected with the divergent views concerning the nature of basic vocabulary units and also with the difference in the approach of dictionary compilers to some of the crucial problems of lexicological science.

Counting up the entries in dictionaries we are struck by the basically different approaches to the vocabulary units as such. One and the same lexical item, say, "seal: is treated differently in different dictionaries some regarding it as one word and some as five different words. One and the same phrase, e.g by chance, is included in the vocabulary entry under the head-word chance in one dictionary, but is not to be found in another dictionary of approximately the same size. Some of the seemingly "simple" words frequently occurring in spoken English such as footballer, hero-warshiper are not included in the best available dictionaries.

There are many points of interest closely connected with the problem of number vocabulary units in English but we shell confine ourselves to setting down in outline a few of the major issues clustering round the to central problems: 1) divergent views of the dictionary compilers concerning the nature of basic vocabulary units and 2) intrinsic heterogeneity of modern English vocabulary, all dictionaries may be roughly divided into two main types-encyclopedic and linguistic. Linguistic dictionaries are word-books, their subject matter is vocabulary-units (their semantic structure, usage, etc.). encyclopedias are thing- books dealing with concepts (objects and phenomena, their origin and development, relations to other concepts, etc.)- *for example*, entry influenza *discloses the* causes, symptoms, characteristics , derivatives, synonyms , etc. in an encyclopedia the entry influenza discloses the causes, symptoms, characteristics and varieties of this disease, various treatments of and remedies for it ,ways of infection, etc.

Study Questions

1. What does lexicography study?
2. When was the first English dictionary published?
3. When did other dictionaries appear?
4. What types of dictionaries do you know?
5. What do the general dictionaries present?
6. What do the translation dictionaries contain?
7. What is the aim of a learner's dictionary?
8. What information do the specialized dictionaries give us.
9. What is the selection of words in compiling dictionaries?
10. What does the entry of a word in the dictionary contain?
11. What is the structure of dictionaries?
12. What are the attitudes towards dictionary?

13. What are the main problems in compiling dictionary

LECTURE 3

THEME: SEMASIOLOGY. WORD-MEANING

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF LECTURE SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабаларсони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машғулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	lecture (visual type)
<i>Машғулот режаси /ўқув машғулотининг тузилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 1. Referential Approach to Meaning 2. Meaning in the Referential Approach 3. Functional Approach to Meaning 4. Relation Between the Two Approaches
<i>Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:</i>	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; • to discuss semantic triangle • to analyze nouns semantic triangle	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> • Be able to understand semantic triangle. • Be able to understand semantic triangle. • Be able to analyze nouns by semantic triangle
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Lecture
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Lecture hall

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF LECTURE SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exercise on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and	Reflecting on the session; making an	10	Handouts

	action	action plan		
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

Problems to be discussed:

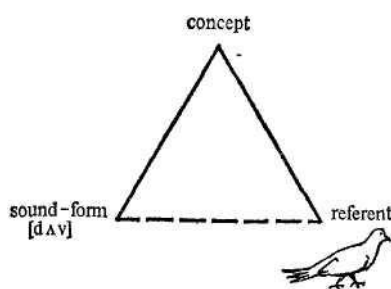
5. Referential Approach to Meaning
6. Meaning in the Referential Approach
7. Functional Approach to Meaning
8. Relation Between the Two Approaches

Key words: Meaning, referential approach, conventional and arbitrary, concept, abstraction and generalisation, linguistic analysis, functional approach, referential theory, investigation, an adequate, contexts.

Referential Approach

There are broadly speaking two schools to Meaning of thought in present-day linguistics representing the main lines of contemporary thinking on the problem: the referential approach, which seeks to formulate the essence of meaning by establishing the interdependence between words and the things or concepts they denote, and the functional approach, which studies the functions of a word in speech and is less concerned with what meaning is than with how it works.

All major works on semantic theory have so far been based on referential concepts of meaning. The essential feature of this approach is that it distinguishes between the three components closely connected with meaning: the sound-form of the linguistic sign, the concept underlying this sound-form, and the actual referent, i.e. that part or that aspect of reality to which the linguistic sign refers. The best known referential model of meaning is the so-called “basic triangle” which, with some variations, underlies the semantic systems of all the adherents of this school of thought. In a simplified form the triangle may be represented as shown below:



As can be seen from the diagram the sound-form of the linguistic sign, e.g. [dAv], is connected with our concept of the bird which it denotes and through it with the referent, i.e. the actual bird.¹ The common feature of any referential approach is the implication that meaning is in some form or other connected with the referent.

Let us now examine the place of meaning in this model. It is easily observed that the sound-form of the word is not identical with its meaning, e.g. [dAv] is the sound-form used to denote a peal-grey bird. There is no inherent connection, however, between this particular sound-cluster and the meaning of the word **dove**. The connection is conventional and arbitrary. This can be easily proved by comparing the sound-forms of different languages conveying one and the same meaning, e.g. English [dAv], Russian [golub'], German [taube] and so on. It can

also be proved by comparing almost identical sound-forms that possess different meaning in different languages. The sound-cluster [kot], e.g. in the English language means ‘a small, usually swinging bed for a child’, but in the Russian language essentially the same sound-cluster possesses the meaning ‘male cat’. –

For more convincing evidence of the conventional and arbitrary nature of the connection between sound-form and meaning all we have to do is to point to the homonyms. The word **seal** [si:l], e.g., means ‘a piece of wax, lead’, etc. stamped with a design; its homonym **seal** [si:l] possessing the same sound-form denotes ‘a sea animal’.

Besides, if meaning were inherently connected with the sound-form of a linguistic unit, it would follow that a change in sound-form would necessitate a change of meaning. We know, however, that even considerable changes in the sound-form of a word in the course of its historical development do not necessarily affect its meaning. The sound-form of the *OE.* word **lufian** [luvian] has undergone great changes, and has been transformed into **love** [lAv], yet the meaning ‘hold dear, bear love’, etc. has remained essentially unchanged.

When we examine a word we see that its meaning though closely connected with the underlying concept or concepts is not identical with them. To begin with, concept is a category of human cognition. Concept is the thought of the object that singles out its essential features. Our concepts abstract and reflect the most common and typical features of the different objects and phenomena of the world. Being the result of abstraction and generalisation all “concepts are thus intrinsically almost the same for the whole of humanity in one and the same period of its historical development. The meanings of words however are different in different languages. That is to say, words expressing identical concepts may have different meanings and different semantic structures in different languages. The concept of ‘a building for human habitation’ is expressed in English by the word **house**, in Russian by the word *дом*, but the meaning of the English word is not identical with that of the Russian as **house** does not possess the meaning of ‘fixed residence of family or household’ which is one of the meanings of the Russian word *дом*; it is expressed by another English polysemantic word, namely **home** which possesses a number of other meanings not to be found in the Russian word *дом*.

The difference between meaning and concept can also be observed by comparing synonymous words and word-groups expressing essentially the same concepts but possessing linguistic meaning which is felt as different in each of the units under consideration, e.g. **big, large; to, die, to pass away, to kick the bucket, to join the majority; child, baby, babe, infant.**

The precise definition of the content of a concept comes within the sphere of logic but it can be easily observed that the word-meaning is not identical with it. For instance, the content of the concept **six** can be expressed by ‘three plus three’, ‘five plus one’, or ‘ten minus four’, etc. Obviously, the meaning of the word **six** cannot be identified with the meaning of these word-groups.

To distinguish meaning from the referent, i.e. from the thing denoted by the linguistic sign is of the utmost importance, and at first sight does not seem to present difficulties. To begin with, meaning is linguistic whereas the denoted object or the referent is beyond the scope of language. We can denote one and the same object by more than one word of a different meaning. For instance, in a speech situation an apple can be denoted **by the** words **apple, fruit, something, this**, etc. as all of these words may have the same referent. Meaning cannot be equated with the actual properties of the referent, e.g. the meaning of the word **water** cannot be regarded as identical with its chemical formula H_2O as **water** means essentially the same to all English speakers including those who have no idea of its chemical composition. Last but not least there are words that have distinct meaning but do not refer to any existing thing, e.g. **angel** or **phoenix**. Such words have meaning which is understood by the speaker-hearer, but the objects they denote do not exist.

Thus, meaning is not to be identified with any of the three points of the triangle.

Meaning in the Referential Approach

It should be pointed out that among the adherents of the referential approach there are some who hold that the meaning of a linguistic sign is the concept underlying it, and consequently they substitute meaning for concept in the basic triangle. Others identify meaning with the referent. They argue that unless we have a scientifically accurate knowledge of the referent we cannot give a scientifically accurate definition of the meaning of a word. According to them the English word salt, e.g., means 'sodium chloride (NaCl)'. But how are we to define precisely the meanings of such words as love or hate, etc.? We must admit that the actual extent of human knowledge makes it impossible to define word-meanings accurately¹. It logically follows that any study of meanings in linguistics along these lines must be given up as impossible.

Here we have sought to show that meaning is closely connected but not identical with sound-form, concept or referent. Yet even those who accept this view disagree as to the nature of meaning. Some linguists regard meaning as the interrelation of the three points of the triangle within the framework of the given language, i.e. as the interrelation of the sound-form, concept and referent, but not as an objectively existing part of the linguistic sign. Others and among them some outstanding Soviet linguists, proceed from the basic assumption of the objectivity of language and meaning and understand the linguistic sign as a two-facet unit. They view meaning as "a certain reflection in our mind of objects, phenomena or relations that makes part of the linguistic sign — its so-called inner facet, whereas the sound-form functions as its outer facet."² The outer facet of the linguistic sign is indispensable to meaning and intercommunication. Meaning is to be found in all linguistic units and together with their sound-form constitutes the linguistic signs studied by linguistic science.

The criticism of the referential theories of meaning may be briefly summarised as follows:

1. Meaning, as understood in the referential approach, comprises the interrelation of linguistic signs with categories and phenomena outside the scope of language. As neither referents (i.e. actual things, phenomena, etc.) nor concepts belong to language, the analysis of meaning is confined either to the study of the interrelation of the linguistic sign and referent or that of the linguistic sign and concept, all of which, properly speaking, is not the object of linguistic study.

2. The great stumbling block in referential theories of meaning has always been that they operate with subjective and intangible mental processes. The results of semantic investigation therefore depend to a certain extent on "the feel of the language" and cannot be verified by another investigator analysing the same linguistic data. It follows that semasiology has to rely too much on linguistic intuition and unlike other fields of linguistic inquiry (e.g. phonetics, history of language) does not possess objective methods of investigation. Consequently it is argued, linguists should either give up the study of meaning and the attempts to define meaning altogether, or confine their efforts to the investigation of the function of linguistic signs in speech.

Functional Approach to Meaning

In recent years a new and entirely different approach to meaning known as the functional

¹ See, e. g., L. Bloomfield. *Language*. N. Y., 1933, p. 139.

² А. И. Смирницкий. Значение слова. — *Вопр. языкознания*, 1955, № 2. See also С. И. Ожегов. *Лексикология, лексикография, культура речи*. М., 1974, с. 197.

approach has begun to take shape in linguistics and especially in structural linguistics. The functional approach maintains that the meaning of a linguistic unit may be studied only through its relation to other linguistic units and not through its relation to either concept or referent. In a very simplified form this view may be illustrated by the following: we know, for instance, that the meaning of the two words *move* and *movement* is different because they function in speech differently. Comparing the contexts in which we find these words we cannot fail to observe that they occupy different positions in relation to other words. (To) *move*, e.g., can be followed by a noun (*move the chair*), preceded by a pronoun (*we move*), etc. The position occupied by the word *movement* is different: it may be followed by a preposition (*movement of smth*), preceded by an adjective (*slow movement*), and so on. As the distribution of the two words is different, we are entitled to the conclusion that not only do they belong to different classes of words, but that their meanings are different too.

The same is true of the different meanings of one and the same word. Analysing the function of a word in linguistic contexts and comparing these contexts, we conclude that meanings are different (or the same) and this fact can be proved by an objective investigation of linguistic data. For example we can observe the difference of the meanings of the word *take* if we examine its functions in different linguistic contexts, *take the tram* (the taxi, the cab., etc.) as opposed to *take to somebody*.

It follows that in the functional approach (1) semantic investigation is confined to the analysis of the difference or sameness of meaning; (2) meaning is understood essentially as the function of the use of linguistic units. As a matter of fact, this line of semantic investigation is the primary concern, implied or expressed, of all structural linguists.

Relation between the Two Approaches

When comparing the two approaches described above in terms of methods of linguistic analysis we see that the functional approach should not be considered an alternative, but rather a valuable complement to the referential theory. It is only natural that linguistic investigation must start by collecting an adequate number of samples of contexts.³ On examination the meaning or meanings of linguistic units will emerge from the contexts themselves. Once this phase had been completed it seems but logical to pass on to the referential phase and try to formulate the meaning thus identified. There is absolutely no need to set the two approaches against each other; each handles its own side of the problem and neither is complete without the other.

Study Questions

1. What is semasiology busy with?
2. What does semasiology study?
3. What is the definition of the term «meaning of a word!»
4. What is understood by the referential approach to meaning?
5. What is understood by the functional approach to meaning?

³ It is of interest to note that the functional approach is sometimes described as contextual, as it is based on the analysis of various contexts. See, e. g., *St. Ullmann. Semantics. Oxford, 1962, pp. 64-67.*

LECTURE 4

THEME: TYPES OF MEANING

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF LECTURE SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабаларсони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машғулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	lecture (visual type)
<i>Машғулот режаси /ўқув машғулотининг тузилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 1. Grammatical Meaning 2. Lexical Meaning 3. Part-of-speech Meaning 4. Denotational and Connotational Meaning
<i>Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:</i>	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; • to discuss semantic triangle • to analyze nouns semantic triangle	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> • Be able to understand grammatical meaning. • Be able to understand lexical meaning. • Be able to analyze types of meaning
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Lecture
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Lecture hall

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF LECTURE SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exerciese on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

Problems to be discussed:

5. Grammatical Meaning
6. Lexical Meaning
7. Part-of-speech Meaning
8. Denotational and Connotational Meaning

Key words: Homogeneous, inner facet, reality, element, individual forms, distinction, interrelation, referents, linguistic unit, distribution, semantic component, be expressed, distinguishing, minor, lexical items.

Grammatical Meaning

It is more or less universally recognised that word-meaning is not homogeneous but is made up of various components the combination and the interrelation of which determine to a great extent the inner facet of the word. These components are usually described as types of meaning. The two main types of meaning that are readily observed are the grammatical and the lexical meanings to be found in words and word-forms.

We notice, e.g., that word-forms, such as girls, winters, joys, tables, etc. though denoting widely different objects of reality have something in common. This common element is the grammatical meaning of plurality which can be found in all of them.

Thus grammatical meaning may be defined, as the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words, as, e.g., the tense meaning in the word-forms of verbs (asked, thought, walked, etc.) or the case meaning in the word-forms of various nouns (girl's, boy's, night's, etc.).

In a broad sense it may be argued that linguists who make a distinction between lexical and grammatical meaning are, in fact, making a distinction between the functional (linguistic) meaning which operates at various levels as the interrelation of various linguistic units and referential (conceptual) meaning as the interrelation of linguistic units and referents (or concepts).

In modern linguistic science it is commonly held that some elements of grammatical meaning can be identified by the position of the linguistic unit in relation to other linguistic units, i.e. by its distribution. Word-forms speaks, reads, writes have one and the same grammatical meaning as they can all be found in identical distribution, e.g. only after the pronouns he, she, it and before adverbs like well, badly, to-day, etc.

It follows that a certain component of the meaning of a word is described when you identify it as a part of speech, since different parts of speech are distributionally different (cf. my work and I work).⁴

Lexical Meaning

Comparing word-forms of one and the same word we observe that besides grammatical meaning, there is another component of meaning to be found in them. Unlike the grammatical meaning this component is identical in all the forms of the word. Thus, e.g. the word-forms **go, goes, went, going, gone** possess different grammatical meanings of tense, person and so on, but in each of these forms we find one and the same semantic component denoting the process of movement. This is the lexical meaning of the word which may be described as the component of meaning proper to the word as a linguistic unit, i.e. recurrent in all the forms of this word.

⁴ For a more detailed discussion of the interrelation of the lexical and grammatical meaning in words see § 7 and also *A. И. Смирницкий. Лексикология английского языка. М., 1956, с. 21 — 26.*

The difference between the lexical and the grammatical components of meaning is not to be sought in the difference of the concepts underlying the two types of meaning, but rather in the way they are conveyed. The concept of plurality, e.g., may be expressed by the lexical meaning of the word **plurality**; it may also be expressed in the forms of various words irrespective of their lexical meaning, e.g. **boys, girls, joys**, etc. The concept of relation may be expressed by the lexical meaning of the word **relation** and also by any of the prepositions, e.g. **in, on, behind**, etc. (cf. **the book is in/on, behind the table**). “

It follows that by lexical meaning we designate the meaning proper to the given linguistic unit in all its forms and distributions, while by grammatical meaning we designate the meaning proper to sets of word-forms common to all words of a certain class. Both the lexical and the grammatical meaning make up the word-meaning as neither can exist without the other. That can be also observed in the semantic analysis of correlated words in different languages.

Part-of-speech Meaning

It is usual to classify lexical items into major word-classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs) and minor word-classes (articles, prepositions, conjunctions, etc.).

All members of a major word-class share a distinguishing semantic component which though very abstract may be viewed as the lexical component of part-of-speech meaning. For example, the meaning of ‘thingness’ or substantiality may be found in all the nouns e.g. **table, love, sugar**, though they possess different grammatical meanings of number, case, etc. It should be noted, however, that the grammatical aspect of the part-of-speech meanings is conveyed as a rule by a set of forms. If we describe the word as a noun we mean to say that it is bound to possess a set of forms expressing the grammatical meaning of number (cf. **table — tables**), case (cf. **boy, boy’s**) and so on. A verb is understood to possess sets of forms expressing, e.g., tense meaning (**worked — works**), mood meaning (**work! — (I) work**), etc.

The part-of-speech meaning of the words that possess only one form, e.g. prepositions, some adverbs, etc., is observed only in their distribution (cf. **to come in (here, there) and in (on, under) the table**).

One of the levels at which grammatical meaning operates is that of minor word classes like articles, pronouns, etc.

Members of these word classes are generally listed in dictionaries just as other vocabulary items, that belong to major word-classes of lexical items proper (e.g. nouns, verbs, etc.).

One criterion for distinguishing these grammatical items from lexical items is in terms of closed and open sets. Grammatical items form closed sets of units usually of small membership (e.g. the set of modern English pronouns, articles, etc.). New items are practically never added.

Lexical items proper belong to open sets which have indeterminately large membership; new lexical items which are constantly coined to fulfil the needs of the speech community are added to these open sets.

The interrelation of the lexical and the grammatical meaning and the role played by each varies in different word-classes and even in different groups of words within one and the same class. In some parts of speech the prevailing component is the grammatical type of meaning. The lexical meaning of prepositions for example is, as a rule, relatively vague (**independent of smb, one of the students, the roof of the house**). The lexical meaning of some prepositions, however, may be comparatively distinct (cf. **in/on, under the table**). In verbs the lexical meaning usually comes to the fore although in some of them, the verb **to be**, e.g., the grammatical meaning of a linking element prevails (cf. **he works as a teacher and he is a teacher**).

Denotational and Connotational Meaning

Proceeding with the semantic analysis we observe that lexical meaning is not homogenous either and may be analysed as including denotational and connotational components.

As was mentioned above one of the functions of words is to denote things, concepts and so on. Users of a language cannot have any knowledge or thought of the objects or phenomena of the real world around them unless this knowledge is ultimately embodied in words which have essentially the same meaning for all speakers of that language. This is the denotational meaning, i.e. that component of the lexical meaning which makes communication possible. There is no doubt that a physicist knows more about the atom than a singer does, or that an arctic explorer possesses a much deeper knowledge of what arctic ice is like than a man who has never been in the North. Nevertheless they use the words **atom**, **Arctic**, etc. and understand each other.

The second component of the lexical meaning is the connotational component, i.e. the emotive charge and the stylistic value of the word.

Study Questions

1. What is the difference between the grammatical meaning and the lexical meaning?
2. What types of the lexical meaning do you know?
3. What are the differential and functional meanings of the word?
4. What is the motivation of the word?
5. What types of motivation do you know?
6. What is meaning and context?

LECTURE 5

THEME: CHANGE OF MEANING AND ITS RESULT

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF LECTURE SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабаларсони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машғулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	lecture (visual type)
<i>Машғулот режаси /ўқув машғулотининг тузилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 1. Causes of Semantic Change 2. Nature of Semantic Change 3. Results of Semantic Change 4. Interrelation of Causes, Nature and Results of Semantic Change
<i>Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:</i>	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• To introduce the main concepts under the given theme;• to discuss semantic	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Be able to understand causes of semantic change• Be able to understand nature of semantic change• Be able to analyze semantic change

triangle • to analyze nouns semantic triangle	
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Lecture
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Lecture hall

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF LECTURE SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exerciese on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

Problems to be discussed:

5. Causes of Semantic Change
6. Nature of Semantic Change
7. Results of Semantic Change
8. Interrelation of Causes, Nature and Results of Semantic Change

Key words: Terminological confusion, restriction, extension, amelioration, deterioration of meaning, semantic change, metaphoric or metonymic transfer, criteria.

Causes of Semantic Change

Word-meaning is liable to change in the course of the historical development of language. Changes of lexical meaning may be illustrated by a diachronic semantic analysis of many commonly used English words. The word **fond** (*OE. fond*) used to mean 'foolish', 'foolishly credulous'; **glad** (*OE, glaed*) had the meaning of 'bright', 'shining' and so on.

Change of meaning has been thoroughly studied and as a matter of fact monopolised the attention of all semanticists whose work up to the early 1930's was centered almost exclusively on the description and classification of various changes of meaning. Abundant language data can be found in almost all the books dealing with semantics. Here we shall confine the discussion to a brief outline of the problem as it is viewed in modern linguistic science.

To avoid the ensuing confusion of terms and concepts it is necessary to discriminate between the causes of semantic change, the results and the nature of the process of change of

meaning⁵. These are three closely bound up, but essentially different aspects of one and the same problem.

Discussing the causes of semantic change we concentrate on the factors bringing about - this change and attempt to find out why the word changed its meaning. Analysing the nature of semantic change we seek to clarify the process of this change and describe **how** various changes of meaning were brought about. Our aim in investigating the results of semantic change is to find out what was changed, i.e. we compare the resultant and the original meanings and describe the difference between them mainly in terms of the changes of the denotational components.

The factors accounting for semantic changes may be roughly subdivided into two groups: a) extra-linguistic and b) linguistic causes.

By extra-linguistic causes we mean various changes in the life of the speech community, changes in economic and social structure, changes in ideas, scientific concepts, way of life and other spheres of human activities as reflected in word meanings. Although objects, institutions, concepts, etc. change in the course of time in many cases the soundform of the words which denote them is retained but the meaning of the words is changed. The word **car**, e.g., ultimately goes back to Latin **carrus** which meant 'a four-wheeled wagon' (*ME. carre*) but now that other means of transport are used it denotes 'a motor-car', 'a railway carriage' (in the USA), 'that portion of an airship, or balloon which is intended to carry personnel, cargo or equipment'.

Some changes of meaning are due to what may be described as purely linguistic causes, i.e. factors acting within the language system. The commonest form which this influence takes is the so-called ellipsis. In a phrase made up of two words one of these is omitted and its meaning is transferred to its partner. The verb **to starve**, e.g., in Old English (*OE. steorfan*) had the meaning 'to die' and was habitually used in collocation with the word **hunger** (*ME. sterven of hunger*). Already in the 16th century the verb itself acquired the meaning 'to die of hunger'. Similar semantic changes may be observed in Modern English when the meaning of one word is transferred to another because they habitually occur together in speech.

Another linguistic cause is discrimination of synonyms which can be illustrated by the semantic development of a number of words. The word **land**, e.g., in Old English (*OE. land*) meant both 'solid part of earth's surface' and 'the territory of a nation'. When in the Middle English period the word **country** (*OFr. contree*) was borrowed as its synonym, the meaning of the word **land** was somewhat altered and 'the territory of a nation' came to be denoted mainly by the borrowed word **country**.

Some semantic changes may be accounted for by the influence of a peculiar factor usually referred to as linguistic analogy. It was found out, e.g., that if one of the members of a synonymic set acquires a new meaning other members of this set change their meanings too. It was observed, e.g., that all English adverbs which acquired the meaning 'rapidly' (in a certain period of time — before 1300) always develop the meaning 'immediately', similarly verbs synonymous with **catch**, e.g. **grasp**, **get**, etc., by semantic extension acquired another meaning — 'to understand'.

Nature of Semantic Change

Generally speaking, a necessary condition of any semantic change, no matter what its cause, is some connection, some association between the old meaning and the new. There are two kinds of association involved as a rule in various semantic changes namely: a) similarity of meanings, and b) contiguity of meanings.

S i m i l a r i t y of meanings or metaphor may be described as a semantic process of associating two referents, one of which in some way resembles the other. The word **hand**, e.g., acquired in the 16th century the meaning of 'a pointer of a clock of a watch' because

⁵ St. Ullmann. *The Principles of Semantics*. Chapter 8, Oxford, 1963. 28

of the similarity of one of the functions performed by the hand (to point at something) and the function of the clockpointer. Since metaphor is based on the perception of similarities it is only natural that when an analogy is obvious, it should give rise to a metaphoric meaning. This can be observed in the wide currency of metaphoric meanings of words denoting parts of the human body in various languages (cf. 'the leg of the table', 'the foot of the hill', etc.). Sometimes it is similarity of form, outline, etc. that underlies the metaphor. The words **warm** and **cold** began to denote certain qualities of human voices because of some kind of similarity between these qualities and warm and cold temperature. It is also usual to perceive similarity between colours and emotions.

It has also been observed that in many speech communities colour terms, e.g. the words **black** and **white**, have metaphoric meanings in addition to the literal denotation of colours.

C o n t i g u i t y of meanings or metonymy may be described as the semantic process of associating two referents one of which makes part of the other or is closely connected with it.

This can be perhaps best illustrated by the use of the word **tongue** — 'the organ of speech' in the meaning of 'language' (as in **mother tongue**; cf. also *L. lingua*, *Russ. язык*). The word **bench** acquired the meaning 'judges, magistrates' because it was on the **bench** that the judges used to sit in law courts, similarly **the House** acquired the meaning of 'members of the House' (**Parliament**).

It is generally held that metaphor plays a more important role in the change of meaning than metonymy. A more detailed analysis would show that there are some semantic changes that fit into more than the two groups discussed above. A change of meaning, e.g., may be brought about by the association between the sound-forms of two words. The word **boon**, e.g.", originally meant 'prayer, petition', 'request', but then came to denote 'a thing prayed or asked for'. Its current meaning is 'a blessing, an advantage, a thing to be thanked for.' The change of meaning was probably due to the similarity to the sound-form of the adjective **boon** (an Anglicised form of French **bon** denoting 'good, nice').

Within metaphoric and metonymic changes we can single out various subgroups. Here, however, we shall confine ourselves to a very general outline of the main types of semantic association as discussed above. A more detailed analysis of the changes of meaning and the nature of such changes belongs in the diachronic or historical lexicology and lies outside the scope of the present methodical complex.

Results of Semantic Change

Results of semantic change can be generally observed in the changes of the denotational meaning of the word (restriction and extension of meaning) or in the alteration of its connotational component (amelioration and deterioration of meaning).

C h a n g e s in t h e d e n o t a t i o n a l m e a n i n g may result in the restriction of the types or range of referents denoted by the word. This may be illustrated by the semantic development of the word **hound** (*OE. hund*) which used to denote 'a dog of any breed' but now denotes only 'a dog used in the chase'. This is also the case with the word **fowl** (*OE. fuzol, fuzel*) which in old English denoted 'any bird', but in Modern English denotes 'a domestic hen or cock'. This is generally described as "restriction of meaning" and if the word with the new meaning comes to be used in the specialised vocabulary of some limited group within the speech community it is usual to speak of s p e c i a l i s a t i o n of meaning. For example, we can observe restriction and specialisation of meaning in the case of the verb **to glide** (*OE. glidan*) which had the meaning 'to move gently and smoothly' and has now acquired a restricted and specialised meaning 'to fly with no engine' (cf. **a glider**).

Changes in the denotational meaning may also result in the application of the word to a wider variety of referents. This is commonly described as e x t e n s i o n of m e a n i n g and may be illustrated by the word **target** which originally meant 'a small round shield' (a

diminutive of **targe**, cf. *ON. targa*) but now means ‘anything that is fired at’ and also figuratively ‘any result aimed at’.

If the word with the extended meaning passes from the specialised vocabulary into common use, we describe the result of the semantic change as the *g e n e r a l i s a t i o n* of *m e a n i n g*. The word **camp**, e.g., which originally was used only as a military term and meant ‘the place where troops are lodged in tents’ (cf. *L. campus* — ‘exercising ground for the army’) extended and generalised its meaning and now denotes ‘temporary quarters’ (of travellers, nomads, etc.).

As can be seen from the examples discussed above it is mainly the denotational component of the lexical meaning that is affected while the connotational component remains unaltered. There are other cases, however, when the changes in the connotational meaning come to the fore. These changes, as a rule accompanied by a change in the denotational component, may be subdivided into two main groups: a) *p e j o r a t i v e d e v e l o p m e n t* or the acquisition by the word of some derogatory emotive charge, and b) *a m e l i o r a t i v e d e v e l o p m e n t* or the improvement of the connotational component of meaning. The semantic change in the word **boor** may serve to illustrate the first group. This word was originally used to denote ‘a villager, a peasant’ (cf. *OE. zebur* ‘dweller’) and then acquired a derogatory, contemptuous connotational meaning and came to denote ‘a clumsy or ill-bred fellow’. The ameliorative development of the connotational meaning may be observed in the change of the semantic structure of the word **minister** which in one of its meanings originally denoted ‘a servant, an attendant’, but now — ‘a civil servant of higher rank, a person administering a department of state or accredited by one state to another’.

It is of interest to note that in derivational clusters a change in the connotational meaning of one member does not necessarily affect the others. This peculiarity can be observed in the words *accident* and *accidental*. The lexical meaning of the noun *accident* has undergone pejorative development and denotes not only ‘something that happens by chance’, but usually ‘something unfortunate’. The derived adjective *accidental* does not possess in its semantic structure this negative connotational meaning (cf. also *fortune*: *bad fortune*, *good fortune* and *fortunate*).

Interrelation of Causes, Nature and Results of Semantic Change

As can be inferred from the analysis of various changes of word-meanings they can be classified according to the social causes that bring about change of meaning (socio-linguistic classification), the nature of these changes (psychological classification) and the results of semantic changes (logical classification). Here it is suggested that causes, nature and results of semantic changes should be viewed as three essentially different but inseparable aspects of one and the same linguistic phenomenon as a change of meaning may be investigated from the point of view of its cause, nature and its consequences.

Essentially the same causes may bring about different results, e.g. the semantic development in the word *knight* (*OE. cniht*) from ‘a boy servant’ to ‘a young warrior’ and eventually to the meaning it possesses in Modern English is due to extra-linguistic causes just as the semantic change in the word *boor*, but the results are different. In the case of **book** we observe pejorative development whereas in the case of **knight** we observe amelioration of the connotational component. And conversely, different causes may lead to the same result. Restriction of meaning, for example, may be the result of the influence of extra-linguistic factors as in the case of *glide* (progress of science and technique) and also of purely linguistic causes

(discrimination of synonyms) as is the case with the word **fowl**. Changes of essentially identical nature, e. g. similarity of referent as the basis of association, may bring about different results, e.g. extension of meaning as in target and also restriction of meaning as in the word **fowl**.

To avoid terminological confusion it is suggested that the terms **restriction** and **extension** or **amelioration** and **deterioration** of meaning should be used to describe only the results of semantic change irrespective of its nature or causes. When we discuss metaphoric or metonymic transfer of meaning we imply the nature of the semantic change whatever its results may be. It also follows that a change of meaning should be described so as to satisfy all the three criteria.

In the discussion of semantic changes we confined ourselves only to the type of change which results in the disappearance of the old meaning which is replaced by the new one. The term **change of meaning** however is also used to describe a change in the number (as a rule an increase) and arrangement of word-meanings without a single meaning disappearing from its semantic structure.

Study Questions

1. What causes of semantic change do you know?
2. What is the extralinguistic causes of semantic change?
3. What is the linguistic cause of semantic change?
4. What is a metaphor?
5. What is the similarity based on?
6. What is a metonymy?
7. What words are often used metonymically?
8. What is the restriction of meaning?
9. What is the extension of meaning?
10. What is the difference between the amelioration of meaning and the deterioration of meaning.
11. What is the specialization of meaning?
12. What is the generalization of meanings of a word?

LECTURE 6

THEME: SEMANTIC SYSTEMS IN ENGLISH. POLYSEMY, HOMONYMS.

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF LECTURE SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабаларсони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машғулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	lecture (visual type)
<i>Машғулот режаси /ўқув машғулотининг тuzилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 1. Polysemy 2. Homonyms
<i>Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:</i>	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.

<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; to discuss semantic triangle to analyze nouns semantic triangle 	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Be able to understand polysemies. Be able to understand homonyms. Be able to analyze semantic systems of the English language.
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Lecture
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Lecture hall

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF LECTURE SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exerciese on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

Problems to be discussed:

1. Polysemy
2. Homonyms

Key words: Primary meaning, monosemantic, frequency, homonyms, homonyms proper, homophones, homographs, absolute synonyms, phraseologic synonyms, ideographic synonyms, stylistic synonyms.

Polysemy

The word «polysemy» means «plurality of meanings» it exists only in the language, not in speech. A word which has more than one meaning is called polysemantic.

Different meanings of a polysemantic word may come together due to the proximity of notions which they express. *For example*, the word «blanket» has the following meanings: a woolen covering used on beds, a covering for keeping a horse warm, a covering of any kind /a blanket of snow/, covering all or most cases /used attributively/, *For example*. We can say «a blanket insurance policy».

There are some words in the language which are mono semantic, such as most terms, /synonym, molecule, bronchites/, some pronouns /this, my, both/, numerals.

There are two processes of the semantic development of a word: radiation and concatenation. In cases of radiation the primary meaning stands in the centre and the secondary meanings proceed out of it like rays. Each secondary meaning can be traced to the primary meaning. **For example.** In the word «*face*» the primary meaning denotes «the front part of the human head connected with the front position the meanings: the front part of a watch, the front part of a building, the front part of a playing card were formed. Connected with the word «*face*» itself the meanings : expression of the face, outward appearance are formed.

In cases of concatenation secondary meanings of a word develop like a chain. In such cases it is difficult to trace some meanings to the primary one. **For example,** in the word «*crust*» the primary meaning «hard outer part of bread» developed a secondary meaning «hard part of anything a pie, a cake», then the meaning «harder layer over soft snow» was developed, then «a sullen gloomy person», then «impudence» were developed. Here the last meanings have nothing to do with the primary ones. In such cases homonyms appear in the language. It is called the split of polysemy.

In most cases in the semantic development of a word both ways of semantic development are combined.

So, thus, polysemy is the existence within one word of several connected meanings. These meanings appeared as a result of the development and changes of its original meaning. Words are divided into two: polysemantic and monosemantic words. Polysemantic words are words which have more than two meanings. Monosemantic words have only one meaning. **For example.** The word «*man*» has eleven meanings in modern English: 1) человек (одам) 2) адвокат (адвокат) 3) мужчина (эркак) 4) мужественный человек (кўркмас одам) 5) человечество (одамийлик б) слуга (хизматкор) 7) рабочий (ишчи) 8) муж (эр) 9) рядовые матросы (денгизчилар) 10) вассал (вассал) 11) пешка пиёда (шахматда)

The word «*room*» has 3 meanings: 1) комната (хона) 2) место (жой) возможность (кулайлик). The word «*new*» has 8 meanings: 1) новый (янги) 2) иной , другой (бошка) 3) недавний (якинда келтирилган) 4) свежий (янги) 5) со временный (замоновий) 6) передовой (илгор) 7) обнаруженный (кайта топилган) 8) незнакомый(бегона)

«*Paint* » has 7 meanings :красить (буямок); 2. писать красками (буёк билан чизмоқ); 3. описывать, изображать (тасвирламоқ); 4. приукрашивать (буяб кўрсатмоқ); 5. румяниться, краситься (буянмоқ); 6. пьянствовать (маст бўлмоқ);7. смазывать (сурмоқ)

«*Picture* » has 9 meanings :

1. Картина, рисунок(сурат);
2. копия, портрет (нусха) ;
3. представление (маълумот);
- 4 живописная поза (ранг-баранг сумбат, турли);
- 5.картинка, что-либо очень красивое (чиройли сурат)
6. кино (кино);
7. кинематография (кинематография);
8. амер.дело,сущность (асос , туб);
9. картина крови (раст)

For example . She is the picture of her mother, to form a clear picture of smth. living pictures in the air.

«*white*

white cloud белое облако (оқ булутлар) .

white collar амер . служащий (хизматкор)

white hair с едой волос (оқ соч)

white lie невинная ложь (айибсиз хато)

white house белый дом (оқ уй)
white race счастливого пути (оқ йўл)
white witch добрая колдунья (мехрибон сехргар)

Monosemantic words are mostly scientific terms: hydrogen, laser, etc.

«The frequency of polysemy in different languages is a variable depending on a number of factors. The progress of civilization will make it necessary not only to form new words but to add fresh meanings to old ones: in Breal's formula, the more senses a term has accumulated, the more senses a term has accumulated the more diverse aspects of intellectual and social activity it represents. It would be interesting to explore over a wider field the relation between polysemy and cultural progress.

Meanwhile, the frequency of polysemy will also depend on purely linguistic factors. As already noted, languages where derivation and composition are sparingly used will tend to fill gaps in vocabulary by adding new meanings to existing terms. Similarly polysemy will arise more often in generic words whose meaning varies according to context than in specific terms whose sense is less subject to variation. The relative frequency of polysemy in various languages may thus provide a further criterion for semantic typology, though once again it is hard to see now this feature could be exactly measured. (*S. Ulmann*),

«Polysemy is a fertile source of ambiguity in language. In a limited number of cases, two major meanings of the same word are differentiated by formal means: *for example*, flexion (brothers—brethren, hanged—hung); word order (ambassador extraordinary — extraordinary ambassador; spelling (discreet — discrete, draft — draught etc). In the last majority of cases, however, the context alone will suffice to exclude all irrelevant senses. When all these safeguards break down, a conflict between two or more incompatible meanings will ensue and this may lead to the disappearance of some of these meanings, or even to that of the word itself. In the present state of our knowledge it is impossible to say whether there are any general tendencies at work in these conflicts and in the way they are resolved. (*S. Ulmann*).

Synchronic and diachronic analysis of polysemy

Polysemy may be analysed from two ways: diachronically and synchronically. If polysemy is analysed diachronically it is understood as the development of the semantic structure of the word or we establish how the meaning of the word has changed whether it has got new meanings in the course of the development of the language. From the historical point of view one of the meanings of the word will be primary meaning; that is such a meaning of a word which was first registered. All other meanings are secondary meanings. The term secondary meaning shows that the meaning appeared in the language after the primary meaning was already established.

For example, the primary meaning of the word «fox» is Jınca, лиса, лисица (тулки урғочиси) but such meanings of this word as лисий пух (тулки жуни), первокурсник (биринчи курс студенти) are secondary meanings. Here are other examples: eye the primary meaning is глаз (кўз), secondary is взгляд (нигоҳ), глазок в двери (эшикдаги кўрадиган тешик), ушко иголки (игна кўзи), петельки (тугма такиладиган тешик); «father» — the primary meaning is отец (ота), secondary is старе йший член (ёши улугъ аъзо), родоначальник (кабила бошлиги), духовный отец (диний одам , рухоний) etc «fish» — the primary meaning is рыба (балик), secondary is нахал , наглец (сурбет).

Synchronic study of word meaning words having one meaning are called monosemantic. Polysemy is the result of one process of the accumulation of meanings. The principal cause of polysemy according to Vinogradov's theory is discrepancy between the limited number of words and the unlimited number of things meant.

1. Frequency value. The more often a word is used the more meanings it has. *For example*. Man, hand, take, see are very often used in speech and they have many meanings.

2. Syllabic structure of words. The shorter a word is the more meanings it has. The more simple morphological structure a word has, the more meanings it has. **For example.** *Man, woman, table, cat, head, hand* etc.

3. Stylistic reference of words A word stylistically neutral having no emotive charge has more meanings while a word with a narrow stylistic reference and has less meanings. Father-daddy, a horse- steed, girl- girlie

From diachronical point of view we distinguish: primary meaning and secondary meaning. From synchronical point of view we distinguish between the central meaning and marginal meaning. Central meaning is the most generalized meaning. This is clear to us without any context. Marginal meanings are semantically connected with the central meaning, and they as if group around it.

Synchronically polysemy is understood as the coexistence of various meanings of the word at a certain historical period of the development of English. Synchronically the main problem of polysemy is to establish whether all the meanings of a word are equally important. We divide the meanings of a word into two: the major (or basic) meaning of a word and the minor meaning. In most cases the surrounding context points out quite clearly which of the meanings of a word is intended

For example. 1. It is a fox. Here «it» shows that the word «fox» is used in the meaning " лиса " (тулки).

2. He is a fox. The presence of «he» shows that «fox» is in the meaning of « хитрый » (« айёр »).

3. She will fox him. We find the meaning from the position of «fox». It stands after the auxiliary verb «will» and the direct object «him». Here it is used in the meaning of обманывать (алдамоқ)

The meaning which is not dependent on context is the major (or basic) meaning of the word and the meanings which are dependent on the context are minor meanings. By context we mean the minimal stretch of speech determining each individual meaning of the word. **For example.** «to make» means «to produce smth». This is its basic meaning but other meanings are minor meanings because they can be found only in a context.

The meaning of a word may be determined either by its lexical or by its grammatical context. **For example,** the verb «to take» in such lexical distributions as: take + tea (coffee, medicine) — its meaning is пить (ичмоқ); take + care - заботиться (ғамхўрлик қилмоқ); take + off — раздеваться (ечмоқ); to take + tram, the metro, a bus — сесть на ... (трамвайга . автобусага тушмоқ); The meaning “ больной ” of the adjective «ill» is brought out only by a syntactical pattern in which «ill» is used as a predicative (ex, the man is ill) while the syntactical pattern in which the word «ill» is used as an attribute, brings out the meaning — плохой (ёмон) вредный an ill man — плохой человек (ёмон одам)

Polysemy and frequency of the word

The comparative study of the frequency value of different meanings of polysemantic words shows that the frequency value of individual meanings is different. **For example.** The meaning of the word «table» -стоji (a piece of furniture) possesses the highest frequency value and comprises 52% of all uses of this word.

The meanings of polysemantic words have different stylistic references. **For example.** «jerk» in the meaning of «sudden movement») belongs to a neutral style but in the meaning of «an odd persons it is a slang (mostly expressive and ironical words). Stylistically neutral meanings are very frequent. In any historical period as a result of semantic development the secondary meaning of the word may become the central (major meaning of the word).

Polysemantic words are in most cases frequent, etymologically — native or morphologically -simple (which has simple stem). From the phonetical point of view they have mostly one syllable, stylistically they are neutral words. **For example,** heart, work, do, talk, etc.

There is however, another aspect of polysemy which can be more precisely quantified: its relation to word-frequency. By systematically comparing the relative frequency of various words with the number of senses in which they are used, the late Q. K. Zipf arrived at an interesting conclusion which he termed the «principle of diversity of meanings ». According to Zipf there is a direct relationship between the number of different meanings of a word and its relative frequency of occurrences. He even tried to find a mathematical formula for this relationship: his calculations suggested that «different meanings of a word will tend to be equal to the square root of its relative frequency (with the possible exception of the few dozen most frequent words. (S. Ulman)

Homonyms

Homonyms are words which are different in meaning but identical in sound or spelling, or both in sound and spelling. Homonyms can appear in the language not only as the result of the split of polysemy, but also as the result of levelling of grammar inflexions, when different parts of speech become identical in their outer aspect, **For example.** «care» from «care» and «care» from «carian». They can be also formed by means of conversion, **For example.** «to slim» from «slim», «to water» from «water». They can be formed with the help of the same suffix from the same stem, **For example.** «reader»/ a person who reads and a book for reading/.

Homonyms can also appear in the language accidentally, when two words coincide in their development, **For example,** two native words can coincide in their outer aspects: «to bear» from «beran»/to carry/ and «bear» from «bera»/an animal/. A native word and a borrowing can coincide in their outer aspects, **For example.** «fair» from Latin «feria» and «fair» from native «fager» /blond/. Two borrowings can coincide **For example.** «base» from the French «base» /Latin basis/ and «base» /low/ from the Latin «bas» /Italian «basso»/.

Homonyms can develop through shortening of different words, **For example.** «cab» from «cabriolet», «cabbage», «cabin».

In Modern English homonyms are widely spread. Homonymic relation can be found not only in words but also: 1) between morphemes, **For example.** It's **rainig**. Flattering won't help. Fill your glasses. All is well that ends well; 2) between words and morphemes, **For example.** He couldn't get over the **shock**. The watch is shockproof; 3) between words and word-combinations, **For example.** Don't run away. The runaway was caught; 4) between words and sentences. **For example.** I don't care. He took and I don't care attitude.

Homonyms differ in their wordformational activity. For example "affect"-has 8 derivatives affective, affected, affectedly, affectation, affection, affectional, affectionally) whereas, «affect 2 » has 3, (affectation, affecting, affected)

The interdependence and interrelations of different peculiarities of homonymic pairs demand further investigation.

Classifications of homonyms.

Walter Skeat classified homonyms according to their spelling and sound forms and he pointed out three groups: perfect homonyms that is words identical in sound and spelling, such as : «school» - " косяк рыбы " (балик суюги) and « школа » (мактаб); homographs, that is words with the same spelling but pronounced differently, **For example** «bov» -/bau/ - « поклон » (таъзим)and /bou/ - " луг " (ёй) homophones that is words pronounced identically but spelled differently,for example. «night» - " ночь " (кеча) and «knight» - « рыцарь ».

Another classification was suggested by A.I Smirnitsky. He added to Skeat's classification one more criterion: grammatical meaning. He subdivided the group of perfect homonyms in Skeat's classification into two types of homonyms: perfect which are identical in their spelling, pronunciation and their grammar form, such as : «spring» in the meanings: the season of the year, a leap, a source, and homofoms which coincide in their spelling and

pronunciation but have different grammatical meaning, *For example*. «reading» - Present Participle, Gerund, Verbal noun., to lobby - lobby .

A more detailed classification was given by I.V. Arnold 1 . She classified only perfect homonyms and suggested four criteria of their classification: lexical meaning, grammatical meaning, basic forms and paradigms.

According to these criteria I.V. Arnold pointed out the following groups: a) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings, basic forms and paradigms and different in their lexical meanings, *For example*. «board» in the meanings «a council») and « a piece of wood sawn thin»; b) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings and basic forms, different in their lexical meanings and paradigms. *For example*, to lie - lied - lied, and to lie - lay - lain; c) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, paradigms, but coinciding in their basic forms, *For example*. «light» / «lights»/, «light» / «lighter», «lightest»/; d) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, in their basic forms and paradigms, but coinciding in one of the forms of their paradigms, *For example*. «a bit» and «bit» (from «to bite»).

In I. V. Arnold's classification there are also patterned homonyms, which, differing from other homonyms, have a common component in their lexical meanings. These are homonyms formed either by means of conversion, or by levelling of grammar inflexions. These homonyms are different in their grammar meanings, in their paradigms, identical in their basic forms *For example*. «warm» • «to warm». Here we can also have unchangeable patterned homonyms which have identical basic forms, different grammatical meanings, a common component in their lexical meanings, *For example*. «before» an adverb, a conjunction, a preposition. There are also homonyms among unchangeable words which are different in their lexical and grammatical meanings, identical in their basic forms, *For example*. « for» - « для » and «for» - « ибо ».

Homonyms must be studied diachronically and synchronically. diachronically we study the origin of homonyms, the sources of homonyms, the time of their appearance in the language. Synchronically we analyse the present peculiarities of homonyms, their classification etc.

Homonyms are classified into: 1) homonyms proper; 2) homophones; 3), homographs.

Homonyms proper are words identical in pronunciation and spelling and different in meaning. *For example*, fast — quickly, fast a — to do smth. quickly. back — назад (оркага), back 2 — спина (орка), spring — пружина (пружина), spring 2 — весна (бахор), spring - родник (булок).

Homophones are words of the same sound form but of different spelling and meaning. *For example*, air — воздух (хаво), him — гимн, heir — наследник (ворис), knight — night rail — ведро (челак) piece — pease, pale- бледный (оқарган), write — right, son — сын (ўғил), see — sea, sun — солнце (қуёш), read — reed, pray — prey.

Homographs are words which are different in sound and in meaning but identical in spelling. *For example*, lead [li:d], lead [led], tear [tiea] tear [tia], wind [wind] wind [waind], bow [bou] bow [bau].

«We can approach homonyms from a different point of view and classify them into lexical and grammatical homonyms. Lexical homonyms are words of the same part of speech but of quite a different meaning, so that there is no semantic relation between them, *For example*, piece — бўлак (кусок) pease 2 — тинчлик (мир).

Grammatical homonyms are words of different parts of speech: work — иш (работа), to work — ишламок (работать), light - ёруглик (свет) light — енгил (легко).

Wide - spread grammatical homonymy constitutes one of the specific features of English words. Grammatical homonyms are extremely numerous in the English language, (*M. A. Kashcheyeva and others*)

Prof. Smirnitsky has suggested his classification of homonyms based on the lexicogrammatical principle. He distinguished the following types of homonyms:

1) lexical homonyms are those words which belong to one part of speech but they differ only in their lexical meaning. *For example*, seal n — a sea animal seal n — a design printed on paper, stamp. hair n — hare n, ball n — ball n

2) Lexico-grammatical homonyms are those words which differ in their lexical and grammatical meanings. *For example*, sea — to see seal *n* — a sea animal, to seal *v* — to close tightly, work *n* — to work *u*, well *adv* — well *n* - колодец (кудук). There may be cases when lexico-grammatical homonyms are observed within the same part of speech. *For example*. The words «*found*» (past tense of «to finds») and «*found*» (present tense of «to found») differ both grammatically and lexically.

3) grammatical homonymy is the homonymy of the different wordforms of one and the same word (part of speech). *For example*, boys — boy's², asked — Past tense asked 2 -p .II.

The sources of homonyms

There are some sources of homonyms. They are:

1) divergent meaning development of one polysemantic word. Different meanings of the same word move so far away from each other (differ from each other) and they become two different words.

For example., Spring — сакрамок (прыгать), spring 2 — булок (родник), spring 3 — бахор (весна), can be etymologically traced back to the same source, «flower» and «*flour*» which originally were one word (M. E. flour). The meaning was «the flower» and «the finest part of wheat», now they are different words.

2) many homonyms came as a result of converging sound development. *For example*. OE *ic* and OE *aze* have become identical in pronunciation. I *pron* and eye (*n.*), love (*v*) — love *n* (OE *lufu* — *lufian*)

3) many homonyms arose from conversion, they have related meanings *For example*, paper — to paper, support — to support. Some linguists think that converted pairs must not be included in homonyms. This question demands further investigation.

4) The formation of different grammatical forms may cause homonyms: girl's — girls.

5) borrowed words may become homonyms as a result of phonetic convergence. *For example*. Scandinavian «*ras*» and French *race* are homonymous in English: race — поїга (состояние), race 2 — рейс ,case — келишик (падеж), case 2 — чемодан , case — вазият (случай)

The difference between homonymy and polysemy

In polysemy we deal with the different meanings of the same word. In homonymy we have different words which have their own meanings. The problem of difference between polysemy and homonymy is a subject of discussion among the linguists.

«... The trouble of today is, however, that lexical homonyms often enough come together with polysemy. There is no hard and fast line of demarcation between the meanings of a polysemantic word and lexical homonymy. For instance, there is hardly any semantic connection in Modern English between nail - коготь and nail — гвоздь notwithstanding the fact that both of them may be traced back to different meanings of one and the same word». (M. A. Kasheeva)

In most cases the semantic definition of words may be the criteria for the difference of polysemy and homonymy. *For example. Table*

1) **table** — piece of furniture consisting of a flat top with (usu. four) supports (called legs)

2) **table** — (sing, only) people seated at a table

3) **table** — (sing, only) food provided at a table

4) **table** — list of orderly arrangement of facts, information, etc (use in columns) We'll explain the second and the third meanings by substituting them with the help of the definition of the first meaning.

2) **table** — people seated at a piece of furniture;

3) **table** — food served at a piece of furniture. So these two meanings of the word «table» are the meanings of one word «table» because they can be substituted by the first meaning. The fourth meaning « *таблицы* » can't be substituted by the first meaning (list — number of names (persons, items) written or printed) This gives us the right that the fourth meaning of the word «table» is the homonym to the previous three meaning. **Beam**

1) **beam** — long horizontal piece of squared timber or of steel supported at both ends, used to carry the weight of a building etc;

2) **beam** — horizontal cross timber in a ship, joining the sides and supporting the deck (s), the greatest width of a ship.

3) **beam** — crosspiece of a balance, from which the scales hang.

4) **beam** — ray or stream of light. The first, second and third meanings are defined by the common semantic component and they may be defined with the words «horizontal and «timber» and may be transformed by the first meaning of the word. But the fourth meaning has no common semantic component with the first, second and third meanings (stream — steady flow (of light): light — that which makes thing visible).

Some scientists say that the substitution of different meanings of words by the synonyms may help to differ homonyms from polysemantic words. **For example**, voice 1 — sounds uttered in speaking (sound) voice2 — mode of uttering sounds in speaking (sound)

voice 3 -the vibration of the vocal cords in sounds uttered ("sound") voice4 - the form of the verb that express the relation of the subject to the action. *Voice 1 -voice 2 – voice3* are not homonyms although they have different meanings because they can be substituted by the synonym "sound" as far as *voice 4* is concerned. It is a homonym because it can't be substituted by the word "sound"

V. Abayev gave etimological criterion. He says homonyms are words which have different sources and only coincides phonetically **For example**, race] (O. N. ras), race. 2 (F. race). I (O, E. ic)— eye (O. E. eaze)

Thus, the first, second and third meanings are the different meanings of one Polysemantic word «beam». But the fourth is a homonym to them. «... the sense, it goes without saying, depends on the referent and the nature of the referent has to be defined by the context. Thus, the «cat» of «The cat sat on the mat» is different from the «cat» of «Bring back the cat for thugs and rapists». We cannot say that «cat» is a single word possessing two distinct meanings; there are two words phone-mically identical but semantically different; we call these «homonyms». The «cat» of the second sentence refers back etymologically — ^ the grim fancy of «cat o'nine tails— to the cat of the hearthrug, but word — origj n can never be invoked, as we have already pointed out. in the examination of meanings. (A. Burgers)

Study Questions

1. What is a homonym?
2. How do we analyse homonyms?
3. What is the classification of homonyms?
4. What is a homonym proper?
5. What is a homophone?
6. What is a homograph?
7. What principle of classification of homonyms was given by Smirnitsky?
8. What are the main sources of homonyms?

9. What is the difference between homonymy and polysemy?
10. What is the difference between polysemantic and monosemantic words?
13. How do we analyse polysemy diachronically?.
14. How do we classify the meanings of polysemantic words diachronically?
15. How do we classify the meanings of polysemantic words synchronically?
16. What is a context?
17. What types of contexts do you know?
18. What are the most characteristic features of polysemantic words.

LECTURE 7

THEME: SYNONYMS, ANTONYMS

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF LECTURE SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабаларсони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машғулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	lecture (visual type)
<i>Машғулот режаси /ўқув машғулотининг тузилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 1. Synonyms 2. Antonyms
<i>Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:</i>	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; • to discuss semantic triangle • to analyze nouns semantic triangle	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> • Be able to understand synonyms. • Be able to understand antonyms. • Be able to analyze semantic systems of the English language.
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Lecture
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Lecture hall

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF LECTURE SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts

4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exerciese on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

Problems to be discussed:

1. Synonyms
2. Antonyms

Synonyms

Criteria of synonymy

Words can be classified in different ways. The classification of words may be based upon: similarity of meanings and polarity of meanings of words. The similarity of meanings is found in synonymic groups. Synonyms in their tern are words coinciding in their emotional and stylistic fields.

Synonymy is one of modern linguistics most controversial problems. The very existence of words traditionally called *synonyms* is disputed by some linguists; the nature and essence of the relationships of these words is hotly debated and treated in quite different ways by the representatives of different linguistic schools.

"... there has been, a good deal of work devoted to the investigation of lexical systems . . . with particular reference to such fields as kinship, colour, flora and fauna, weights and measures, military ranks, moral and aesthetic evaluation and various kinds of knowledge, skill and understanding. The results obtained have conclusively demonstrated the value of the structural approach to semantics, and have confirmed the pronouncements of such earlier scholars as Von Humboldt, de Saussure and Sapir to the effect that the vocabularies of different languages are nonisomorphic: that there are semantic distinctions made in one language which are not made in another . . . each language imposes a specific form on the priori undifferentiated substance of the content plane". (J. Lyons)

Even though one may accept that synonyms in the traditional meaning of the term are somewhat elusive and, to some extent, fictitious it is certain that there are words in any vocabulary which clearly develop regular and distinct relationships when used in speech.

In the following extract, in which a young woman rejects a proposal of m arriage, the verbs *like*, *admire* and *love*, all describe feelings of attraction, a pprobation, fondness:

«I have always *liked* you very much. I *admire* your talent, but, forgive me, __ I could never *love* you as a wife should love her husband». (prom *The Shivering Sands* by V. Holt)

Yet, each of the three verbs, though they all describe more or less the same feeling of liking, describes it in its own way: "I like you, i. e. I have certain warm feelings towards you, but they are not strong enough for me to describe them as "love", — so that *like* and *love* are in a way opposed to each other.. The duality of synonyms is, probably, their most confusing feature: they are somewhat the same, and yet they are most obviously different. Both as of their dual characteristics are essential for them to perform their function in speech: revealing different aspects, shades and variations of the same phenomenon. " _ Was she *a pretty* girl? _ I would certainly have called her *attractive*." (Ibid.)

The second speaker in this short dialogue does his best to choose the word which would describe the girl most precisely: she was good-looking, *but pretty* is probably too good a word for her, so that *attractive* is again in a way opposed to *pretty* (*not pretty*, only attractive), but this

opposition is, at the same time, firmly fixed on the sameness of *pretty* and *attractive*: essentially they both describe a pleasant appearance.

Here are some more extracts which confirm that synonyms add precision to each detail of description and show how the correct choice of a word from a group of synonyms may colour the whole text.

The first extract depicts a domestic quarrel. The infuriated husband shouts and glares at his wife, but "his *glare* suddenly softened into a *gaze* as he turned his eyes on the little girl" (i. e. he had been looking furiously at his wife, but when he turned his eyes on the child, he looked at her with tenderness).

The second extract depicts a young father taking his child for a Sunday walk.

"Neighbours were apt to smile at the long-legged bare-headed young man leisurely strolling along the street and his small companion demurely trotting by his side." (From *Some Men and Women* by B. Lowndes)

The synonyms *stroll* and *trot* vividly describe two different styles of walking, the long slow paces of the young man and the gait between a walk and a run of the short-legged child. In the following extract an irritated producer is talking to an ambitious young actor:

Think you can play Romeo? Romeo should *smile*, not *grin*, *walk*, not *swagger*, *speak* his lines, not *mumble* them." (I bid.)

Here the second synonym in each pair is quite obviously and intentionally contrasted and opposed to the first: "... smile, *not* grin." Yet, to *grin* means more or less the same as *to smile*, only, perhaps, denoting a broader and a rather foolish smile. In the same way *to swagger* means "to walk", but to walk in a defiant or insolent manner. *Mumbling* is also a way of speaking, but of speaking indistinctly or unintelligibly.

Synonyms are one of the language's most important expressive means. The above examples convincingly demonstrate that the principal function of synonyms is to represent the same phenomenon in different aspects, shades and variations.

A group of synonyms may be studied with the help of their dictionary definitions (definitional analysis). In this work the data from various dictionaries are analysed comparatively. After that the definitions are subjected to transformational operations (transformational analysis). In this way, the semantic components of each analysed word are singled out.

In modern research on synonyms the criterion of interchangeability is sometimes applied. According to this, synonyms are defined as words which are interchangeable at least in some contexts without any considerable alteration in denotational meaning.

This criterion of interchangeability has been much criticised. Every or almost every attempt to apply it to this or that group of synonyms seems to lead one to the inevitable conclusion that either there are very few synonyms or, else, that they are not interchangeable.

Synonyms are frequently said to be the vocabulary's colours. Attempts at ascribing to synonyms the quality of interchangeability are equal to stating that subtle tints in a painting can be exchanged without destroying the picture's effect.

All this does not mean that no synonyms are interchangeable. One can find whole groups of words with half-erased connotations which can readily be substituted one for another. The same girl can be described as *pretty*, *good-looking*, *handsome* or *beautiful*. Yet, even these words are far from being totally interchangeable. Each of them creates its own picture of human beauty. Here is an extract in which a young girl addresses an old woman: "I wouldn't say you'd been exactly *pretty* as a girl — *handsome* is what I'd say. You've got such strong features." (From *The Stone Angel* by M. Lawrence)

So, *handsome* is not pretty and pretty is not necessarily handsome. Perhaps they are not even synonyms? But they are. Both, the criterion of common denotation ("good-looking, of pleasing appearance") and even the dubious criterion of interchangeability seem to indicate that.

It is sufficient to choose any set of synonyms placing them in a simple context to demonstrate the point. Let us take, for example, the following synonyms. *He glared at her* (i. e. He looked at her angrily). *He gazed at her* (i. e. He looked at her steadily and attentively; probably with admiration or interest). *He glanced at her* (i. e. He looked at her briefly and turned away). *He peered at her* (i. e. He tried to see her better, but something prevented: darkness, fog, weak eyesight).

These few simple examples are sufficient to show that each of the synonyms creates an entirely new situation which so sharply differs from the rest that any attempt at "interchanging" anything can only destroy the utterance depriving it of any sense at all.

Consequently, it is difficult to accept interchangeability as a criterion of synonymy because the specific characteristic of synonyms, and the one justifying their very existence, is that they are not, cannot and should not be interchangeable.

In conclusion, let us stress that even if there are some synonyms which are interchangeable, it is quite certain that there are also others which are not. A criterion, if it is a criterion at all, should be applicable to all synonyms and not just to some of them. Otherwise it is not acceptable as a valid criterion.

Classification of synonyms

Synonyms are two or more words having the same essential meaning or, sometimes nearly the same meaning, but different shades of meanings. They are words coinciding in their notional just but different in their emotional or stylistic shades of meaning.

Synonyms usually fall into several groups: 1) absolute synonyms; 2) phraseologic synonyms; 3) ideographic synonyms; 4) stylistic synonyms.

The only existing classification system for synonyms was established by Academician V. V. Vinogradov, the famous Russian scholar. In his classification system there are three types of synonyms: *ideographic* (which he defined as words conveying the same concept but differing in shades of meaning), *stylistic* (differing in stylistic characteristics) and *absolute* (coinciding in all their shades of meaning and in all their stylistic characteristics).

However, the following aspects of his classification system are open to question.

Firstly, absolute synonyms are rare in the vocabulary and, on the diachronic level, the phenomenon of absolute synonymy is anomalous and consequently temporary: the vocabulary system invariably tends to abolish it either by rejecting one of the absolute synonyms or by developing differentiation characteristics in one or both (or all) of them. Therefore, it does not seem necessary to include absolute synonyms, which are a temporary exception, in the system of classification.

The vagueness of the term "shades of meaning" has already been mentioned. Furthermore there seems to be no rigid demarcation line between synonyms differing in their shades of meaning and in stylistic characteristics, as will be shown later on. There are numerous synonyms which are distinguished by both shades of meaning and stylistic colouring. Therefore, even the subdivision of synonyms into ideographic and stylistic is open to question. A more modern and a more effective approach to the classification of synonyms may be based on the definition describing synonyms as words differing in connotations. It seems convenient to classify connotations by which synonyms differ rather than synonyms themselves. It opens up possibilities for tracing much subtler distinctive features within their semantic structures.

Synonyms are words different in their outer aspects, but identical or similar in their inner aspects. In English there are a lot of synonyms, because there are many borrowings, *For example*, hearty / native / - cordial / borrowing/. After a word is borrowed it undergoes desynonymization, because absolute synonyms are unnecessary for a language. However, there are some absolute synonyms in the language, which have exactly the same meaning and belong to the same style, *For example*, to moan, to groan; homeland, motherland etc. In cases of

desynonymization one of the absolute synonyms can specialize in its meaning and we get semantic synonyms, *For example*. «city» /borrowed/, «town» /native/. The French borrowing «city» is specialized. In other cases native words can be specialized in their meanings, *For example*. «stool» /native/, «chair» /French/.

Sometimes one of the absolute synonyms is specialized in its usage and we get stylistic synonyms, *For example*. «to begin» / native/, «to commence») /borrowing/. Here the French word is specialized. In some cases the native word is specialized, *For example*. «welkin» /bookish/, «sky» /neutral/.

Stylistic synonyms can also appear by means of abbreviation. In most cases the abbreviated form belongs to the colloquial style, and the full form to the neutral style, *For example*. «examination', «exam».

Among stylistic synonyms we can point out a special group of words which are called euphemisms. These are words used to substitute some unpleasant or offensive words, e.g «the late» instead of «dead», «to perspire» instead of «to sweat» etc.

Complete synonyms do not exist. Bloomfield says each linguistic form has a constant and a specific meaning.

«In contemporary linguistics it has become almost axiomatic that complete synonymy does not exist. In the words of Bloomfield each linguistic form has a constant and specific meaning. If the forms are phonemically different, we suppose that their meanings are also different. We suppose in short, that there are no actual synonyms». (S. Ullmann),

Polysemantic words can not be synonymous in all their meanings. *For example* The verb «look» is a synonym of see, watch, observe, in the meaning of « смотреть » but in another of its meaning it is synonymous with the verbs seem. appear (to look pale).

There are also phraseological synonyms, these words are identical in their meanings and styles but different in their combining with other words in the sentence, *For example*. «to be late for a lecture» but «to miss the train», «to visit museums» but “to attend lectures” etc.

Synonyms which differ in their denotational meanings are called ideographic synonyms. *For example*. Beautiful (usually about girls) and handsome (usually about men). These are ideographic synonyms but «to die—to pass away», the neutral words have their stylistically coloured words.

to see (neutral)	but- to behold (bookish)
a girl (neutral)	but- a maiden (poetic)
money (neutral)	but- dough (colloquial)
food (neutral)	but- grub (colloquial)
to live (neutral)	but- to hand out (colloquial)

Prof. E. S. Aznaurova points out that stylistic synonyms carry emotional evaluative information.

Synonyms are distributionally different words. *For example*. «too» «also» «as well» are synonyms. They always occur in different surroundings. The synonyms differ in their collocability. *For example*. We compare the collocability of synonyms «to book» and «to buy».

possible	impossible
to book in advance	to buy in advance
to book somebody	to buy somebody
to book seats	to buy seats
to buy cheaply	to book cheaply
to buy from a person	to book from a person

to buy a house	to book a house
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The dominant synonym

The dominant synonym expresses the notion common to all synonyms of the group in the most general way, without contributing any additional information as to the manner, intensity, duration or any attending feature of the referent. So, any dominant synonym is a typical basic-vocabulary word. Its meaning, which is broad and generalised, more or less "covers" the meanings of the rest of the synonyms, so that it may be substituted for any of them. It seems that here, at last, the idea of interchangeability of synonyms comes into its own. And yet, each such substitution would mean an irreparable loss of the additional information supplied by connotative components of each synonym. So, using *to look* instead of *to glare*, *to stare*, *to peep*, *to peer* we preserve the general sense of the utterance but lose a great deal in precision, expressiveness and colour.

The Dominant Synonym has high frequency of usage, broad combinability, i.e. ability to be used in combinations with various classes of words, broad general meaning, lack of connotations. This goes for stylistic connotations as well, so that neutrality as to style is also a typical feature of the dominant synonym.

In each group of synonyms there is a word with the most general meaning, which can substitute any word in the group, *For example*. «piece» is the synonymic dominant in the group «slice», «lump», «morseb». The verb «to look at» is the synonymic dominant in the group «to stare», «to glance», «to peep». The adjective «red» is the synonymic dominant in the group «purple», «scarlet», «crimson».

The attentive reader will have noticed much use was made of the numerous synonyms of the verb *to look*, and yet, the verb *to look* itself was never mentioned. That doesn't seem fair because it is, certainly, a verb which possesses the highest frequency of use compared with its synonyms, and so plays an important role in communication. Its role and position in relation to its synonyms is also of some importance as it presents a kind of centre of the group of synonyms, as it were holding it together. Its semantic structure is quite simple: it consists only of denotative component and it has no connotations.

Thus, (or, at least, most) synonymic groups have a "central" word of this kind whose meaning is equal to the denotation common to all the synonymic group. This word is called the *dominant synonym*.

Here are examples of other dominant synonyms with their groups: To surprise — *to astonish* — *to amaze* — *to astound*. To shout — *to yell* — *to bellow* — *to roar*.

To shine — *to flash* — *to blaze* — *to gleam* — *to glisten* — *to sparkle* — *to glitter* — *to shimmer* — *to glimmer*. To tremble — *to shiver* — *to shudder* — *to shake*. To make — *to produce* — *to create* — *to fabricate* — *to manufacture*. Angry — *furious* — *enraged*. Fear — *terror* — *horror*.

The Source of synonyms

When speaking about the sources of synonyms, besides desynonymization and abbreviation, we can also mention the formation of phrasal verbs, *For example* («to give up» - «to abandon»), («to cut down» - «to diminish»). The main sources of synonyms are:

1) borrowings: to ask—to question: (F)—to interrogate. (L) to begin (A, S) — to commence (F) —to initiate (L— rise (F) — ascend (L);

2) The formation of verb -f adverb (V + adv) combinations like «have a smoke- to rest — to have a rest to swim — to have a swim, to smoke — to have a smoke;

3) shortening: vacation — vac, doctor—doc, sister — sis;

4) conversion: laughter — laugh, 5) many set expressions consisting of a verb with a postpositive element form synonyms *For example* to choose — to pick out, to continue — to go on, to return — to bring back. |

6) euphemisms, i. e. words which are used instead of unpleasant words: *for example*, drunk-merry, lodger-paying guest, to die — to go away, commandment — command. |

7) slang, i. e. emotionally coloured words which are the secondary names of objects. *For example*. сокрушитель, — crusher (полицейский), тюрьма — can (дословно консервная банка), *убить* — to bump off - (дословно пристукнуть). казнить — to fry — зажарить), голова — bean (дословно боб) или mug

Collocation of words.

I R.H. Robins states that «collocation» is meant the habitual association of a word in a language with other particular words in sentences. One of the meanings of «night» is its collocability with «dark» and of «dark», of course, collocation with «night». Word groups like «bright night», «dark days ... «White coffee», «black coffee», «white race» all have a range of situation of reference. Collocation is distinct from syntax in that one is concerned in collocation with each word as an individual lexical item in the company of other words as individual lexical items, and not, as in syntax, part of the grammatical level of analysis, with words as members of classes in relation to other words also as members of classes. Speakers become accustomed to the collocations of words and the mutual expectancies that hold between them in utterances irrespective of their grammatical relations as members of word classes or as 'parts of speech'.

A rather obvious example is given by Firth 2, who made use of the term as part of the technical terminology of linguistics: *dark* collocates with *night*, and vice versa. 'One of the meanings of *night* is its collocability with *dark*, and of *dark*, of course, collocation with *night** This statement does not, of course, exclude word groups like *bright night*, *dark day*, but just because of the less usual concomitance of such pairs, they stand out as more prominent in an utterance in which they occur than do *dark night* and *bright day*.

Collocations such as these are manifestly related to the referential and situational meaning of the words concerned, but collocation and situational meaning are different parts of the total statement of the use of words. In some other cases collocations are habitual but less closely connected with extralinguistic reference. *White coffee*, *black coffee*, *white wine*, *white race* all have a range of situational reference, but apart from the collocation of the particular second words in each pair the word *white* would not, in most utterances, be used with reference to the colours of the referents. Similar collocations in English involving colour words, but further removed from reference to actual colour surfaces, are *green with Jealousy*, *red revolution*, *purple passage*. Some words in languages have, at least in certain styles, very limited uses, almost wholly circum-scribable in their collocations. The word *maiden*, for example, in modern spoken English, is scarcely ever used as a synonym for *girl*, but principally occurs in collocation with a limited set of other words such as *voyage*, *speech*, *over* (in cricket), *aunt*, *lady* (English speakers can readily supply the others).

Conversely, words like *the*, *a*, *if*, *when*, and so on, are hardly subject to any collocational restrictions, and are found in almost any lexical company in the language that the grammar permits. For such words collocation is not a relevant part of the statement of their use; but with others (the majority) it is possible to set up collocational ranges of words with which given words will be found in their various grammatical constructions. The conjunction of two or more quite outside the range of collocation and unprepared by any explanation, is likely to be incomprehensible or downright nonsensical, although its grammatical composition may be unexceptionable. A famous example of such a grammatical but nonsensical sentence is: "Colourless green ideas sleep furiously".

Collocational ranges are unlike grammatical classes in that they are peculiar to each word, and almost certainly no two words in a language share exactly the same range and

frequency of occurrence within a range, whereas grammatical classes may each contain many different words as members. Moreover collocations are far more personally variable among speakers of a single dialect within a language than are grammatical classes; borderline cases there are in grammar where speakers may differ or be uncertain, as to whether a particular word form or word sequence is grammatically acceptable; but these are very few compared to the personal differences in collocational use and acceptance.

Sometimes different styles, types of utterance appropriate to specific types of situation are characterized by different collocations (consider the differences between *He's a proper rascal* and *that is a very proper observation*, and between *we've had a nice time today* and *-we have here a nice point to decide*).

Special cases of collocations are what are called idioms and cliches. *Idiom* is used to refer to habitual collocations of more than one word, that tend to be used together, with a semantic function not readily deducible from the other uses of its component words apart from each other (English *she went for him hammer and tongs*, *they ran off hell for leather*). Knowledge of such individual features of a language, acquired by long experience, but unnecessary for ordinary intercourse. usually comes at the end of one's learning of a foreign language; hence a complete and near-complete mastery of one is often said to be «idiomatic». Some idioms preserve in use words that have otherwise become obsolete (English *to and fro*, *waifs and strays*, *kith and kin*).

R.N. Robins thinks when a collocation has become almost universal in a particular style, the contribution of some of its words comes to be nugatory, and often appears irritating and inelegant to listeners or readers who do not relish (as some seem to) that mode of discourse *For example*. the house agent's *desirable residence* (residence), the politician's *this modern age in - which we are living* (this age), the journalist's *inside information* (information); the reader will be painful') able to multiply the examples from his own experience]. Cliches of this sort form a notable part of the public speaking style of many politicians all over the world 'presumably because of intellectual laziness or in the hope of appealing to the emotions of people in political meetings, broadcasts, and the like, by the repeated use of words, such as *freedom*, *peace*, etc., to which favourable responses are normally accorded; cliché-ridden talk is a good deal easier to produce than a serious examination of current political problems. (R. H. Robins)

Antonyms

Definition of Antonyms. Classification of antonyms

Antonyms are words belonging to the same part of speech, identical in style, expressing contrary or contradictory notions. Antonyms are words which belong to the same part of speech and have contrary meanings. **For example**, kind — cruel, good — bad, big — small, little — much.

V.N. Comissarov in his dictionary of antonyms classified them into two groups : absolute or root antonyms «late» - «early» and derivational antonyms «to please' - «to displease». Absolute antonyms have different roots and derivational antonyms have the same roots but different affixes. In most cases negative prefixes form antonyms / un-, dis-, non-/. Sometimes they are formed by means of suffixes -full and -less.

The difference between derivational and root antonyms is not only in their structure, but in semantics as well. Derivational antonyms express contradictory notions, one of them excludes the other, **For example**. «active»-«inactive». Absolute antonyms express contrary notions. If some notions can be arranged in a group of more than two members, the most distant members of the group will be absolute antonyms, **For example**. «ugly» , «plain», «good-looking», «pretty», «beautiful», the antonyms are «ugly» and «beautiful».

Antonymy is the second class of oppositeness. It is distinguished from complementarity by being based on different logical relationships. For pairs of antonyms like good/bad, big/small

only the second one of the above mentioned relations of implication holds. The assertion containing one member implies the negation of the other, but not vice versa. «John is good» implies that «John is not bad», but «John is not good» does not imply that «John is bad». The negation of one term does not necessarily implies the assertion of the other.

An important linguistic difference from complementaries is that antonyms are always fully gradable, *For example*, hot, warm, cold.

Converseness is mirror-image relations or functions, *For example*, husband/wife, pupil/teacher, precede/follow, above/below, before/after etc. «John bought the car from Bill» implies that «Bill sold the car to John». Mirror- image sentences are in many ways similar to the relations between active and passive sentences. Also in the comparative form: »Y is smaller than X, then X is larger than Y».

Not every word in a language can have antonyms. This type of opposition can be met in qualitative adjectives and their derivatives, *For example*, beautiful- ugly, to beautify - to uglify, beauty - ugliness. It can be also met in words denoting feelings and states, *For example*, respect - scorn, to respect - to scorn, respectful - scornful, to live - to die, alive - dead, life - death. It can be also met among words denoting direction in space and time, For example here - there, up - down , never, before - after, day - night, early - late etc.

Antonyms are not always interchangeable in certain contexts. *For example* «rich voices» can not be changed into «poor voice». The opposite of a short person is a tall person. A short thing —long thing, an old book — a new book, an old man—a young man, a thin man—a fat man, a thin book — a thick book.

Antonyms may be found among adjectives as: good — bad, deep ___ shallow, nouns as: light —darkness; verbs as «to give» and «to take»; adverbs as quickly—slowly, early — late.

Many antonyms are explained by means of the negative particle «not». *For example*, clean — not dirty, shallow—not deep. Antonyms form pairs, not groups like synonyms: bad—good, big—little, alike — different, old — new.

Polysemantic words may have antonyms in some of their meanings and none in the others. *For example*. When the word «criticism means «blame» its antonym is «praise», when it means « рецензия » it has no antonym.

Antonyms indicate words of the same category of parts of speech which have contrasting meanings, such as *hot — cold, light — dark, happiness — sorrow, to accept — to reject, up — down*.

If synonyms form whole, often numerous, groups, antonyms are usually believed to appear in pairs. Yet, this is not quite true in reality. For instance, the adjective *cold* may be said to have *warm* for its second antonym, and *sorrow* may be very well contrasted with *gaiety*.

On the other hand, a polysemantic word may have an antonym (or several antonyms) for each of its meanings. So, the adjective *dull* has the antonyms *interesting, amusing, entertaining* for its meaning of "deficient in interest", *clever, bright, capable* for its meaning of "deficient in intellect", and *active* for the meaning of "deficient in activity", etc.

Antonymy is not evenly distributed among the categories of parts of speech. Most antonyms are adjectives which is only natural because qualitative characteristics are easily compared and contrasted: *high — low, wide — narrow, strong — weak, old—young, friendly — hostile*.

Verbs take second place, so far as antonymy is concerned. Yet, verbal pairs of antonyms are fewer in number. Here are some of them: *to lose — to find, to live*

— to die, to open — to close, to weep — to laugh.

Nouns are not rich in antonyms, but even so some examples can be given-
friend

— enemy, joy — grief, good — evil heaven — earth.

Antonymic adverbs can be subdivided into two groups: a) adverbs derive" from adjectives: *warmly* — *coldly*, *merrily* — *sadly*, *loudly* — *softly*; b) advert proper: *now* — *then*, *here* — *there*, *ever* — *never*, *up* — *down*, *in* — *out*.

Not so many years ago antonymy was not universally accepted as a linguistic problem, and the opposition within antonymic pairs was regarded purely logical and finding no reflection in the semantic structures of these words.

The contrast between *heat* and *cold* or *big* and *small*, said most scholars, is the contrast of things opposed by their very nature.

Some debatable points of antonyms

Leonard Lipka in the book «Outline of English Lexicology» describes different types of oppositeness, and subdivides them into three types:

- a) complementary, *For example*, male -female, married -single,
- b) antonyms, *For example*, good -bad,
- c) converseness, *For example*, to buy - to sell.

In his classification he describes complementarity in the following way: the denial of the one implies the assertion of the other, and vice versa. «John is not married» implies that «John is single». The type of oppositeness is based on yes/no decision. Incompatibility only concerns pairs of lexical units.

L. Lipka also gives the type which he calls directional opposition up/down, consequence opposition learn/know, antipodal opposition North/South, East/West, (it is based on contrary motion, in opposite directions.) The pairs come/go, arrive/depart involve motion in different directions. In the case up/down we have movement from a point P. In the case come/go we have movement from or to the speaker.

L. Lipka also points out non-binary contrast or many-member lexical sets. Here he points out serially ordered sets, such as scales / hot, warm, tepid, cool, cold/; colour words / black, grey, white/; ranks /marshal, general, colonel, major, captain etc./ There are gradable examination marks / excellent, good, average, fair, poor/. In such sets of words we can have outer and inner pairs of antonyms. He also points out cycles, such as units of time /spring, summer, autumn, winter/. In this case there are no «outermost» members.

In synonymy we saw that both the identity and differentiations in words called synonyms can be said to be encoded within their semantic structures. Can the same be said about antonyms? Modern research in the field of antonymy gives a positive answer to this question. Nowadays most scientists agree that in the semantic structures of all words, which regularly occur in antonymic pairs, a special antonymic connotation can be singled out. We are so used to coming across *hot* and *cold* together, in the same contexts, that even when we find *hot* alone, we cannot help subconsciously registering it as *not cold*, that is, contrast it to its missing antonym. The word possesses its full meaning for us not only due to its direct associations but also because we subconsciously oppose it to its antonym, with which it is regularly used, in this case *hot*. Therefore, it is reasonable to suggest that the semantic structure of *hot* can be said to include the antonymic connotation of "not cold", and the semantic structure of *enemy* the connotation of "not a friend".

It should be stressed once more that we are speaking only about those antonyms which are characterised by common occurrences, that is, which are regularly used in pairs. When two words frequently occur side by side in numerous contexts, subtle and complex associations between them are not at all unusual. These associations are naturally reflected in the words' semantic structures. Antonymic connotations are a special case of such "reflected associations".

Study Questions

1. What is a synonym
2. How do we analyse synonyms?
3. What is the classification of synonyms?
4. What is an antonym proper?
5. What is the difference between synonyms and antonyms?
6. What is a context?
7. What types of contexts do you know?
8. What are the most characteristic features of semantic system of the English language?

LECTURE 8

THEME: CLASSIFICATION OF SEMANTIC WORDS

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF LECTURE SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабаларсони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машғулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	lecture (visual type)
<i>Машғулот режаси /ўқув машғулотининг тuzилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 1. Ways of enriching vocabulary 2. The classification of the English vocabulary 3. Morphological grouping 4. Thematic and ideographic groups 5. Terminological systems 6. Different types of non-semantic groupings.
<i>Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:</i>	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; • to discuss semantic triangle • to analyze nouns semantic triangle	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> • Be able to understand morphological grouping . • Be able to understand thematic and ideographic groups antonyms. • able to analyze The classification of the English vocabulary
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Lecture
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Lecture hall

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF LECTURE SESSION

Plan

	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exercise on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

Problems to be discussed:

1. Ways of enriching vocabulary
2. The classification of the English vocabulary
3. Morphological grouping
4. Thematic and ideographic groups
5. Terminological systems
6. Different types of non-semantic groupings.

1. Ways of enriching vocabulary

By the *vocabulary* of a language is understood the total sum of its words. Another term for vocabulary is the stock of words.

The vocabulary of the language is not homogeneous (однородный). It is an adaptive system constantly adjusting itself to the changing conditions of human communication and cultural surroundings.

The number of words in a language is not constant and the increase is usually greater than the leak out (утечка). This process may be obtained (получен) by it results that is neologisms (1rd).

Productive word formation patterns are the most effective means of enriching vocabulary:

- 1) Affixation (electronics, psycho-linguistics)
- 2) Conversion (a sputnik – to sputnik). It is a process of forming new words by the changing the part of speech without any morphemic changes.
- 3) Back-derivation (to laze from lazy). With morphemic changes.
- 4) Shortening (laboratory - lab). By reducing (cutting) part of a word.

Third. Semantic extension of words (приобретение словомещёоднозначения) is a powerful source of enriching a vocabulary. It consists in splitting (расщепление) of polysemy (многозначность) that results in appearance of new vocabulary units (homonyms). “Heel – the traitor (хитрец) has lost all connections with the heel – the back part of human feel.”

Fourth. Borrowing – is active only in the field of scientific terminology. “Blitzkrieg, protein). In the course of time it is accepted into the words stock of the language and being often used it stops to be considered new or else it may not be accepted and vanish from the vocabulary.

When we consider the lexical system of a language as an adaptive system developing for many centuries. We have to contrast the innovations with words that dropped from the language (Obsolete words – устаревшие) or survive only in special contexts (archaisms and historicisms). Archaisms are words that were once common but now are replaced by synonyms (betwixt is replaced between).

When the thing named is no longer used its name become a historicism (Phaeton – фээтон-автомобиль)

2. The classification of the English vocabulary.

Morphological and lexico-grammatical grouping:

On the morphological level the words are subdivided into 4 groups according to their morphological structure (the number and type of morphemes which compose (составлять, образовывать) them):

- a) Root words (ex. Dog, hand) состоящая из 1 корня
- b) Derivatives (производные (Handy, handful)
- c) Compound words (ex. Handball, handbag)
- d) Compound derivatives (Left-handed) (помимо 2 корней ещё и суффиксы)

Another type of traditional lexical grouping is word families (этимологически родственные слова). The words are grouped here according to the root-morpheme (Handy, handsome, handicraft) , according to the common suffix or prefix (troublesome, gladsome, gruesome).

Thematic and ideographic groups. The basis of thematic grouping is not only linguistic (that is words belong to the same part of speech) but also extra linguistic (that means that the words are associated because the things they name occur together and are closely connected in reality, (Ex. Thematic – color terms, military terms and medical terms)

All the elements of thematic groups remain within the limits of the same part of speech. When grammatical meaning is not taken into consideration we obtain the so-called ideographic groups. Words are classed here according to their signification that is the system of logical notions (ex. Light (noun), bright (adj), shine (verb) are united into one ideographic group as they are all connected with a notion of light. (Слова в идеографической не принадлежат к одной част речи, но связаны с каким-то одним феноменом).

Third classification, Terminological systems. Terminology constitutes the greatest part of every language vocabulary. Terms are words or word groups used to name a notion, characteristic of some special field of knowledge, industry or culture. These words (terms) are monosemantic, have no contextual meaning and are free from emotional coloring, Terms are not separates from the rest of vocabulary. With the development of civilization many special notions become known to the layman (обыватель) and form part and parcel (неотъемлемая часть) of everyday speech. (vitamin, computer).

Fourth classification. Different types of non-semantic groupings. The simplest non-semantic grouping is the alphabetical organization of written words. It is of great practical value as it is the most universal way of searching for the necessary word, but its theoretical value is

almost null because no property of the word can be predicted from the letter the word begins with.

The rhyming group contain the words arranged according to the similarity of their ends. Such dictionaries are intended mostly for poets.

It's based on the length of words. There's a number of words they contain. It may be useful for communication, engineering, automatic reading of messages and correction of mistakes.

Next group is based on a statistical analysis of frequency of words. These figures show important correlations (взаимосвязь) between quantitative and qualitative characteristic of lexical units.

English vocabulary as a system

Learning objectives: after you have studied the lecture you should be able:

1. To define vocabulary as a system.
2. To speak about: a) morphological grouping;
b) lexico-grammatical grouping
c) thematic and ideographic organization;
d) synonymic grouping (including antonyms).
3. To describe the notion of semantic field, including terminology.

Literature to be studied:

1. Seminars in English lexicology. By Mednikova, pp. 51-53.
2. A course in Modern English lexicology. By Ginzburg R. and others.
3. The English Word. By Arnold I.V. pp. 199-213.

Some foreign scholars claim that in contrast to Grammar, the vocabulary of a language is not systematic, but *chaotic*.

In Russian linguistics lexicology exists as an independent discipline, as a part of the curriculum in our Universities. Russian lexicologists have worked out a comprehensive review of different types of word-groupings suggested in modern linguistics, both in the country and abroad. A short *survey* of formal and semantic types of groupings with a word-stock will help you in obtaining an idea of the lexical system in general.

One of the earliest and most obvious non-semantic grouping is the alphabetical organization of the word-stock, which is represented in most dictionaries. It is of great practical value in the search for the necessary word, but its theoretical value is almost *null*, because no other property of the word can be predicted from the letter or letters the word begins with.

Morphological groupings.

On the morphological level words are divided into four groups according to their morphological structure:

- 1) *root or morpheme words* (dog, hand);
- 2) *derivatives*, which contain no less than two morphemes (dogged (упрямый), doggedly; handy, handful);
- 3) *compound words* consisting of not less than two free morphemes (dog-cheap-"very cheap", dog-days - "hottest part of the year"; handbook, handball)
- 4) *compound derivatives* (dog-legged - "crooked or bent like a dog's hind leg", left-handed).

This grouping is considered to be the basis for lexicology.

Another type of traditional lexicological grouping as known as *word-families* such as: hand, handy, handicraft, handbag, handball, handful, hand-made, handsome, etc.

A very important type of non-semantic grouping for isolated lexical units is based on a statistical analysis of their frequency. Frequency counts carried out for practical purposes of lexicology, language teaching and shorthand show important correlations between quantitative and qualitative characteristics of lexical units, the most frequent words being polysemantic and stylistically neutral. The frequency analysis singles out two classes:

- 1) *notional words*;
- 2) *form (or functional) words*.

Notional words constitute the bulk of the existing word-stock, according to the recent counts given for the first 1000 most frequently occurring words they make up 93% of the total number.

All notional lexical units are traditionally subdivided into parts of speech: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs. Nouns numerically make the largest class - about 39% of all notional words; verbs come second - 25% of words; they are followed by adjectives - 17% and adverbs - 12%.

Form or functional words - the remaining 7% of the total vocabulary - are prepositions, articles, conjunctions, which primarily denote various relations between notional words. Their grammatical meaning dominates over their lexical meaning. They make a specific group of about 150 units.

Lexico-grammatical grouping.

By a lexico-grammatical group we understand a class of words which have a common lexico-grammatical meaning, a common paradigm, the same substituting elements and possibly a characteristic set of suffixes rendering the lexico-grammatical meaning.

Lexico-grammatical groups should not be confused with parts of speech. For instance, *audience* and *honesty* belong to the same part of speech but to different lexico-grammatical groups because their lexico-grammatical meaning is different.

Common Denominator of Meaning, Semantic Fields.

Words may also be classified according to the concepts underlying their meaning. This classification is closely connected with the theory of *semantic fields*. By the term "semantic fields" we understand closely knit sectors of vocabulary each characterized by a common concept. The words *blue, red, yellow, black*, etc. may be described as making up the semantic field of colours, the words *mother, father, sister, cousin*, etc. - as members of the semantic field of kinship terms, the words *joy, happiness, gaiety, enjoyment*, etc. as belonging to the field of pleasurable emotions, and so on.

The members of the semantic fields are not synonymous but all of them are joined together by some common semantic component - the concept of colours or the concept of kinship, etc. This semantic component common to all members of the field is sometimes described as the common denominator of meaning. All members of the field are semantically interdependent as each member helps to delimit and determine the meaning of its neighbours and is semantically delimited and determined by them. It follows that the word meaning is to a great extent determined by the place it occupies in its semantic field.

It is argued that we cannot possibly know the exact meaning of the word if we do not know the structure of the semantic field to which the word belongs, the number of the members and the concepts covered by them, etc. The meaning of the word *captain*, e.g. cannot be properly understood until we know the semantic field in which this term operates - *the army, the*

navy, or the merchant service. It follows that the meaning of the word *captain* is determined by the place it occupies among the terms of the relevant rank system. In other words we know what *captain* means only if we know whether his subordinate is called *mate or first officer* (merchant service), *commander* (navy) or *lieutenant* (army).

Semantic dependence of the word on the structure of the field may be also illustrated by comparing members of analogous conceptual fields in different languages. Comparing, e.g. kinship terms in Russian and in English we observe that the meaning of the English term *mother-in-law* is different from either the Russian *мёща* or *свекровь*, as the English term covers the whole area which in Russian is divided between the two words. The same is true of the members of the semantic field of colours (cf. *blue* - синий, голубой), of human body (cf. *hand, arm* - рука) and others.

The theory of semantic field is severely criticized by Soviet linguists mainly on philosophical grounds as some of the proponents of the semantic-field theory hold the idealistic view that language is a kind of self-contained entity standing between man and the world of reality (Zwischenwelt). The followers of this theory argue that semantic fields reveal the fact that human experience is analysed and elaborated in a unique way, differing from one language to another. Broadly speaking they assert that people speaking different languages actually have different concepts, as it is through language that we see the real world around us. In short, they deny the primacy of matter forgetting that our concepts are formed not only through linguistic experience, but primarily through our actual contact with the real world. We know what *hot* means not only because we know the word *hot*, but also because we burn our fingers when we touch something very hot. A detailed critical analysis of the theory of semantic fields is the subject-matter of general linguists. Here we are concerned with the theory only as a means of semantic classification of vocabulary items.

Two more points should be discussed in this connection. Firstly, semantic groups may be very extensive and may cover big conceptual areas, e.g. *man-universe*, etc. There may be, however, comparatively small lexical groups of words linked by a common denominator of meaning. The words *bread, cheese, milk, meat*, etc. make up the semantic field with the concept of food as the common denominator of meaning. Such smaller lexical groups seem to play a very important role in determining individual meanings of polysemantic words in lexical contexts. Analysing polysemantic verbs we see that the verb *take*, e.g. in combination with the lexical group denoting means of transportation is synonymous with the verb *go* (*take the tram, the bus*, etc.). When combined with members of another lexical group possessing another semantic denominator, the same verb is synonymous with *to drink* (*to take tea, coffee*, etc.). Such word-groups are often used not only in scientific lexicological analysis, but also in practical class-room teaching. In a number of textbooks we find words with some common denominator of meaning listed under the headings *Flower, Fruit, Domestic Animals*, and so on.

In other words **lexical or semantic field** is the organization of related words and expressions into a system which shows their relationship to one another.

For example, kinship terms such as father, mother, sister, brother, uncle, aunt belong to a lexical field whose relevant features include generation, sex, membership of the father's or mother's side of the family, etc.

The absence of a word in a particular place in a lexical field of a language is called a **lexical gap**.

For example, in English there is no singular noun that covers both cow and bull as horse covers stallion and mare.

Common Contextual Associations. Thematic Groups.

Another type of classification almost universally used in practical class-room teaching is known as *thematic grouping*. Classification of vocabulary items into thematic groups is based on the *co-occurrence* of words in certain repeatedly used contexts.

In linguistic contexts co-occurrence may be observed on different levels. On the level of word-groups the word *question*, e.g., is often found in collocation with the verbs *raise*, *put forward*, *discuss*, etc., with the adjectives *urgent*, *vital*, *disputable* and so on. The verb *accept* occurs in numerous contexts together with the nouns *proposal*, *invitation*, *plan* and others.

As a rule, thematic groups deal with contexts on the level of the sentence (or utterance). Words in thematic groups are joined together by common contextual associations within the framework of the sentence and reflect the interlinking words, e.g. *tree-grow-green; journey-train-taxi-bags-ticket or sun-shine-brightly-blue-sky*, is due to the regular co-occurrence of these words in similar sentences. Unlike members of synonymic sets or semantic fields, words making up a thematic group belong to different parts of speech and do not possess any common denominator of meaning.

Contextual associations formed by the speaker of a language are usually conditioned by the context of situation which necessitates the use of certain words. When watching a play, e.g., we naturally speak of the actors who act the main parts, of good (or bad) staging of the play, of the wonderful scenery and so on. When we go shopping it is usual to speak of the prices, of the goods we buy, of the shops, etc. (*In practical language learning thematic groups are often listed under various headings, e.g. At the Theatre, At School, Shopping, and are often found in textbooks and courses of conversational English*).

Thematic and ideographic organization of a vocabulary.

It is a further subdivision within the lexico-grammatical grouping. The basis of grouping is not only *linguistic* but also extra-linguistic. The words are associated because the things they name occur together and are closely connected in reality, e.g., terms of *kinship*. Names of parts of the human body, colour terms, etc.

The ideographic groupings are independent of classification into parts of speech, as grammatical meaning is not taken into consideration. Words and expressions are here classed not according to their lexico-grammatical meaning but strictly according to their signification, i.e. to their system of logical notions. These subgroups may compare nouns, verbs adjectives and adverbs together, provided they refer to the same notion. Under alphabetical order the words which in the human mind go close together (father, brother, uncle, etc.) are placed in various parts of a dictionary. So, some lexicographers place such groups of lexical units in the company they usually keep in every day life, in our minds. These dictionaries are called ideographical or ideological.

Synonymic grouping is a special case of lexico-grammatical grouping based on semantic proximity of words belonging to the same part of speech. Taking up similarity of meaning and contrasts of phonetic shape we observe that every language in its vocabulary has a variety of words kindred (родственный) or similar in meaning but distinct in morphemic composition, phonetic shape and usage. These words express the most delicate shades of thought, feelings and

are explained in the dictionaries of synonyms.

Antonyms have been traditionally defined as words of opposite meaning. Their distinction from synonyms is semantic polarity. The English language is rich in synonyms and antonyms, their study reveals the systematic character of the English vocabulary.

Special terminology.

Sharply defined extensive semantic fields are found in terminological systems. Terminology constitutes the greatest part of every language vocabulary. A *term* is a word or word-group used to name a notion characteristic of some special field of knowledge, e.g., linguistics, cybernetics, industry, culture, informatics. Almost every system of terms is nowadays fixed and analyzed in numerous special dictionaries of the English language. ?

Нурунуму (включение).

Another type of paradigmatic relation is *hyponymy*. The notion of hyponymy is traditional enough; it has been long recognized as one of the main-principles in the organization of the vocabulary of all languages. For instance, *animal* is a *generic* term as compared to the *specific* names: wolf, dog, mouse. Dog, in its turn, may serve as a generic term for different breeds such as bull-dog, collie, poodle.

In other words, this type of relationship means the "inclusion" of a more specific term in a more general term, which has been established by some scientists in terms of logic of classes*. For example, the meaning of *tulips* is said to be included in the meaning of "flower", and so on.

So, the *word-stock* is not only a sum total of all the words of a language, but a very complicated set of various relationships between different groupings, layers, between the vocabulary as a whole and isolated individual lexical units.

Study questions

1. Tell me about ways of enriching vocabulary
2. What is the classification of the English vocabulary?
3. How many groups is morphological grouping divided? What are they?
4. Explain thematic and ideographic groups and give examples.
5. What are terminological systems?
6. What types of non-semantic groupings are there?

LECTURE 9

THEME: MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF THE WORD

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF LECTURE SESSION

Вақт: 2	Талабаларсони: 30-34
Ўқув машғулотининг шакли ва тури	lecture (visual type)
Машғулот режаси /ўқув машғулотининг тuzилиши	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 1. Morphemes. Types of morphemes 2. Principles of morphemic analysis

	3. Principles of Derivational analysis. Stems. Types of Stems.
<i>Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:</i>	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; • to discuss semantic triangle • to analyze nouns semantic triangle 	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Be able to understand morphemes. • Be able to understand principles of morphemic analysis. • Be able to analyze types of steps.
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Lecture
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Lecture hall

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF LECTURE SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exerciese on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

Problems to be discussed:

1. Morphemes. Types of morphemes
2. Principles of morphemic analysis
3. Principles of Derivational analysis. Stems. Types of Stems.

Key words: morphemic analysis, principles of derivational analysis, stem, roots and derivational affixes, allomorphs or morphemic variants.

Morphemes. Types of morphemes

There are two levels of approach to the study of word- structure: the level of morphemic analysis and the level of derivational or word-formation analysis. Word is the principal and basic unit of the language system, the largest on the morphologic and the smallest on the syntactic plane of linguistic analysis. It has been universally acknowledged that a great many words have a

composite nature and are made up of morphemes, the basic units on the morphemic level, which are defined as the smallest indivisible two-facet language units.

The term morpheme is derived from Greek morpheme "form ". The Greek suffix *-eme* has been adopted by linguistics to denote the smallest unit or the minimum distinctive feature.

The morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of form. A form in these cases is a recurring discrete unit of speech. Morphemes occur in speech only as constituent parts of words, not independently, although a word may consist of single morpheme. Even a cursory examination of the morphemic structure of English words reveals that they are composed of morphemes of different types: root-morphemes and affixational morphemes. Words that consist of a root and an affix are called derived words or derivatives and are produced by the process of word building known as affixation (or derivation).

The root-morpheme is the lexical nucleus of the word; it has a very general and abstract lexical meaning common to a set of semantically related words constituting one word-cluster. *For example*, (to) teach, teacher, teaching. Besides the lexical meaning root-morphemes possess all other types of meaning proper to morphemes except the part-of-speech meaning which is not found in roots.

Affixational morphemes include inflectional affixes or inflections and derivational affixes. Inflections carry only grammatical meaning and are thus relevant only for the formation of word-forms. Derivational affixes are relevant for building various types of words. They are lexically always dependent on the root which they modify. They possess the same types of meaning as found in roots, but unlike root-morphemes most of them have the part-of-speech meaning which makes them structurally the important part of the word as they condition the lexico-grammatical class the word belongs to. Due to this component of their meaning the derivational affixes are classified into affixes building different parts of speech: nouns, verbs, adjectives or adverbs.

Roots and derivational affixes are generally easily distinguished and the difference between them is clearly felt as, *for example*, in the words helpless, handy, blackness, Londoner, refill, etc.: the root-morphemes help-, hand-, black-, London-, fill-, are understood as the lexical centers of the words, and *-less*, *-y*, *-ness*, *-er*, *re-* are felt as morphemes dependent on these roots.

Distinction is also made of free and bound morphemes.

Free morphemes coincide with word-forms of independently functioning words. It is obvious that free morphemes can be found only among roots, so the morpheme *boy-* in the word *boy* is a free morpheme; in the word *undesirable* there is only one free morpheme *desire-*; the word *pen-holder* has two free morphemes *pen-* and *hold-*. It follows that bound morphemes are those that do not coincide with separate word-forms, consequently all derivational morphemes, such as *-ness*, *-able*, *-er* are bound. Root-morphemes may be both free and bound. The morphemes *theor-* in the words *theory*, *theoretical*, or *horr-* in the words *horror*, *horrible*, *horrify*; *Angl-* in *Anglo-Saxon*; *Afr-* in *Afro-Asian* are all bound roots as there are no identical word-forms.

It should also be noted that morphemes may have different phonemic shapes. In the word-cluster *please*, *pleasing*, *pleasure*, *pleasant* the phonemic shapes of the word stand in complementary distribution or in alternation with each other. All the representations of the given morpheme, that manifest alternation are called allomorphs or morphemic variants of that morpheme.

The combining form *allo-* from Greek *allos* "other" is used in linguistic terminology to denote elements of a group whose members together constitute a structural unit of the language (allophones, allomorphs).

Thus, *for example*, *-ion* - *tion* - *sion* - *ation* are the positional variants of the same suffix, they do not differ in meaning or function but show a slight difference in sound form depending

on the final phoneme of the preceding stem. They are considered as variants of one and the same morpheme and called its allomorphs. Allomorph is defined as a positional variant of a morpheme occurring in a specific environment and so characterized by complementary description.

Complementary distribution is said to take place, when two linguistic variants cannot appear in the same environment. Different morphemes are characterized by contrastive distribution, i.e. if they occur in the same environment they signal different meanings. The suffixes *-able* and *-ed*, for instance, are different morphemes, not allomorphs, because adjectives in *-able* mean "capable of beings".

Allomorphs will also occur among prefixes. Their form then depends on the initials of the stem with which they will assimilate.

Two or more sound forms of a stem existing under conditions of complementary distribution may also be regarded as allomorphs, as, for instance, in long a: length n.

The morphological analysis of word- structure on the morphemic level aims at splitting the word into its constituent morphemes - the basic units at this level of analysis - and at determining their number and types.

According to the number of morphemes words can be classified into monomorphemic and polymorphemic. Monomorphemic or root-words consist of only one root-morpheme, *For example*, small, dog, make, give, etc. All polymorphemic word fall into two subgroups: derived words and compound words - according to the number of root-morphemes they have. Derived words are composed of one root- morpheme and one or more derivational morphemes, *For example*, acceptable, outdo, disagreeable, etc. Compound words are those which contain at least two root-morphemes, the number of derivational morphemes being insignificant. There can be both root- and derivational morphemes in compounds as in pen-holder, light-mindedness, or only root-morphemes as in lamp-shade, eye-ball, etc.

These structural types are not of equal importance. The clue to the correct understanding of their comparative value lies in a careful consideration of: 1) the importance of each type in the existing wordstock, and 2) their frequency value in actual speech.

Frequency is by far the most important factor. According to the available word counts made in different parts of speech, we find that derived words numerically constitute the largest class of words in the existing wordstock; derived nouns comprise approximately 67% of the total number, adjectives about 86%, whereas compound nouns make about 15%. Root words come to 18% in nouns, i.e. a trifle more than the number of compound words; adjectives root words come to approximately 12%.

But we cannot fail to perceive that root-words occupy a predominant place. In English, according to the recent frequency counts, about 60% of the total number of nouns and 62% of the total number of adjectives in current use are root- words. Of the total number of adjectives and nouns, derived words comprise about 38% and 37% respectively while compound words comprise an insignificant 2% in nouns and 0.2% in adjectives.

Thus, it is the root-words that constitute the foundation and the backbone of the vocabulary and that are of paramount importance in speech. It should also be mentioned that root words are characterized by a high degree of collocability and a complex variety of meanings in contrast with words of other structural types whose semantic structures are much poorer. Root-words also serve as parent forms for all types of derived and compound words.

So, if we divide morphemes into phonemes, phonemes unlike morphemes have no meaning, (*For example*, teach/ er — teacher). Phonemes are used to make up morphemes. So the difference between morphemes and phonemes is that morphemes have meanings but phonemes have not. A morpheme differs from a word too. Unlike a word a morpheme does not occur separately in speech. It occurs in speech as a constituent part of a word.

Anthony Burgess writes that « obviously not, for syllables are «mechanical» and «metrical», mere equal ticks of a click or beats in a bar. If we divide the word «metrical» into

«met — ri—cal», I have learned nothing new about the word: these three syllables are not functional as neutrons, protons, electrons are functional. But if I divide the word as metr-ic-al, I have done something rather different. I have indicated that is made of the root «metr» which refers to measurement and is found in «metronome» and in a different phonetic disguise in «metre», «kilometre» and the rest -ic which is an adjectival ending found also in «toxic», «psychic» etc; -al, which is an unambiguous adjectival ending, as" in «festate, «vernal» «partial». I have split «metrical» into three contributory forms» which (remembering that Greek «morph» — means «form») I can call morphemes (Anthony Burgess).

But Charles Hockett thinks that «An idiomatic composite form like any single morpheme has to be learned as a whole. The raw materials from which we build utterance are idioms. It is difficult to decide whether it is one morpheme or more than one. **For example.** English has *many* words of the type «remote», «demote», «promote», «reduce», «deduce», «produce» each apparently built of two smaller parts, a prefix *re-, de-, pro-*, or the like and a second part *-mote», «duce»,* or the like. But the relationships of meaning are tenuous. Grammarians are not in agreement. Some brush aside the semantic difficulties and take each word as two morphemes, following the phonemic shapes; others - regard the parallelisms of phonemic shape as unconvincing and take each word as a single morpheme.

Similar problems appear in the analysis of almost every language. An obvious practical step is to set the morphemic problem aside, recognizing that each form is an idiom whether it is one or more morphemes. (*Charles Hockett*)

I.A. Sheard points out that «We may perhaps start with an attempt to define components of our words, separating them into free forms, which may occur in isolation and bound forms, which never occur alone. **For example** «blackberry» consists of two free forms compounded, as both «black» and «berry» are found in isolation. If we examine ((*raspberry*)) we may at first think it is the same type for we undoubtedly do have a word «rasp» but although the forms are identical phonetically they are not identical in meaning and «*rasp*» in the sense in which it is used in raspberry is not found in isolation, except in the shortened form of «*raspberry*», for «*rasp*» is often used colloquially for both the bush and the fruit. In the case of «*bilberry*» we are on even safer ground, for the element «bil» — is not found in isolation in English and is therefore quite definitely a bound form». (*I.A. Sheard*. «The word we use».)

The comparative study of the structure of words in English and Uzbek shows that the number of simple, derived and compound words almost coincide. But when we translate the English words into Uzbek we see some differences. In English the simple words are used more frequently than the derived and compound words. The Uzbek language is rich in derived and compound words and they are more oftenly used in speech than in English. The majority of simple words in English is explained by a lot of converted pairs. We illustrate some correspondents in English and in Uzbek.

1. English: simple word—Uzbek: derived word caprice — инжиклик (from инжиқ)

control — текшириш (from текшир)

estimate- баҳолаш (from баҳо)

2. English simple word — Uzbek word group

every — ҳар бир, ҳар қайси

essay — катта бўлмаган адабий асар

envy — рашк қилмоқ

3. English derived word — Uzbek word group, compensation — компенсация (товон) тўлаш

comparable — таққослаб (киёслаб) бўладиган compel — мажбур қилмоқ

4. English: compound word — Uzbek: simple word, cross-country — кросс

dress-gown — халат

downpour — сел , жала

5. English derived word — Uzbek simple word, courageous— жасур , тетик

grievous — оғир мусибат

hosiery — трикотаж

6. English; compound word — Uzbek derived word, cow-boy — подачи (from «*noda*»)

hugger-mugger — яширинча (from «*яширин*»)

open-minded — зехинли (from «*зехн*»)

In Uzbek the root morphemes coincide with the stem and a wordform. They take affixal morphemes and the sound form of the root - morpheme is not changed. *For example.* *бош* / — a root-morpheme and the stem of the word — бошланмок [(бош + ла + н + моқ) темир — a root morpheme and the stem is «*тем ир*», **темирчилик (темир + чи + лик)**.

In English the root morpheme also coincides with the stem in its sound form. *For example.* «*friend*» — the root morpheme is identical with the stem. The suffix «*ship*» is added to the stem friend + ship» — friendships. Like that read — reader (read+er). In English there are some morphemes the isolation of which from other morphemes makes it meaningless. *For example,* pocket (pock), hamlet (ham). The morphemes «*pock*», «*ham*» are unique morphemes, because they have no meaning.

Principles of morphemic analysis.

In most cases the morphemic structure of words is transparent enough and individual morphemes clearly stand out within the word. The segmentation of words is generally carried out according to the method of Immediate and Ultimate Constituents. This method is based on the binary principle, i.e. each stage of the procedure involves two components the word immediately breaks into. At each stage these two components are referred to as the Immediate Constituents. Each Immediate Constituent at the next stage of analysis is in turn broken into smaller meaningful elements. The analysis is completed when we arrive at constituents incapable of further division, i.e. morphemes. These are referred to Ultimate Constituents.

A synchronic morphological analysis is most effectively accomplished by the procedure known as the analysis into Immediate Constituents (IC). ICs are the two meaningful parts forming a large linguistic unity.

The method is based on the fact that a word characterized by morphological divisibility is involved in certain structural correlations. To sum up: as we break the word we obtain at any level only ICs one of which is the stem of the given word. All the time the analysis is based on the patterns characteristic of the English vocabulary. As a pattern showing the interdependence of all the constituents segregated at various stages, we obtain the following formula: un+ gentle + -man + -ly

Breaking a word into its Immediate Constituents we observe in each cut the structural order of the constituents.

A diagram presenting the three cuts described looks as follows:

1. un- /gentlemanly

2. un- /gentleman / - ly

3. un- / gentle / - man / - ly

A similar analysis on the word-formation level showing not only the morphemic constituents of the word but also the structural pattern on which it is built.

The analysis of word-structure at the morphemic level must proceed to the stage of Ultimate Constituents (U.C), *For example,* the noun "*friendliness*" is first segmented into the ICs: *friend* recurring in the adjectives *friendly-looking* and *friendly* and *ness* found in a countless number of nouns, such as *unhappiness*, *blackness*, *sameness*, etc. The IC *ness* is at the same time an UC of the word, as it cannot be broken into any smaller elements possessing both sound-form and meaning. Any further division of *of-ness* would give individual speech-sounds which denote nothing by themselves. The IC *friendly* is next broken into the ICs *friend* and "ly" which are both UCs of the word.

Morphemic analysis under the method of Ultimate Constituents may be carried out on the basis of two principles: the so-called root-principle and affix principle.

According to the affix principle the splitting of the word into its constituent morphemes is based on the identification of the affix within a set of words, *For example*, the identification of the suffix *-er* leads to the segmentation of words *singer, teacher, swimmer* into the derivational morpheme *-er* and the roots *teach-, sing-, drive-*.

According to the root-principle, the segmentation of the word is based on the identification of the root-morpheme in a word-cluster, *For example* the identification of the root-morpheme *agree-* in the words *agreeable, agreement, disagree*.

As a rule, the application of these principles is sufficient for the morphemic segmentation of words.

However, the morphemic structure of words in a number of cases is not always so transparent and simple as in the cases mentioned above. Sometimes not only the segmentation of words into morphemes, but the recognition of certain sound-clusters as morphemes become doubtful which naturally affects the classification of words. In words like *retain, detain, contain or receive, deceive, conceive, perceive* the sound-clusters [re], [de] seem to be singled quite easily, on the other hand, they undoubtedly have nothing in common with the phonetically identical prefixes *re-, de-* as found in words *re-write, reorganize, de-organize, de code*. Moreover, the [-teɪn] or [-si:v] do not possess any lexical or functional meaning of their own. Yet, these sound-clusters are felt as having a certain meaning because [re] distinguishes *retain* from *detain* and [-teɪn] distinguishes *retain* from *receive*.

It follows that all these sound-clusters have a differential and a certain distributional meaning as their order arrangement point to the affixal status of *re-, de-, con-, per-* and makes one understand *-tain* and *-ceive* as roots. The differential and distributional meanings seem to give sufficient ground to recognize these sound-clusters as morphemes, but as they lack lexical meaning of their own, they are set apart from all other types of morphemes and are known in linguistic literature as pseudo- morphemes.

Thus, the comparison of the word with other words which have the same morphemes is very important for morphemic analysis. The word *denationalizes* may be divided into «*de*» and “*nationalize*”, because «*de*» can be found in the; structure of such words as «*deform*», «*denature*», «*denominate*». The remaining part «*nationalize*» can be broken into «*national*» and «*ize*»: the reason is the same (*organize, humanize, standardize* etc). «*National*» — into «*nation*» and «*al*» because «*al*» occurs in a number of words such as: *occupational, musical, conditional* etc). At each stage of the process we receive two constituents. The part; of the word «*denationalizes de-,nation,al,-i:e- r* are ultimate constituents because' they can not be divided further. They are morphemes.

In our example only «*nation*» can be said as a free morpheme, as it is like a wordform and can be used in isolation, *de-.-al, -he*, are bound morphemes because they can't be used separately and do not coincide with wordforms.

Principles of Derivational analysis. Stems. Types of Stems.

The morphemic analysis of words only defines the constituent morphemes, determining their types and their meaning but does not reveal the hierarchy of the morphemes comprising the word. Words are no mere sum totals of morpheme, the latter reveal a definite, sometimes very complex interrelation. Morphemes are arranged according to certain rules, the arrangement differing in various types of words and particular groups within the same types. The pattern of morpheme arrangement underlies the classification of words into different types and enables one to understand how new words appear in the language. These relations within the word and the interrelations between different types and classes of words are known as derivational or word-formation relations.

The analysis of derivative or derivational relations aims at establishing a correlation between different types and the structural patterns words are built on. The basic unit at the derivational level is the stem.

The stem is defined as that part of the word which remains unchanged throughout its paradigm, thus the stem which appears in the paradigm (to) *ask, asks, asked, asking* is *ask-*; the stem of the word *singer, singer's, singers, singers'* is *singer-*. It is the stem of the word that takes the inflections which change the word grammatically as one or another part of speech.

The structure of stems should be described in terms of IC's analysis, which at this level aims at establishing the patterns of typical derivational relations within the stem and the derivative correlation between stems of different types. There are three types of stems: simple, derived and compound. Simple stems are semantically non-motivated and do not constitute a pattern on analogy with which new stems may be modeled. Simple stems are generally monomorphic and phonetically identical with the root morpheme. The derivational structure of stems does not always coincide with the result of morphemic analysis. Comparison proves that not all morphemes relevant at the morphemic level are relevant at the derivational level of analysis. It follows that bound morphemes and all types of pseudo-morphemes are irrelevant to the derivational structure of stems as they do not meet requirements of double opposition and derivational interrelations. So the stem of such words as *retain, receive, horrible, pocket, motion*, etc. should be regarded as simple, non-motivated stems.

Derived stems are built on stems of various structures though which they are motivated, i.e. derived stems are understood on the basis of the derivative relations between their immediate constituents and the correlated stems. The derived stems are mostly polymorphic in which case the segmentation results only in one immediate constituents that is itself a stem, the other immediate constituent being necessarily a derivational affix. Derived stems are not necessarily polymorphic.

Compound stems are made up of two stems, both of which are themselves stems, **for example**, *match-box, driving-suit, pen-holder*, etc. It is built by joining of two stems, one of which is simple, the other derived.

Bound lexical morphemes are affixes: prefixes (dis-), suffixes (-ish) and also blocked (unique) root morphemes (**for example**. Friday, cranberry). Bound grammatical morphemes are inflexions (endings), **for example**, -s for the plural of nouns, -ed for the Past Indefinite of regular verbs, -ing for the Present Participle, -er for the comparative degree of adjectives.

In the word forms («*talk, talks, talked, talking*») we can receive the stem «talk». The stem which comes in the paradigm *boy, boys, boy's, boys'is boy*. In «*teacher*», «*teacher's*», «*teachers*»), «*teachers*») the stem is «teacher».

Thus three are structural types of stems: simple, derived and compound. A simple stem is a part of the word which is identical with a root morpheme and to which the grammatical elements are added, **for example**, *book, tram, teach, table, girl, boy*. A derived stem is such a stem which can be divided into a root and an affix: *girlish, agreement, acceptable, teacher*. But derived stems are not always polymorphic. **For example**. The stem of the verb «to fish» though it has no an affix in its structure it should be considered to be a derived stem as it is felt by the native speaker as more complex and semantically dependant on the simple stem o the noun «fish». Compound stems are stems which consist of two or more stems **For example**, *match-box, paint-box, play-boy, bookcase, doorhandle* etc.

«It will be safe to assume that all know what is meant by the word «word». I may consider that my typing fingers know it, defining a word as what comes between two spaces. The Greeks saw the word as the minimal unit of speech to them, too, the atom was minimal unit of matter. Our own age has learnt to split the atom and also the word. If atoms are divisible into protons, electrons and neutrons, what are words divisible into?» (*Anthony Burgess*)

The stem «hop» can be found in the words: «hop», «hops», «hopped», «hopping». The stem «hippie» can be found in the words: «hippie», «hippies», «hippie's», «hippies'». The stem «job-hop» can be found in the words : «job-hop», «job-hops», «job-hopped», «job-hopping»).

Stems have not only the lexical meaning but also grammatical (part-of- speech) meaning, they can be noun stems («g/7») adjective stems («girlish»)), verb stems («expell») etc. They differ from words by the absence of inflexions in their structure, they can be used only in the structure of words.

Sometimes it is rather difficult to distinguish between simple and derived words, especially in the cases of phonetic borrowings from other languages and of native words with blocked (unique) root morphemes, For example «cranberry», «absence» etc.

As far as words with splinters are concerned it is difficult to distinguish between derived words and compound-shortened words. If a splinter is treated as an affix (or a semi-affix) the word can be called derived , For example-, «telescreen», «maxi-taxi» , «shuttlegate», «cheeseburger». But if the splinter is treated as a lexical shortening of one of the stems , the word can be called compound-shortened word formed from a word combination where one of the components was shortened, **For example** «busnapper» was formed from « bus kidnapper», «minijet» from «miniaturejet».

In the English language of the second half of the twentieth century there developed so called block compounds that is compound words which have a uniting stress but a split spelling, such as «chat show», «penguin suit» etc. Such compound words can be easily mixed up with word-groups of the type «stone wall», so called nominative binomials. Such linguistic units serve to denote a notion which is more specific than the notion expressed by the second component and consists of two nouns, the first of which is an attribute to the second one. If we compare a nominative binomial with a compound noun with the structure N+N we shall see that a nominative binomial has no unity of stress. The change of the order of its components will change its lexical meaning, For example «vid kid» is «a kid who is a video fa”) while «kid vid» means «a video-film for kid”) or else *damp oi*) means «oil for lamps)) and «oil lamp” means «a lamp which uses oil for burning”

Study Questions

1. What is a morpheme?
2. What is the word made up?
3. What is the difference between a morpheme and a phoneme?
4. What is the difference between a morpheme and a word?
5. What types of morphemes do you know?
6. What is the morphemic analysis?
7. How can we analyse the morphemic structure of words with the help of I.C. method?
8. What is the stem?
9. What types of stems do you know?
10. What are the synchronic and diachronic approaches to the analysis of the stem?
11. Can all the words which have in their structure an affix have derived stems?
12. What is the unit of the derivational level ?

LECTURE 10

THEME: WORD FORMATION

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF LECTURE SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабаларсони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машғулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	lecture (visual type)
<i>Машғулот режаси /ўқув машғулотининг тузилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 1. Word formation and its basic peculiarities 2. Affixation 3. The Classification of Affixes 4. Word Cluster
<i>Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:</i>	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; • to discuss semantic triangle • to analyze nouns semantic triangle	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> • Be able to understand affixation. • Be able to understand word cluster. • Be able to analyze word formation.
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Lecture
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шaroити</i>	Lecture hall

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF LECTURE SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exercise on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

Problems to be discussed:

5. Wordformation and its basic peculiarities
6. Affixation
7. The Classification of Affixes
8. Word Cluster

Key words: Wordformation, synchronically and diachronically, coining, affixation, prefixation, suffixation, word cluster

Wordformation and its basic peculiarities

«Wordformation is the process of creating new words from the material available in the language after certain structural and semantic formulas and patterns (*Ginzburg*)

Wordformation is that branch of the science of language which the patterns on which a language forms new lexical units, i.e. words». (*H. Marchand.*) The term «wordformation» is applied to the process by which new words are formed by adding prefixes and suffixes or both to a root — form already in existence. (*J.A. Sheard*).

Thus, wordformation is the creation of new words from the elements existing in the language. Every language has its own structural patterns of wordformation. Words like «*writer*», «*worker*», «*teacher*», «*manager*» and many others follow the structural pattern of wordformation «V + er».

Word-formation may be studied synchronically and diachronically. «With regard to compounding, prefixing and suffixing wordformation proceeds either on a native or on a foreign basis of coining. The term native basis of coining means that a derivative must be analysable as consisting of two independent morphemes (in the event of a compound as *rainbow*) or of a combination of independent and dependent morpheme (in the case of prefixal and suffixal derivatives as *un-just*, *boy-hood*).

By wordformation on a foreign basis of coining we understand derivation on the morphologic basis of another language. In English most learned, scientific or technical words are formed on the morphologic basis of Latin or Greek. (*Marchand*)

Two principal approaches are applied in the science of language: the synchronic and the diachronic one. With regard to wordformation the synchronic linguist would study the present day system of formatting words types while the scholar of the diachronic school would write the history of wordformation .

Marchand points out that mere semantic correlation is not enough to establish a phonological (phonemic), morpho-phonemic opposition. For the speaker «*dine*» and «*dinner*», «*maintain*» and “*maintenance*” and many others are semantically connected but a derivative connection has not developed out of such pairs. so their opposition is not relevant to wordformation.

Thus, synchronically we study those of wordformation which characterize the present-day English linguistic system, while diachronically we investigate the history of wordformation. The synchronic type of wordformation does not always coincide with the historical system of wordformation.

For example. The words *childhood*, *kingdom* were compound words: *hood* OE had (state, rank), *dom* OE dom condemn. But synchronically they are considered as derived words because «-*dom*,» «-*hood*» became affixes. The words «*return*» and «*turn*» historically had semantic relations and «*return*» was considered as a word derived from «*turn*». But synchronically these words have no semantic relations and we can't say that «*returny*» is derived from «*turn*».

Synchronically the most important and the most productive ways of wordformation are: affixation, conversion, word-composition. Besides them there are other types of wordformation such as: shortening, soundinterchange, blending, back-formation etc. In the course of the historical development of a language the productivity of this or that way of wordformation changes.

For example, soundinterchange (blood — bleed, strike — stroke) was a productive way of wordformation in old English and it is an important subject- matter for a diachronic study of

the English language. Soundinterchange has lost its productivity in Modern English and no new words can be formed by means of soundinterchange. Affixation on the contrary was productive in Old English and is still one of the most productive ways of wordformation in Modern English.

Two types of wordformation may be distinguished: word-derivation and wordcomposition. Words formed by word-derivation have only one stem and one or more derivational affixes (*For example, kindness* from *kind*). Some derived words have no affixes because derivation is achieved through conversion (*For example, to paper* from *paper*). Words formed by wordcomposition have two or more stems (*For example, bookcase, note-book*). Besides there are words created by derivation and composition. Such words are called derivational compounds (*For example, long-legged*).

So the subject of study of wordformation is to study the patterns on which the English language builds words.

The English and Uzbek languages differ in the types of wordformation. Their ways of wordformation are also different. Affixation, composition, shortening are very productive ways of wordformation in both languages. In Uzbek conversion, blending, soundinterchange (stressinterchange), backformation are less common type of wordformation. As for as the English language concerned these types of wordformation are very common. We can find a few words which formed by these types of wordformation in the Uzbek language. The Comparative value of the wordformation of English and Uzbek languages demands further investigations.

Affixation

Prefixation and suffixation

Affixation is the formation of words with the help of derivational affixes. As it was said above all morphemes are subdivided into two large classes: *roots* (or *radicals*) and *affixes*. The latter, in their turn, fall into *prefixes* which precede the root in the structure of the word (as in *re-read, mis-pronounce, unwell*) and *suffixes* which follow the root (as in *teach-er, cur-able, diet-ate*),

Words which consist of a root and an affix (or several affixes) are called *derived -words* or *derivatives* and are produced by the process of word-building known as *affixation* (or *derivation*).

Derived words are extremely numerous in the English vocabulary. Successfully competing with this structural type is the so-called *root word* which has only a root morpheme in its structure.

Affixation is subdivided into prefixation and suffixation. *For example*, if a prefix «*dis*» is added to the stem «*like*» (*dislike*) or suffix «*ful*» to «*law*» (*lawful*) we say a word is built by an affixation. Derivational morphemes added before the stem of a word are called *prefixes* (*un + like*) and the derivational morphemes; added after the stem of the word are called *suffixes* (*hand+ful*). Prefixes modify the lexical meaning of the stem meaning!, e. the prefixed derivative mostly belongs to the same part of speech. *For example*, *like* (*v.*) — *dislike* (*v.*). *kind* (*adj.*) — *unkind* (*adj.*) but suffixes transfer words to a different part of speech, *For example* *teach* (*v.*) — *teacher* (*n.*).

«We call prefixes such particles as can be prefixed to full words but on themselves not words with an independent existence. Native prefixes have developed out of independent words. Their number is small: *a-*, *be-*, *un-*, (negative and reversative)/*ore-*, *mid-* and (partly) *mis-*. Prefixes of foreign origin came into the language ready made, so to speak. They are due to syntagmatic loans from] other languages: when a number of analysable foreign words of the same structure had been introduced into the language, the pattern could be extended to formations i. e. the prefix then became a derivative morpheme. Some prefixes secondarily developed uses as independent words as counter sub-arch which do not invalidate the principle that primarily they

were particles with no independent existence. The same phenomenon occurs with suffixes also ... »
(H. Marchand)

But new investigations into the problem of prefixation in English showed interesting results. It appears that the traditional opinion, current among linguists that prefixes modify only the lexical meaning of words without changing the part of speech is not quite correct. In English there are about 25 prefixes which can transfer words to a different part of speech. *For example.*— head (*n*) — behead (*v*), bus(*n*) — debus(*v*), brown (*adj*) — embrown(*v*), title(*t*) — entitle(*v*), large (*adj*). — enlarge (*v*), camp(*n*).— encamp(*v*), war(*n*).— prewar (*adj*). If it is so we can say that there is no functional difference between suffixes and prefixes. Besides there are linguists who treat prefixes as a part of word-composition. They think that a prefix has the same function as the first component of a compound word. Other linguists consider prefixes as derivational affixes which differ essentially from root — morphemes and stems.

From the point of view of their origin affixes may be native and borrowed. The suffixes -ness, -ish, -dom, -fid, -less, -ship and prefixes be-, mis-, un-, fore-, etc are of native origin. But the affixes -able, -ment, -ation, -ism, -ist, re-, anti-, dis-, etc are of borrowed origin. They came from the Greek, Latin and French languages. Many of the suffixes and prefixes of native origin were independent words. In the course of time they have lost their independence and turned into derivational affixes. -dom, -hood. /O. E. had — state, rank, -dom (dom condemn, -ship has developed from noun «scipet» (meaning: state); the adjective forming suffix «-ly» has developed from the noun *dic*» (body, shape).

The prefixes out-, under-, over etc also have developed out of independent words. ... there are two ways in which a suffix may come into existence.

- 1) the suffix was once an independent word but is no longer one;
- 2) the suffix has originated as such usually as a result of derivation.

The first applies to a few native suffixes only. The suffixes -dom and -hood are independent words still in OE, so the process whereby a second word becomes a suffix can be observed historically ...

The second in the suffix «-ling» which is simply the extended form of the suffix -ing in words whose stem ended in -l ...

The contact of English with various foreign languages has led to the adoption of countless foreign words. In the process many derivative morphemes have also been introduced suffixes as well as prefixes as a consequence, we have many hybrid types of composites . . . Some foreign affixes as -ance, -al, -ity have never become productive with native words (H. Marchand).

Semantics of Affixes

The *morpheme*, and therefore affix, which is a type of morpheme, is generally defined as the smallest indivisible component of the word possessing a meaning of its own. Meanings of affixes are specific and considerably differ from those of root morphemes. Affixes have widely generalised meanings and refer the concept conveyed by the whole word to a certain category, which is vast and all-embracing. So, the noun-forming suffix -er could be roughly defined as designating persons from the object of their occupation or labour (*painter* — the one who paints) or from their place of origin or abode (*southerner* — the one living in the South). The adjective-forming suffix -ful has the meaning of "full of," "characterised by" (*beautiful*, *careful*) whereas -ish may often imply insufficiency! of quality (*greenish* — green, but not quite; *youngish* — not quite young but looking it).

Such examples might lead one to the somewhat hasty conclusion that the meaning of a derived word is always a sum of the meanings of its morphemes: *un/eat/able* = "not fit to eat" where *not* stands for *un-* and *fit* for *-able*.

There are numerous derived words whose meanings can really be easily deduced from the meanings of their constituent *parts*. Yet, such cases represent only the first and simplest stage of semantic readjustment within derived words. The constituent morphemes within derivatives do not always preserve their current meanings and are open to subtle and complicated semantic shifts.

Let us take some of the adjectives formed with the same productive suffix *-y*, and try to deduce the meaning of the suffix from their dictionary definitions: *brainy* (inform.) — intelligent, intellectual, i. e. *characterised by brains*

catty — quietly or slyly malicious, spiteful, i. e. *characterised by features* ascribed to a cat *chatty* — given to chat, *inclined to chat*

dressy (inform.) — showy in dress, i. e. *inclined to dress well* or to be overdressed *fishy* (e. g. in a *fishy story*, inform.) — improbable, hard to believe (*like stories told by fishermen*)

foxy — foxlike, cunning or crafty, i. e. *characterised by features* ascribed to a fox, *stagy* — theatrical, unnatural, i. e. *inclined to affectation*, to unnatural theatrical manners

touchy — apt to take offence on slight provocation, i. e. *resenting a touch or contact* (not at all inclined to be touched)

The Random-House Dictionary defines the meaning of the *-y* suffix as "characterised by or inclined to the substance or action of the root. Some of the listed adjectives have several meanings, but only one is given so as to keep the list manageable.

Yet, even the few given examples show that, on the one hand, there are cases, like *touchy* or *fishy* that are not covered by the definition. On the other hand even those cases that are roughly covered, show a wide variety of subtle shades of meaning. It is not only the suffix that adds its own meaning to the meaning of the root, but the suffix is, in its turn, affected by the root and undergoes certain.

Semantic changes, so that the mutual influence of root and affix creates a wide range of subtle nuances, but is the suffix *-y* probably exceptional in this respect? It is sufficient to examine further examples to see that other affixes also offer an interesting variety of semantic shades. Compare, for instance, the meanings of adjective-forming suffixes in each of these groups of adjectives.

1. *eatable* (*fit or good to eat*) *lovable* (*worthy of \ov\ng*) *questionable* (*open to doubt, to question*) *imaginable* (*capable of being imagined*)

2. *lovely* (*charming, beautiful, i. e. inspiring love*) *lonely* (*solitary, without company; lone; the meaning of the suffix does not seem to add any thing to that of the root*)

friendly (*characteristic of or befitting a friend*) *heavenly* (*resembling or befitting heaven; beautiful, splendid*)

3. *childish* (*resembling or befitting a child*) *tallish* (*rather tall, but not quite, i. e. approaching the quality of 'big size'*)

Another problem of the study of affixes is homonymic affixes. Homonymic affixes are affixes which have the same soundform, spelling but different meanings and they are added to different parts of speech.

Ex.-ful (1) forms adjectives from a noun: *love* (v) — *lovely* (adj), *man* (n), — *manful* (adj).

-fill (2) forms adjective from a verb: *forget* (ti.) — *forgetful*, (adj) *thank* (u.) — *thankful* (adj).

-ly(1) added to an adjective stem is homonymous to the adjective forming suffix *-ly*(2) which is added to a noun stem. **For example**, *quickly*, *slowly*, and *lovely*, *friendly*. The verb suffix *-en* (1) added to a noun and adjective stem is homonymous to the adjective forming suffix *-en* (2) which is added to a noun stem. **For example**, *to strengthen*, *to soften*, and *wooden*, *golden*. The prefix *un-*(\) added to a noun and a verb stem is homonymous to the prefix *un-*(2) which is added to an adjective stem. For example *unshoe*, *unbind*, *unfair*, *untrue*.

In the course of the history of English as a result of borrowings there appeared many synonymous affixes in the language. **For example**, the suffixes - *er*, -*or*, -*ist*, -*ent*, -*ant*, -*eer*, -*ian*, -*man*, -*ee*, -*ess* form synonymous affixes denoting the meaning «agent». Having the meaning of negation the prefixes *un-*, *in-*, *non-*, *dis-*, *mis-* form synonymic group of prefixes. It is interesting to point out that the synonymous affixes help us to reveal different lexico — semantic groupings of words. *Ex.* the words formed by the suffixes -*man*, -*er*, -*or*, -*ian*, -*ee*, -*eer*, -*entrant* etc. belong to the lexico-semantic groupings of words denoting «doer of the actions. The affixes may also undergo semantic changes, they may be polysemantic. **For example**, the noun forming suffix «-*er*» has the following meanings:

1) persons following some special trade and profession (driver, teacher, hunter); 2) persons doing a certain action at the moment in question (packer, chooser, giver); 3) tools (blotter, atomizer, boiler, transmitter).

The adjective forming suffix «-*y*» also has several meanings:

1) composed of, full of (bony, stony)

2) characterized by (rainy, cloudy)

3) having the character of resembling what the stem denotes (inky, bushy etc.) Thus, affixes have different characteristic features.

The Comparative analysis of the English language with other languages showed that English is not so rich in suffixes as, for example, the Uzbek language. The total number of suffixes is 67 in English but the Uzbek suffixes are 171 and, vice versa, prefixation is more typical to the English language than Uzbek] (Compare: 79:8)

In Uzbek there are following prefixes: *be-*, «*o-*», *da*, *bo-*, *hum-*. By their origin] the Uzbek affixes like English ones are divided into native and borrowed. The! suffixes: -*mi*, -*zap*, -*sop*, -*jiuk*, -*jiu*, -*ok*, are native suffixes but. -*usm*, -*aifux*, -*bo*, -*j ho*, -*homo*, -*ku* are of borrowed origin. The affixes may be divided into different! semantic groups. These semantic groups of affixes may be different in different^ languages. For example, diminutive affixes in Uzbek are more than in English (see the table)

Diminutive	Suffixes
In English	In Uzbek
-ie (birdie),	-акай (йўл-йўлакай),
-let (cloudlet),	- алак (дунгалак),
-ling (wolf ling),	- гина (қизгина),
-ette(mountainette),	- жон (дадажон)
-ock (hillock),	- ка (йўлка),
-y (Jony),	- кач (тахтакач),
-et (whippet),	- кина (гудаккина),
-kin (tigerkin),	лоқ (қизалоқ),
	- ой (Салимой),
	-он (ўғлон),
	- оқ (бошоқ),
	- ча (аравача),
	- чак (тугунчак),
	- чик (копчик)
	-чоқ (қўзичоқ)

As compared with the Uzbek language the negative affixes are more widely used in English.

The Classification of Affixes

There are different classifications of affixes in linguistic literature. Affixes may be divided into dead and living. Dead affixes are those which are no longer felt in Modern English as component parts of words. They can be singled out only by an etymological analysis. *For example*, admit (from L ad -(-mit-tere); deed, seed (-d) flight, bright (-t).

Living affixes are easily singled out from a word. *For example*, freedom, childhood, marriage. Living affixes are traditionally in their turn divided into productive and non-productive. The term "productivity" is a subject of discussion among the linguists

K.E. Zimmer 1 argues that «The term «*productive*» is often used rather indiscriminately to refer both to certain aspects of the behavior of the speakers of a language and to certain diachronic trends while there is presumably in many cases a connection between these two aspects of productivity. It is necessary to keep the distinction in mind. Moreover, and more importantly the concept of what we might term «synchronic productivity») is itself often used in a rather illdefined way in the area of word formation, and it is in many cases difficult to decide just what is being implied when a morphological process is said to be synchronically productive. (K. E. Zimmer)

However, «It follows that productivity of word -building ways, individual derivational patterns and derivational affixes is understood as their ability of making new words which all, we speak English, find no difficulty in understanding, in particular their ability to create what are called occasional words». (GinzburgR, S. and others)

«A derivational pattern or a derivational affix are qualified as productive provided there are in word-stock dozens and hundreds of derived words built on the pattern or with the help of the suffix in questions. Derivational productivity distinguished from wordformation activity by which is meant the ability of an affix to produce new words. (E. C. Кубр якова)

«We call productive those affixes and types of word-formation which used to form new words in the period in question. The proof of productivity is existence of new words coined by these means. Therefore when we see that notion that could not possibly have existed at some previous stage has a name formed with the help of some affix the affix is considered productive)). (Arnold V.)

Another point of view is given by Ch. Hockett «The productivity of an pattern-derivational, inflectional or syntactical — is the relative freedom with which speakers coin new grammatical forms by it. Thus the formation of English noun-plurals with *z, s, iz* is highly productive. The addition of *-ly* to produce an adverbial is fairly productive. (Ch. Hockett.) We think that productive affixes are those which are characterized by their ability to make new words. **For example**. *-<* (baker, lander) *-ist* (leftist) *-ism, -ish* (baldish) *-ing, -ness, -ation, -ee, -ry, -orance, ic* are productive suffixes *re-, un-, non-, anti-* etc are productive prefixes. Non-productive affixes are those which are not used to form new words in Modern English. **For example**, *-ard, -cy, -ive, -en, -dom, -ship, -en, -ify* etc are non-productive suffixes; in (*il*) *ir- (im-)*, are non-productive prefixes. These affixes may occur in a great number of words but if they are not used to form new words in Modern English they are not productive.

But recent investigations prove that there are no productive and non-productive affixes because each affix plays a certain role in wordformation. They are only affixes with different degrees of productivity, besides that productivity of affixes should not be mixed up with their frequency of occurrence in speech. Frequency of affixes is characterized by the occurrence of an affix in a given number of words. But productivity is the ability of a given suffix or prefix to make new words. An affix may be frequent but not productive, **For example**, the suffix «*-ive*» is very frequent but non-productive.

The native noun-forming suffixes *-dom* and *-ship* ceased to be productive centuries ago. Yet, Professor I. V. Arnold in *The English Word* gives some examples of comparatively new formations with the suffix *-dom*: *boredom serfdom, slavedom*. The same is true about *-ship* (e. g.

salesmanship). The adjective-forming *-ish*, which leaves no doubt as to its productivity nowadays, has comparatively recently regained it, after having been non-productive for many centuries.

Some linguists distinguish between two types of prefixes:

1) those which are like functional words (such as prepositions or adverbs) (*Fa-example*, *out-*, *over-*, *up-*)

2) those which are not correlated with any independent words, (*For example*, *un-*, *dis-*, *re-*, *mis-*, etc).

Prefixes *out-*, *over-*, *up-*, *under-*, etc are considered as semibound morphemes. However, this view is doubtful because these prefixes are quite frequent in speech and like other derivational affixes have a generalized meaning. They have no grammatical meaning like the independent words. We think they are bound morphemes and should be regarded as homonyms of the corresponding independent words, *For example*, the prefix «*out-*» in *outdoor*, *outcome*, *outbreak* etc is homonymous to the preposition «*out*» in «*out o/door*» and the adverb «*out*» in «*He went out*».

Prefixes and suffixes may be classified according to their meaning. 1) prefixes of negative meaning such as: *de-*, *non-*, *un-*, *in-*, *ir-*, *im-*, *dis-* (*For example*, *defeat*, *decentralize*, *disappear*, *impossible*, *discomfort* etc); 2) prefixes, denoting space and time relations: *after-*, *under-*, *for-*, *pre-*, *post-*, *over-*, *super-* (*For example*, *prehistory*, *postposition*, *superstructure*, *overspread*, *afternoon*, *forefather*); 3) prefixes denoting repetition of an action such as: *re-* (*For example*, *reread*, *remake*).

Like prefixes the suffixes are also classified according to their meaning: 1) the agent suffixes: *-er*, *-or*, *-ist*, *-ee* etc. (*baker*, *sailor*, *typist*, *employee*); 2) appurtenance: *-an*, *-ian*, *-ese* (*Arabian*, *Russian*, *Chinese*, *Japanese*); 3) collectivity: *-age*, *-dom*, *-hood*, *-ery* (*peasantry*, *marriage*, *kingdom*, *childhood*); 4) diminutiveness: *-let*, *-ock*, *-ie* etc (*birdie*, *cloudlet*, *hillock*); 5) quantitiveness: *-ful*, *-ous*, *-y*, *-ive*, *-ly*, *-some*.

Suffixes may be divided into different groups according to what part of speech they form:

1) noun-forming, i. e. those which form nouns: *-er*, *-dom*, *-ness*, ***-ation***, *-ity*, *-age*, *-ance*, *-ence*, *-ist*, *-hood*, *-ship*, *-ment* etc; 2) adjective-forming: *-able*, *-ible*, *-ible*, *-al*, *-ian*, *-ese*, *-ate*, *-ed*, *-ful*, *-ive*, *-ous*, *-y* etc; 3) numeral-forming: *-teen*, *-th*, *-ty* etc; 4) verb-forming: *-ate*, *-en*, *-ify*, *-ize* etc.; 5) adverb-forming: *-ly*, *-ward*, *-wise* etc.

Suffixes may be added to the stem of different parts of speech. According to this point of view they may be:

1) those added to verbs; *-er*, *-ing*, *-ment*, *-able*; 2) those added to nouns: *-less*, *-ish*, *-ful*, *-ist*, *-some* etc; 3) those added to adjectives: *-en*, *-ly*, *-ish*, *-ness* etc. Suffixes are also classified according to their stylistic reference: 1) suffixes, which characterize neutral stylistic reference: *-able*, *-er*, *-ing* (*For example*, *dancer*, *understandable* «*helping*»); 2) suffixes which characterize a certain stylistic reference, *-aid*, *-form*, *-iron* etc (*astroid*, *rhomboid*, *cruciform*, *cyclotron* etc)

Word Cluster

Language is a system. The elements of the language are interrelated and interdependent.

Word cluster is a group of words which have semantically and phonetically correlated with identical root morphemes. *For example*, *to lead*, *leader*, *leadership*, *city*, *citify*, *cityism*, *cityful*, *cityish*, *citywards*, *cityite*, *citiness*, *citied*, *citiward*, *cityless*; *family*, *familial*, *subfamily*, *superfamily*, *non-family*, *familist*, *tamilism*, *non-familial*; *finger*, *fingerlet*, *fingerling*, *finger* (v), *fingered*, *fingerless*, *fingerish*, *fingery*, *unfigered*, *fingerer*, *fingering*, *refinger*, *forefinger*, *fingerable*, *fingerative*; *baron*, *baronize*, *baronial*, *baronry*, *barony*, *baroness*, *baronage*, *baronet*, *baronetical*, *baronetcy*, *baronetess*, *baronethood*, *baronetship*.

The members of a word cluster belong as a rule to different parts of speech and are joined together only by the identity of the root morpheme.

Now most of the linguists are sure that in the vocabulary system there are different micro systems or subsystems (*For example*, synonyms, antonyms or homonyms), different lexico-semantic groupings and etc. And word cluster is one of the subsystems of the vocabulary of such kind.

The terms can give a large word cluster, *For example*, the word cluster of polymer (xhm. noumviep) include the following words: polymerize, polymerization, copolymer, copolymerize, copolymerization, etc.

The stems of words making up a word cluster enter into derivational relations of different degrees. The zero degree of derivation is a simple word or a word which its stem is homonymous with a word form and often with a root morpheme. *For example*, boy, atom, devote, girl etc.

Derived words which are formed from the simple stems and which are formed by the application of one derivational affix are described as words having the first degree of derivation. *For example*, boyish, atomic, girlish, devotion etc. Derived words which are formed by two stages of coining are the second degree of derivation. *For example*, boyishness, atomical, girlishness, devotional.

The members of the word cluster may be derivatives formed by affixation, conversion, compounding. *For example*, heart, to disheart, to dishearten, disheartenment, to heart, hearted, heartedness, to hearten, heartening, hearteningly, heartfelt, heartfully, heartfulness, heartily, heartiness, heartless, heartlessly, heartlessness, heartlet, heartlike, heartling, heartsome, heart-somely, hearty.

The structure of a word cluster may be given as a diagram.

/derived verb \ **derived** **adject**

I derived noun — **derived** **adverb**

A word cluster includes the derivatives which are structurally and niantically related. 1) possess — эгалламок (владеть), possession — эгаллаш ,(владение), possioner — хужайин (владелец .) , possessor — хужайин ,(владелец), possessory — эга булиш , (относящийся к владению), possessive — мулакка эга булган , (относящийся к собственности)

2 read- _ укимок (читать), read *adj* — у кимишли (начитанный), read *n* — укиш (чтение) readable — укиб буладиган (удобочитаемый), readability — укиб булишлик (удобочитаемость).

reader — укувчи(читатель), readership — у кувчилар доираси (круг читателей), reading *n* — reading *adj* — у киятган (читающий), reread — кайта укимок (перечитать)

3) sport *n* — спорт (спорт). sporter — спортсмен (спортсмен), sportful — х ушчакчак , хазилкаш (веселый , шуточный), sporting — с порт Билан шугулланиш (увлекающийся спортом), sportless — спорт билан шугулланишга шароит булмастик (не располагающий возможностями для спорта), sporty — спортсменларча (спортивный), sportsman — спортсмен (спортсмен), sportsmanlike — спортсменларча (с портсменский , sportsmanship — спорт буйича кобилият (с портсменское мастерство).

If we can't see these connections we can't include the derivative into a word cluster.

For example. «hand» — «handsome». These words are structurally related, i. e they have structural relation but we can't say that the word «handsome» is formed from «hand» because in Modern English there is no semantic relation between «hand» and «handsome» (hand — кул , handsome — чиройли). On the contrary in words knee (који ено) and kneel (с тановиться на коленях) we see that there is a semantic relation between these words but we can't include the word «kneel» into the word cluster of «knee» because there is no structural relation between them. The same is true with dark — to darkle (to grow dark). There is no structural relation between them too.

On the first step of the word cluster the derivatives of the first degree of derivation are in most cases nouns, verbs and adjectives. The length (the final step of a word cluster) includes 4 steps.

Thus, the "word clusters of different parts of speech may have different peculiarities.

We must distinguish between the word cluster and the word family. The word-family includes not only words making up a word cluster but also the words which have a common meaning and semantic structure. *For example*, die — death, feed — food, think — thought, brother, brotherly, fraternal, mother, motherly, maternal. The words *fraternal* and *maternal* are not the members of a word cluster. They are the members of a word-family because there is no derivational relation between mother and maternal, brother and fraternal, think — thought, feed — food, die death, high — height, strong — strength etc. The members of a word cluster have derivational and semantic relations and if they have no such relations they can't be members of a word cluster.

The members of the word cluster are increased and enlarged or decreased as a result of the development of the English language. For example, the verbs «to unite, «to combine, «to prevent») up to the 16th century did not give any derivatives but after 1500 (16th century) they gave more than 20 derivatives, (united 1552, united 1587, unitive 1526, disunite 1560), (combiner 1610, combinable 1749, combination 1532, combinative 1855 etc), preventive 1639, preventer 1587, prevention 1528, preventingly 1731.

Different borrowed words may develop their word cluster differently. As a result of the development of the language in different historical periods of the English language a number of derivatives of words of different origin may be different.

For example. In the 15th century the Latin words in English such as «to suspect», «to fix», «to interrupt») each of them had only one derivative but the words of Scandinavian origin «to trust», «to remark»), «to guess» gave 5 derivatives at that period of time. The Scandinavian verbs to dirty, to near, to skin gave 1 or 2 derivatives after the 15th century. But the -Latin borrowings to «describe», «to suggest»), «to persuade») gave 20 derivatives and each of them forms a large word cluster.

This shows that the Latin borrowings are more active in wordformation than the Scandinavian borrowings.

Properties of a word cluster in English and in Uzbek may be different. The totality of the notion may be given by the related words and in other languages they may correspond to different words, free or set phrases

For example, heart — юрак, hearten — рухлантирмоқ, heartless — берахм, hearty — самимий; hook — илгак, hooked — эгик, букиг, hooker — балик овлайдиган, hope — умид, ишонч, hopeful — умид, қилувчи, hopefulness- келажжака ишонч

Study Questions

1. What is the subject-matter of wordformation?
2. What is the difference between synchronic and diachronic study of wordformation?
3. What ways of wordformation do you know?
4. What are the productive and nonproductive ways of wordformation?
5. What is affixation subdivided into?
6. What is a prefix and a suffix?
7. What is the difference between a prefix and a suffix?
8. What can you say about the different treatment of a prefix by different linguists?
9. What is understood by a word cluster?
10. What are the degree of derivation in a word cluster?

11. What are the derivational relations in a word cluster?
12. How are the derivational relations within a word cluster represented graphically?
13. What part of speech do the derivatives of different degrees of derivation in a word cluster belong to?
14. What is the difference between a word ter and a word family?
15. What is the development of a word cluster in the course of historical development of the English language?

LECTURE 11

THEME: CONVERSION

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF LECTURE SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабаларсони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машгулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	lecture (visual type)
<i>Машгулот режаси /ўқув машгулотининг тузилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 1. Definition of conversion 2. The most common types of conversion 3. Criteria of semantic derivation 4. Substantivization of Adjectives
<i>Ўқув машгулоти мақсади:</i>	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; • to discuss semantic triangle • to analyze nouns semantic triangle	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> • Be able to understand conversion . • Be able to understand types of conversion. • Be able to analyze criteria of semantic derivation.
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Lecture
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Lecture hall

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF LECTURE SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook

3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exercise on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

Problems to be discussed:

1. Definition of conversion
2. The most common types of conversion
3. Criteria of semantic derivation
4. Substantivization of Adjectives

Key words: Conversion, zero morpheme, sound interchange, paradigms, morphological way, semantic groups, semantic derivation, substantivization

Definition of conversion

Conversion is a very productive way of forming new words in Modern English, (*For example* work(n) —work(v), pen(n) —pen(v), walk(v) — walk(n)). The term «conversion» was first used by Sweet in his book «New English Grammar» in 1892.

There are a lot of approaches to the study of conversion. Some linguists think that conversion is the formation of words without affixes. Others say that conversion is the formation of new words with the help of a zero morpheme. Conversion is also defined as a shift from one part of speech to another 2 . These treatments of conversion cause some doubt.

The treatment of conversion as a non-affixal word - building does not help us to distinguish the cases of conversion and sound interchange. *For example*, sing —song and paper n — paper v.

If we accept the point of view of the linguists who treat conversion as «a shift from one part of speech to another we can't differ between parts of speech, i. e. between noun and verb, noun and adjective etc.

«Conversion has already been defined as a shift from one part of speech to another. But this functional change has also been observed in a shift from one kind of noun to another, or one kind of verbs to another, or one kind of adverb to another; and it seems logical to regard conversion as functional change not only between the parts of speech but also within each part of speech. It should be insisted also that conversion and derivational change are two distinct processes; derivational change by the use of prefixes and suffixes shift words between the parts of speech by producing different forms, as, for example, the adjective «wide», the noun «width», and the verb «widen». (A. G. Kennedy)

Prof. A. L. Smirnitsky 3 says that conversion is the formation of a new word by a change of paradigm. It is the paradigm that is used as a. wordbuilding means.

For example, in Uzbek: китоблар , китобнинг , китобни , китобга , китобдан , китобда, китоби, китобим, китобинг, -лар, -нинг,- ни, -га, -да, -дан, -и, -им, инг etc are the paradigms of the noun «Китоб». In English book, books; book's; s, X s' are the paradigms of the

noun «book»; book v — booked, (he) books booking, booked,-ed» ed (the ending of P II)-s,-ing, are the paradigms of the verb «to book». So conversion can be described as a morphological way of forming words.

There are two approaches to the study of conversion: synchronic and diachronic. On the diachronic level we study the origin of conversion, how the converted pairs appeared in the language. Conversion was born in XIII century as a result of the disappearance of inflexions in the course of the historical development of the English language in Middle English.

For example, lufu — luf — love n. lufian — luf — love v andswaru -j andswarian — answer n, andswarian — andswar — answer v. Some new words formed by conversion were created on the analogy of the semantic patterns existed in the language. **For example**, to motor — travel by car to phone — use the telephone to wire — send a telegram. On the synchronic level conversion is considered as a type of forming new words by means of paradigms. The two words differ only in their paradigms.

The most common types of conversion

The most common types of conversion are the creation of verbs from nouns and the formation of nouns from verbs:

1) verbs converted from nouns: ape — to ape, a face — to face, a butcher — to butcher, a dust — to dust, a doctor — to doctor etc.

2) nouns converted from verbs: to jump — a jump, to move — a move, to help — a help, to drive — a drive, to walk — a walk etc.

Conversion is the main way of forming verbs in Modern English. Verbs can be formed from nouns of different semantic groups and have different meanings because of that, **For example**, a) verbs have instrumental meaning if they are formed from nouns denoting parts of a human body **For example**, to eye, to tinge: to elbow, to shoulder etc. They have instrumental meaning if they are formed from nouns denoting tools, machines, instruments, weapons, **For example**, to hamme: to machine-gun, to rifle, to nail; b) verbs can denote an action characteristic of the living being denoted by the noun from which they have been converted, **example**, to crowd, to wolf, to ape; c) verbs can denote acquisition, addition or deprivation if they are formed from nouns denoting an object, **For exam to** fish to dust, to peel, to paper, d) verbs can denote an action performed at the place denoted by the noun from which they have been converted, **For example**, to park to garage, to bottle, to corner, to pocket, e) verbs can denote an action performed at the time denoted by the noun from which they have been converted **For example** to winter, to week-end .

Verbs can be also converted from adjectives, in such cases they denote the change of the state. **For example**, to tame (to become or make tame), to clean, to slim etc.

Nouns can also be formed by means of conversion from verbs. Converted nouns can denote:

- a) instant of an action **For example**, a jump, a move,
- b) process or state **For example**, sleep, walk,
- c) agent of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, **For example**, a help, a flirt, a scold ,
- d) object or result of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, **For example**, a burn, a find, a purchase,
- e) place of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, **For example**, a drive, a stop, a walk.

Many nouns converted from verbs can be used only in the singular form and denote momentaneous actions. In such cases we have partial conversion. Such deverbal nouns are often used with such verbs as : to have, to get, to take etc., **For example**, to have a try, to give a push, to take a swim .

Derivations from the stems of other parts of speech are less common. **For example** wrong (*adj*) — to wrong, up (*adj*) — to up, down (*adv*) — to down. Nouns may be also formed from verb + postpositive phrases. **For example**, to make up — a make+up. to call up — a call up, to take off — a take off etc.

New words formed from simple or root stems are more frequent than those formed from suffixed stems.

Criteria of semantic derivation

In converted pairs the derived word and the underlying word are connected with each other in their meaning. The derived verb shows the act performed by the thing denoted by the noun. **For example**. «to finger» means «to touch -with the finger», «to hand») means «to give the hand», «to help with the hand», «to train means «to go by train, «to bus») means «to go by bus)), «to week-end») means «to spend the week-end)). Derived nouns denote the act or the result of an action. **For example**. «a knock» means «the result of knocking», «a cut») means «the result of cutting», «a call») means «the result of calling», a find means «the result of finding», «a run») means «the result of running». Synchronically it is difficult to define which of the two words within a converted pair is the derived member. How should we say that one of the members of converted pairs is a derived word?

The problem of the criterion of semantic derivation was raised in linguistic literature not so long ago. Prof. Smirnitsky was the first to put forward the theory of semantic derivation in his book on English Lexicology. Later on P. A. Soboleva developed Smirnitsky's ideas and worked out three more criteria.

1) If the lexical meaning of the root morpheme coincides with the lexico-grammatical meaning of the stem we say that the noun has the simple stem. **For example** man (*n*) — man (*v*), father (*n*) — father (*v*), map (*n*) — map (*u*), paper(*a*) — paper (*v*). The noun is the name for a concrete thing here the verbs map, man, father, paper denote a process, therefore the lexico-grammatical meaning of their stems does not coincide with the lexical meaning of the roots which is of a substantival character.

2) According to analogous synonymic word pairs like converse — conversation, exhibit — exhibition, occupy — occupation we say in converted pairs work (*v*) — work (*n*), show (*v*), — show (*n*) chat (*fv*) — chat(*ft*) the verb has the simple stem.

3) if the noun has more derivatives than the verb, the verb is a derived word in converted pairs and vice versa.

For example, hand (*n*) — handed, handful, handy, handless etc. hand (*v*) — handable. Here the verb «handf» is formed from the noun «Hand», because the noun has more derivatives than the verb.

Substantivization of Adjectives

Some scientists refer substantivization of adjectives to conversion. But most scientists disagree with them because in cases of substantivization of adjectives we have quite different changes in the language. Substantivization is the result of ellipsis (syntactical shortening) when a word combination with a semantically strong attribute loses its semantically weak noun (man, person etc), **For example**. «a grown-up persons is shortened to «a grown-up». In cases of perfect substantivization the attribute takes the paradigm of a countable noun, **For example** a criminal, criminals, a criminal's (mistake), criminals' (mistakes). Such words are used in a sentence in the same function as nouns, **For example** I am fond of musicals, (musical comedies). There are also two types of partly substantivized adjectives: those which have only the plural form and have the meaning of collective nouns, such as: sweets, news, empties, finals, greens, those which have only the singular form and are used with the definite article. They also have the

meaning of collective nouns and denote a class, a nationality, a group of people, For example the rich, the English, the dead .

«A.O.Kennedy argues that it is necessary to recognize various stages of conversion: in «The poor are with us always the adjective is not completely converted into a noun, but in «He sold his goods» has disappeared so completely that the word can take the plural ending « —s» like any other noun. When a word has changed its function to such an extent that it is capable of taking on new inflectional endings then the process of conversion may be considered complete.

Moreover, conversion may be regarded as complete when a word has been substantivized to the point where it can be modified by adjectives, as in «the others, a lunatic, goodreading»; or verbalized to the point where it can be modified by adverbs as in telephone soon», «*motor often* The substantivization of adjectives has always been an important process in English and is active today.

Some of the earlier substantivizations have been so long established as nouns that

English-speakers no longer realize that they ever were adjectives; in many instances, however, the substantival use of the adjective is only temporary, and as soon as the need is past, the word reverts to its usual adjectival function ...» (A. Q. Kennedy).

The problem whether adjectives can be formed by means of conversion from nouns is the subject of many discussions. In Modern English there are a lot of word combinations of the type , **For example**, price rise, wage freeze, steel helmet, sand castle etc.

If the first component of such units is an adjective converted from a noun, combinations of this type are free word-groups typical of English (adjective + noun).

This point of view is proved by O. Jespersen by the following facts:

1. «Stone» in stone wall denotes some quality of the noun «wall»; 2. «Stone» stands before the word it modifies, as adjectives in the function of and attribute do in English; 3. «Stone» is used in the Singular though its meaning in most cases is plural, and adjectives in English have no plural form; 4. There are some cases when the first component is used in the Comparative or the Superlative degree, **For example**, the bottomest end of the scale; 5. The first component can have an adverb which characterizes it, and adjectives are characterized by adverbs, **For example**, a purely family gathering; 6. The first component can be used in the same syntactical function with a proper adjective to characterize the same noun. **For example**, lonely bare stone houses; 7. After the first component the pronoun «one» can be used instead of a noun, **For example**. I shall not put on a silk dress, I shall put on a cotton one.

However Henry Sweet and some other scientists say that these criteria are not characteristic of the majority of such units. They consider the first component of such units to be a noun in the function of an attribute because in Modern English almost all parts of speech and even word-groups and sentences can be used in the function of an attribute, **For example** then the president (an adverb), out-of-the-way vilages (a word-group), a devil-may-care speed (a sentence).

There are different semantic relations between the components of word combinations E.I. Chapnik classified them into the following groups:

1. time relations. **For example**, evening paper,
- 2- space relations, **For example**, top floor,
- 3- relations between the object and the material of which it is made, **For example**. steel helmet,
- 4 - cause relations, **For example**, war orphan,
5. relations between a part and the whole, **For example**, a crew member,
6. relations between the object and an action. **For example**, arms production,
7. relations between the agent and an action **For example**, government threat, price rise,
8. relations between the object and its designation, **For example**, reception hall,

9. the first component denotes the head, organizer of the characterized object, *For example*. Clinton government, Forsythe family,
10. the first component denotes the field of activity of the second component, *For example*, language teacher, psychiatry doctor,
11. comparative relations, *For example* moon face,
12. qualitative relations, *For example*, winter apples.

Study Questions

1. When was the term «conversion» first used?
2. What approaches to the study of conversion do you know?
3. Why do the treatments of conversion as a non-affixal word-building, a shift from one part of speech to another cause doubt to us?
4. What is A. I. Smirnitsky's point of view to conversion?
5. What problems of conversion do you study on the diachronic level?
6. What is the origin of conversion?
7. How is conversion treated on synchronic level?
8. What are the most common types of conversion do you know?
9. What are the less common types of conversion?
10. How is the derived word connected with the underlying word in their meaning in converted pairs?
11. How should we say that one of the members of converted pairs is a derived word?

LECTURE 12

THEME: SECONDARY WAYS OF WORDFORMATION

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF LECTURE SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабаларсони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машғулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	lecture (visual type)
<i>Машғулот режаси /ўқув машғулотининг тузилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 1. Shortened words abbreviations and clippings 2. Classification of abbreviations 3. Splinters and their properties 4. Sound interchange 5. Stress interchange 6. Sound imitation 7. Backformation 8. Blending
<i>Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:</i>	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme;	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> • Be able to understand classification of abbreviation . • Be able to understand splinters and their properties. • Be able to analyze sound and stress interchanges.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to discuss semantic triangle • to analyze nouns semantic triangle 	
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Lecture
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Lecture hall

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF LECTURE SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exerciese on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

Problems to be discussed:

1. Shortened words abbrivations and clippings
2. Classification of abbrivations
3. Splinters and their properties
4. Soundinterchange
5. Stress interchange
6. Sound imitation
7. Backformation
8. Blending

Key words: Graphical abbreviations, stylistic reference, syllables of a word, splinter, soundinterchange,

Shortened words abbrivations and clippings

The shortening of words means substituting a part for a whole, part of the word is taken away and used for the whole. *For example*, demo (demonstration), dub (double), vac (vacuum cleaner), doc (doctor), fig (figure), Mrs (missis). A shortened word is in some way different from its prototype in usage. The shortened word and its full form have the same lexical meaning but differ only in stylistic reference.

For example, exam (colloq) examination (neutral), chapman (neutral), chap (colloq).

Shortened words are structurally simple words "and in most cases have the same lexical meaning as the longer words from which they are derived. Shortening is not a derivational process because there are no structural patterns after which new shortened words could be built therefore we can't say that shortening is a derivational wordformation.

We must distinguish lexical abbreviations and clippings.

Abbreviations consist of the first letters of a word group or a compound word (U.K.CHH, USA, BBC, NATO) or the component of a two member word group H (hydrogin)—bomb, V. —Day — Victory Day) is shortened. The last one is not changed.

Clipping consists in the cutting off of one or several syllables of a word. In many cases the stressed syllables are preserved. **For example.** Sis. (sister), Jap (Japanese), doc (doctor), phone (telephone), lab (laboratory). Clipping is classified into the following types depending on which part of the word is clipped: 1) Words that have been shortened at the end: **For example,** ad (advertisement), lab (laboratory), Jap (Japanese), doc (doctor), sis (sister), vac (vacuum cleaner) ;2) Words that have been shortened at the beginning: ear, car (motor-car), phone (telephone), van (caravan), cast (broadcast); 3) Words in which syllables have been omitted from the middle the so called syncope, **For example,** maths (mathematics), specs (spectacles); 4) Words that have been shortened at the beginning and at the end: **For example,** flu (influenza), tec (detective), frig (refrigerator).

Clippings and abbreviations have some peculiarities as simple words. They take the plural endings and that of the possessive case. They take grammatical inflexions, **For example,** exams, docs, cars, doc's they are used with articles: the USA , a lab, a vac, a doc, etc.

They may take derivational affixes: M. P-ess hanky (from handkerchief), unkie (from uncle).Clippings do not always coincide in meaning with the original word. *For* : "doc" and "doctor" have the meaning one who practises medicine, but Tutor is also the highest degree given by a university to a scholar or scientist and a person who has received such a degree whereas doc is not used with these meanings.

Among abbreviations there are homonyms. One and the same sound and graphical complex may be different words. **For example,** vac-vacation; vac-vacuum cleaner; prep-preparation; prep-preparatory school. In abbreviations we stress each letter. **For example.** TUC ['ti:'ju:'si:]—Trade Union Congress. If they are pronounced in accordance with the rules of phonetics we stress the first syllable.

For example. NATO [t'neitou], UNO ['ju:nou] BBC — British Broadcasting Corporation, Cent—Centigrade. AP—Associated Press, GPO—General Post Office, USA—United States of America, UNESCO—United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization, USAF—United States Air Force, WFDY— World Federation of Democratic Youth, WFTU—World Federation of Trade Unions, SEATO—South-East Asia Treaty Organization, UK—United Kingdom, NAS—National Academy of Sciences, NY—New York, NZ—New Zealand, MD—Doctor of Medicine, FAP—First Aid Post.

sub (submarine), surg (surgeon), Sept (September), Serg (sergeant), esp (especially), capt (captain), lat (latitude), Wash (Washington), Wed (Wednesday), usu (usually), pref (preface), prof (professor), prox (proximo), mos (months), quot (quotation), revs (revolutions), Russ (Russian), sat (Saturday), vol (volume), rep (representative), suppl (supplement).

In the process of communication words and word-groups can be shortened. The causes of shortening can be linguistic and extra-linguistic. By extra-linguistic causes changes in the life of people are meant. In Modern English many new abbreviations, acronyms , initials, blends are formed because the tempo of life is increasing and it becomes necessary to give more and more information in the shortest possible time.

There are also linguistic causes of abbreviating words and word-groups, such as the demand of rhythm, which is satisfied in English by monosyllabic words. When borrowings from other languages are assimilated in English they are shortened. Here we have modification of

form on the basis of analogy, For example the Latin borrowing «*fanaticns*» is shortened to «*fan*» on the analogy with native words: man, pan, tan etc.

Classification of abbreviations

There are two main types of shortenings : graphical and lexical. Graphical abbreviations are the result of shortening of words and word-groups only in written speech while orally the corresponding full forms are used. They are used for the economy of space and effort in writing. The oldest group of graphical abbreviations in English is of Latin origin. In Russian and Uzbek this type of abbreviation is not typical. In these abbreviations in the spelling Latin words are shortened, while orally the corresponding English equivalents are pronounced in the full form, *For example.* (Latin *exempli gratia*), *a.m.* - in the morning (*ante meridiem*), *No* - number (*numero*), *p. a.* - a year (*per annum*), *d* - penny (*dinarius*). pound (*libra*), *i. e.* - that is (*id est*) etc.

Some graphical abbreviations of Latin origin have different English equivalents in different contexts, *For example*, *p.m.* can be pronounced «in the afternoon» (*post meridiem*) and «after death» (*post mortem*).

There are also graphical abbreviations of native origin, where in the spelling we have abbreviations of words and word-groups of the corresponding English equivalents in the full form. We have several semantic groups of them :

- a) days of the week, *For example.* *Mon* - Monday, *Tue* - Tuesday etc
- b) names of months. *For example.* *Apr* - April, *Aug* - August etc. *M*,
- c) names of counties in UK , *For example.* *Yorks* - Yorkshire , *Berks* -Berkshire etc
- d) names of states in USA , *For example* *Ala* - Alabama , *Alas* - Alaska etc.
- e) names of address. *For example*, *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, *Ms.*, *Dr.* etc. ,,
- f) military ranks, *For example*, *capt.* -captain, *col.* - colonel, *sgt* - sergeant etc.
- g) scientific degrees, *For example* *B.A.* - Bachelor of Arts, *D.M.* - Doctor of Medicine.

Sometimes in scientific degrees we have abbreviations of Latin origin, *For example.* *M.B.* - *Medicinae Baccalaurus*).

h) units of time, length, weight, *For example*, *f.* / *ft* -foot/feet, *sec.* - second, *in.* • inch, *mg.* -milligram etc. The reading of some graphical abbreviations depends on the context, *For example.* «*m*» can be read as: male, married, masculine, metre, mile, million, minute, «*l.p.*» can be read as long-playing, low pressure. Initialisms are the bordering case between graphical and lexical abbreviations. When they appear in the language, as a rule, to denote some new offices they are closer to graphical abbreviations because orally full forms are used, *For example.* *J.V.* joint-venture. When they are used for some duration of time they acquire the shortened form of pronouncing and become closer to lexical abbreviations, *For example.* *BBC* is as a rule pronounced in the shortened form.

In some cases the translation of initialisms is next to impossible without using special dictionaries. Initialisms are denoted in different ways. Very often they are expressed in the way they are pronounced in the language of their origin, *For example.* *ANZUS* (*Australia* , *New Zealand* , *United States*) *SALT* (*Strategic Arms Limitation Talks*). In Russian as (*договор об ограничении стратегических вооружений*).

There are three types of initialisms in English:

- a) initialisms with alphabetical reading, such as *UK* , *BUP*, *CND* etc
- b) initialisms which are read as if they are words, *For example.* *UNESCO*, *UNO*> *NATO* etc.

c) initialisms which coincide with English words in their sound form, such •initialisms are called acronyms. *For example.* *CLASS* (*Computer-based I aboratory for Automated School System*).

Some scientists unite groups b) and c) into one group which they call acronyms.

Some initialisms can form new words in which they act as root morphemes by different ways of wordbuilding:

a) affixation, *For example*. AWALism, ex-rafer, ex-ROW, to waafize, AIDSophobia etc.

b) conversion, *For example*, to raff, to fly IFR (Instrument Flight Rules),

c) composition, *For example*. STOLport, USAFman etc.

d) there are also compound-shortened words where the first component is an initial abbreviation with the alphabetical reading and the second one is a complete word, *For example*. A-bomb, U-pronunciation, V-day etc. In some cases the first component is a complete word and the second component is an initial abbreviation with the alphabetical pronunciation, *For example*. Three -Ds (Three dimensions)

Abbreviation of words consists in clipping a part of a word. As a result we get a new lexical unit where either the lexical meaning or the style is different from the full form of the word. In such cases as «*fantasy*» and «*fancy*», «*fence*» and «*defence*» we have different lexical meanings. In such cases as «*laboratory!*» and «*lab*», we have different styles.

Abbreviation does not change the part-of-speech meaning, as we have it in the case of conversion or affixation, it produces words belonging to the same part of speech as the primary word, *For example*, prof is a noun and professor is also a noun. Mostly nouns undergo abbreviation, but we can also meet abbreviation of verbs, such as to rev from to revolve, to tab from to tabulate etc. But mostly abbreviated forms of verbs are formed by means of conversion from abbreviated nouns, *For example*, to taxi, to vac etc. Adjectives can be abbreviated but they are mostly used in school slang and are combined with suffixation, *For example*. comfy, dilly, mizzy etc. As a rule pronouns, numerals, interjections, conjunctions are not abbreviated. The exceptions are: fif (fifteen), teen-ager, in one's teens (apheresis from numerals from 13 to 19).

Lexical abbreviations are classified according to the part of the word which is clipped. Mostly the end of the word is clipped, because the beginning of the word in most cases is the root and expresses the lexical meaning of the word. This type of abbreviation is called apocope.

Here we can mention a group of words ending in «o», such as disco (dicothèque), expo (exposition), intro (introduction) and many others. On the analogy with these words there developed in Modern English a number of words where «o» is added as a kind of a suffix to the shortened form of the word, *For example*. combo (combination) to, - Afro (African). In other cases the beginning of the word is clipped. In such cases we have apheresis, *For example*. chute (Parachute), varsity (university), copter (helicopter), thuse (enthuse) etc.

Sometimes the middle of the word is clipped, *For example*. mari (market), fanzine (fan magazine) maths (mathematics). Such abbreviations are called syncope. Sometimes we have a combination of apocope with apheresis, when the beginning and the end of the word are clipped, *For example*. tec (detective), van (vanguard) etc.

Sometimes shortening influences the spelling of the word, *For example*. «*cil*» can be substituted by «*k*» before «*e*» to preserve pronunciation, *For example*. mike (microphone), Coke (coca-cola) etc. The same rule is observed in the following cases: fax (facsimile), teck (technical college), trunk (tranquilizer) etc. The final consonants in the shortened forms are substituted by letters characteristic of native English words.

Splinters and their properties

In the second half of the twentieth century the English wordbuilding system was enriched by creating so called splinters which scientists include in the affixation stock of the Modern English wordbuilding system. Splinters are the result of clipping the end or the beginning of a word and producing a number of new words on the analogy with the primary word-group. *For example*, there are many words formed with the help of the splinter mini- (apocope produced by clipping the word «*miniature*»), such as «*miniplane*», «*minijet*», «*minicyde*») «*minicar*»,

«*miniradio*» and many others. All of these words denote objects of smaller than normal dimensions. On the analogy with «*mini-*» there appeared the splinter «*maxi-*» (apocopy produced by clipping the word «*maximum*»), such words as «*maxi-series*», «*maxi sculpture*», «*maxi-taxi*» and many others appeared in the language.

When European economic community was organized quite a number of neologisms with the splinter Euro- (apocopy produced by clipping the word «*European*») were coined, such as: «*Euratom*» «*Eurocard*», «*Euromarket*» «*Europlug*», «*Eurotunnel*» and many others. These splinters are treated sometime as prefixes in Modern English.

There are also splinters which are formed by means of apheresis, that is clipping the beginning of a word. The origin of such splinters can be variable, *For example*, the splinter «*burger*» appeared in English as the result of clipping the German borrowing «*Hamburger*» where the morphological structure was the stem «*Hamburg*» and the suffix *-er*. However in English the beginning of the word «*Hamburger*» was associated with the English word «*ham*», and the end of the word «*burger*» got the meaning «*a bun cut into two parts*». On the analogy with the word «*hamburger*» quite a number of new words were coined, such as «*baconburger*», «*beefburger*», «*cheeseburger*», «*fishburger*» etc.

The splinter «*cade*» developed by clipping the beginning of the word «*cavalcade*» which is of Latin origin. In Latin the verb with the meaning «*to ride on horses*» is «*cabalicare*» and by means of the inflexion *-ata* the corresponding Participle is formed.

So the element «*cade*» is a combination of the final letter of the stem and the *-n* flexion. The splinter «*cade*» serves to form nouns with the meaning «*connected with the procession of vehicles denoted by the first component*»), *For example*. («*aircade*» - «*a group of airplanes accompanying the plane of a VIP*», «*autocade*» - «*a group of automobiles escorting the automobile of a VIP*», «*musicade*» - «*an orchestra participating in a procession*»).

In the seventies of the twentieth century there was a political scandal in the hotel «*Watergate*» where the Democratic Party of the USA had its pre-election headquarters. Republicans managed to install bugs there and when they were discovered there was a scandal and the ruling American government had to resign. The name «*Watergate*» acquired the meaning «*a political scandal*», «*corruption*». On the analogy with this word quite a number of other words were formed by using the splinter «*gate*» (apheresis of the word «*Watergate*»), such as: «*Irangate*», «*Westlandgate*», «*shuttlegate*», «*milliongate*» etc. The splinter «*gate*» is added mainly to Proper names: names of people with whom the scandal is connected or a geographical name denoting the place where the scandal occurred. The splinter «*mobile*» was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «*automobile*» and is used to denote special types of automobiles, such as: «*artmobile*», «*bookmobile*», «*snowmobile*», «*tourmobile*» etc.

The splinter «*napper*» was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «*kidnapper*» and is used to denote different types of criminals, such as: «*busnapper*», «*babynapper*», «*dognapper*» etc. From such nouns the corresponding verbs are formed by means of backformation, *For example*. «*to busnap*», «*to babynap*», «*to dognap*».

The splinter «*omat*» was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «*automat*» (a cafe in which meals are provided in slot-machines). The meaning «*self-service*» is used in such words as «*laundromat*», «*cashomat*» etc.

Another splinter «*eten'a*» with the meaning «*self-service*» was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «*cafeteria*». By means of the splinter «*eteria*» the following words were formed: «*grocery*», «*booketeria*», «*booteteria*» and many others.

The splinter «*quake*» is used to form new words with the meaning of «*shaking*», «*agitation*». This splinter was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «*earthquake*». The following words were formed with the help of this splinter: «*Marsquake*», «*Moonquake*», «*youthquake*» etc.

The splinter «rama(ama)» is a clipping of the word Kpanrama?) of Greek origin where «pan» means «all» and «horama» means «view». In Modern English the meaning «v/ew» was lost and the splinter «rama» is used in advertisements to denote objects of supreme quality, *For example*. «*autorama*» means (exhibition- sale of expensive cars), «*trouserama* » means «sale of trousers of supreme quality») etc.

The splinter «scape» is a clipping of the word «landscape» and it is used to form words denoting different types of landscapes, such as: «moonscape», «streetscape», «townscape», «seascape» etc. Another case of splinters is «tel» which is the result of clipping the beginning of the word «hotely». It serves to form words denoting different types of hotels, such as: «motel» (motor-car hotel) «boatel» (boat hotel), «floatel» (a hotel on water, floating), «airtel» (airport hotel etc.

The splinter «theque» is the result of clipping the beginning of the word «apothec» of Greek origin which means in Greek «a store house». In Russian words: «КапюTeиca», «6H6jiHoxeKa» the element «Teиca» corresponding to the English «theque» preserves the meaning of storing something which is expressed by the first component of the word. In English the splinter «theque» is used to denote a place for dancing, such as: «discotheque», «jazzotheque»).

The splinter «thon» is the result of clipping the beginning of the word «marathon». «Marathon» primarily was the name of a battle-field in Greece, forty miles from Athens, where there was a battle between the Greek and the Persian. When the Greek won a victory a Greek runner was sent to Athens to tell people about the victory. Later on the word «Marathon» was used to denote long-distance competitions in running. The splinter «thon(athon)» denotes «something continuing for a long time», competition in endurance) *For example*, «dancathon», «telethon», «speakathon», «readathon», «walkathon», «moviethon», «swimathon», «talkathon», «swearthon» etc.

Splinters can be the result of clipping adjectives or substantivized adjectives. The splinter «aholic» (holic) was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «alcoholic» of Arabian origin where «al» denoted «the», «koh'l» - «powder for staining lids». The splinter «(a)holic» means «infatuated by the object expressed by the stem of the word», *For example*. «bookaholic», «computerholic», «coffeeholic», «cheesaholic», «workaholic» and many others.

The splinter «genic» formed by clipping the beginning of the word «photogenic» denotes the notion «suitable for something denoted by the stem», *For example*. «aerogenic», «cardiogenic», «mediagenic», «telegenic» etc.

As far as verbs are concerned it is not typical of them to be clipped that is why there is only one splinter to be used for forming new verbs in this way. It is the splinter «cast» formed by clipping the beginning of the verb «broadcast». This splinter was used to form the verbs «telecast» and «abroadcast».

Splinters can be called pseudomorphemes because they are neither roots nor affixes, they are more or less artificial. In English there are words which consist of two splinters. For example «telethon», therefore it is more logical to call words with splinters in their structure (*compound-shortened words consisting of two clippings of words*).

Splinters have only one function in English: they serve to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech, whereas prefixes and suffixes can also change (the part-of-speech meaning), *For example* the prefix «en-» and its allomorph «em-» can form verbs from noun and adjective stems («embody», «enable», «endanger») «be-» can form verbs from noun and adjective stems («becloud», «benumb») can form noun and adjective stems («becloud», «benumb»), «post-» and «pre-» can form adjectives from noun stems («pre-election campaign», «post-war events»)

The main function of suffixes is to form one part of speech from another part of speech, *For example*. «-er», «-ing», «-ment» form nouns from verbal stems («teacher», «dancing»,

«movement»), «-ness», «-ity» are used to form nouns from adjective stems («clannishness», «marginality»).

Soundinterchange

Sound interchange is an alternation in the phonetic composition of the root, *for example*, food (*n*) —feed (*v*), speak (*v*)— speech (*n*), strong (*adj*) —strength (*n*). Sound interchange may be considered as a way of forming words only diachronically because in Modern English we can't find a single word which can be formed by changing the root-vowel of a word or by shifting the place of the stress. Sound interchange is non-productive.

Soundinterchange may be divided into vowel interchange and consonant interchange. *For example* full—*to* fill, food—*to* feed, blood—*to* bleed, stronger— strength. Here we have vowel interchange and by means of vowel interchange we can distinguish different parts of speech. There are some examples of consonant interchange: advice—*to* advise, speak—speech, break—breach, defence—defend, offence— offend.

The scientist argue that sound interchange is the way of word-building when some sounds are changed to form a new word. It is non-productive in Modern English, it was productive in Old English and can be met in other Indo-European languages.

The causes of sound interchange can be different. It can be the result of Ancient Ablaut which cannot be explained by the phonetic laws during the period of the language development known to scientists., For example to strike - stroke, to sing - song etc. It can be also the result of Ancient Umlaut or vowel mutation which is the result of palatalizing the root vowel because of the front vowel in the syllable coming after the root (regressive assimilation), For example hot - to heat (hotian), blood - to bleed (blodian) etc. In many cases we have vowel and consonant interchange. In nouns we have voiceless consonants and in verbs we have corresponding voiced consonants because in Old English these consonants in nouns were at the end of the word and in verbs in the intervocal position, For example bath - to bathe, life - to live, breath - to breathe etc.

Stress interchange

Stress interchange can be mostly met in verbs and nouns of Romanic origin : nouns have the stress on the first syllable and verbs on the last syllable, *For example*. 'accent - to accent. This phenomenon is explained in the following way: trench verbs and nouns had different structure when they were borrowed into English, verbs had one syllable more than the corresponding nouns. When these borrowings were assimilated in English the stress in them was shifted to the previous syllable (the second from the end).

Later on the last unstressed syllable in verbs borrowed from French was dropped (the same as in native verbs) and after that the stress in verbs was on the last syllable while in nouns it was on the first syllable. As a result of it we have such pairs in English as : to con"flikt- "conflict, to ex'port -'export, to ex'traet - "extract etc. As a result of stress interchange we have also vowel interchange i n such words because vowels are pronounced differently in stressed and unstressed positions.

Sound imitation

It is the way of word-building when a word is formed by imitating different, sounds. There are some semantic groups of words formed by means of sound imitation

a) sounds produced by human beings, such as : to whisper, to giggle, to mumble, to sneeze, to whistle etc;

b) sounds produced by animals, birds, insects, such as : to hiss, to buzz, to bark, to moo, to twitter etc;

c) sounds produced by nature and objects, such as : to splash, to rustle, to clatter, to bubble, to ding-dong, to tinkle etc;

The corresponding nouns are formed by means of conversion, For example clang (of a bell), chatter (of children) etc;

Backformation

It is the way of word-building when a word is formed by dropping the final morpheme to form a new word. It is opposite to suffixation, that is why it is called backformation. At first it appeared in the language as a result of misunderstanding the structure of a borrowed word. Prof. Yartseva 1 explains this mistake by the influence of the whole system of the language on separate words. *For example*, it is typical of English to form nouns denoting the agent of the action by adding the suffix -er to a verb stem (speak-speaker). So when the French word «beggar» was borrowed into English the final syllable «ar» was pronounced in the same way as the English -er and Englishmen formed the verb «to beg» by dropping the end of the noun. Other examples of backformation are : to accreditate (from accreditation), to bach (from bachelor), to collocare (from collocation), to enthuse (from enthusiasm), to compute (from computer), to emote (from emotion) to reminisce (from reminiscence), to televise (from television) etc.

As we can notice in cases of backformation the part-of-speech meaning of the primary word is changed, verbs are formed from nouns. Thus, The term «back-Formation” has a diachronic relevance (historical meaning). *For example*. The nouns beggar, butler, cobbler, typewriter are very much like the nouns actor, painter, teacher, which have the suffixes -er, -or. On the analogy of the derivatives teacher, speaker, reader the words beggar, butler, cobbler, typewriter etc. synchronically are derived from to beg, to butle, to cob, to typewrite, because we do not feel any difference between the relationship «speak—speaker» and «beg— begga r» - But if we study their origin we see «butle» was derived from «butler».

So backformation «denotes the derivation of new words by subtracting a real or supposed affix from existing words through misinterpretation of their structure.

Backformation is in fact an example of analogy, the speaker knows pairs like rob /robber and drink/ drinker and when he hears the word «beggar» he makes it conform to the pattern by inventing a form «beg». Another well- known historical example of back-formation in English is the verb «to sidele», from the adverb«sideling».

Blending

Blending is the formation of a new word by a connection of parts of two words to form one word.

For example. The noun «smog» is composed of the parts of nouns «smoke» and «fog» (sm (oke+f) og. The result of blending is an unanalysable simple word. We do not analyse the blended words (sm+og) because their parts can't be called morphemes. *For example*. clash-clap/crash; flush-flash H-blush, language=slang+language, brunch- breakfast+lunch, smare-smoke+ha-ze, seadrome=-sea+airdrome). There are many blends in the terminological vocabulary. *For example*, racon-radar+beacon, transceiver-transmitter+receiver.

Blending can be considered ... as the method of merging (connecting) parts of words into one new word as when «sm+oke» and «fog» derived from «smog».

Thus, blending is compounding by means of curtailed (shortened) words. However, the clusters «sm» and «og» were morphemes only for the individual speaker who blended them while in terms of the linguistic system as recognized by the community, there are not signs at all. Blending, therefore, has no grammatical, but a stylistic status. The result of blending is ... an unanalysable, simple word, not a motivated syntagma. (H.Marchand)

Blends are also words formed from a word-group or two synonyms. In blends two ways of word-building are combined : abbreviation and composition. To form a blend we clip the end of the first component (apocope) and the beginning of the second component (apherisis). As a result we have a compound-shortened word. One of the first blends in English was the word «smog» from two synonyms : smoke and fog which means smoke mixed with fog. From the

first component the beginning is taken, from the second one the end, «o» is common for both of them.

Blends formed from two synonyms are: slangue, to hustle, gasohol etc. Mostly blends are formed from a word-group, such as : acromania (acronym mania), cinemadict (cinema adict), chunnel (channel, canal), dramedy (drama comedy), detectifiction (detective fiction), faction (fact fiction) (fiction based on real facts), informecial (information commercial), Medicare (medical care), magalog (magazine catalogue) slimnastics (slimming gymnastics), sociolite (social elite), slanguist (slang linguist) etc.

Study Questions

1. What do you understand by the term «shortening»?
2. Why can't we say that shortening is a derivational word-formation?
3. What distinction is made between abbreviations and clippings.
4. What is the classification of clippings?
5. What -is the peculiarity of shortened words?
6. . What is the difference between the clipping and the original word?
7. What is the homonymy of abbreviations?
8. What do you understand by the term sound-interchange?
9. What is the distinction between vowel-interchange and consonant—interchange?
10. What is understood by the term «backfor-mation?»
11. What is the peculiarity of blending as a means of word -formation?
12. What is a splinter?

LECTURE 13

THEME: PHRASEOLOGY

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF LECTURE SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабаларсони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машғулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	lecture (visual type)
<i>Машғулот режаси /ўқув машғулотининг тузилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 1. Definition of phraseological units, their stability and ideomaticity 2. Ways of forming phraseological units 3. Classification of phraseological units
<i>Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:</i>	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; • to discuss semantic triangle	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> • Be able to understand phraseological units . • Be able to understand ways of phraseological units. • Be able to analyze classification of phraseological units.

• to analyze nouns semantic triangle	
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Lecture
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Lecture hall

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF LECTURE SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exerciese on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

Problems to be discussed:

1. Definition of phraseological units, their stability and ideomaticity
2. Ways of forming phraseological units
3. Classiflcation of phraseological units

Key words: Phraseological unit, classification, ideomaticity of phraseological units, equivalents, proverbs, sayings, quotations, «give up» combination

Definition of phraseological units, their stability and ideomaticity

Functionally and semantically inseparable units are usually called phraseological units. Phraseological units cannot be freely made up in speech but arereproduced as ready made units. The lexical components in phraseological unjts are stable and they are non-motivated i. e. its meaning cannot be deduced from the meaning of its components and they do not allow their lexical components to be changed or substituted.

In phraseological units the individual components do not seem to possess any lexical meaning outside the word group.

For example, red tape (bureaucratic methods), to get rid of; to take place; to lead the dance; to take care.

Prof. A. I. Smirnitsky states that a phraseological unit may be defined as specific word groups functioning as a word-equivalent. The phraseological units are single semantically inseparable units. They are used in one function in the sentence and belong to one part of speech.

According to their semantic and grammatical inseparability we may classify the phraseological units into: noun equivalents (heavy father), verb equivalents (take place, break the news) adverb equivalents (in the long run, high and low).

«Being word equivalents phraseological units may be more or less complex **For example**. There, are phraseological units with one semantic centre, i. e with the domination of component over another. This semantically dominating element also determines the equivalence of the phraseological unit to a certain class of words. This type of phraseological units is termed «collocation» (*For example*: verb — adverb collocation: to look after; attributive collocation; **For example**, out of the way; prepositional noun collocation: e. g. in accordance with.

There are phraseological units with two centres. They differ from collocations by the absence of one central word which focuses the main semantic and grammatical properties of the whole. They are termed «set expressions» (verb + noun set expression), **For example**, to fall in love; adjective + noun set expressions black ball; phraseological repetitions spick and span. (*A.I. Smirnitsky*)

Prof. A. Koonin does not support Smirnitsky's point of view on the equivalence of phraseological units. A. Koonin points out that the components of phraseological units are mounted separately and therefore they can't be used in one function in the sentence. **For example**. He gets rid of it. The problem of equivalency of phraseological units to words demands further investigation.

V. Koonin thinks that phraseology must be an independent linguistic science and not a part of Lexicology. Phraseological units are based on the functions in speech. Stability of phraseological units is seen in its disallowance of the substitution of word groups. **For example**. “to shrug one's shoulders” does not allow to substitute either «shrug» or shoulder

Idiomacity of phraseological units is lack of motivation of word groups. If word group does not allow word by word translation it is called idiomatic word groups. **For example**, to kick the bucket -ўлмоқ (умереть) in the soup – қийин ахволда , (в затруднительном положении) under a cloud – кайфияти ёмон (в полхон настроении)

Among the phraseological units there are the so-called imperative phraseological units 1 . **For example**. God Bless his soul!, Curse her! Damn him!, Stay well!, Go well!, Heaven forbid!, Lord love us! etc.

These phraseological units mostly denote the emotional and expressive state of a person.

Proverbs, sayings and quotations exist also as ready made units with a specialized meaning of their own which can not be deduced from the meaning of their components. Therefore they may be included in phraseological units. **For example**. East or West home is best, a friend in need is a friend indeed. To be or lot to be.

The history of many phraseologisms is an interesting record of the nation's last, of its way of life, customs and traditions. Many phraseological units are connected with commerce, **For example**, to talk shop, to make the best of the bargain, to have all one's goods in the shop window, a drug on the market (наркотик). Many phraseological units are associated with the sea (the waves). **For example** , all at sea, to nail one's colours to the mast, to sail under false colours, many phraseological units were borrowed from the Bible, **For example**, the root of ill evil — корень зла , любовь к деньгам (яшаш манбаи). Daily bread — хлеб насущный , средство к существованию (жахолат илдизи).

There is a subject of discussion among the linguists 2 about the state of such combinations like «to give in», «to make up», «to take off», «to get up», «to give up», etc; what is the nature of the second element of such combinations? The second element of such units is not a word therefore they are not-phraseological units. Phraseological units, as we know, consist of words. The second element is not a morpheme because it is not a part of the word, they are not adverbs because adverbs have definite lexical meanings and are used in a certain function in the sentence. But these units (get up, give up etc)have idiomatical meanings thereof A. V. Koonin

calls such units «set phrases» which have no phraseological character. There are synonyms among phraseological units, *For example*, through thick and thin, by hook or by crook, for love or money - «хеч булмаганда» (во чтобы не стало); pull one's leg, to make a fool of smb — «ах мок килмок» (дурачить). Some of phraseological units are polysemantic as «at large» - «озодликда» (на свободе), 2) «очик х, авода» (на открытом воздухе), 3) «максадсиз» (без определенной цели), 4) «нишонга тушмаган» (не попавший в цель), 5) «эркин» (свободный), 6) «асо сан» (в целом), 7) «у муман» (вообще), 8) «батафсил» (подробно) etc.

It is the context that realizes the meaning of a phraseological unit in each case. The usage of phraseological units in speech is a subject of research work of many linguists.

There are a number of idiomatic or colloquial phrases in the English language: as «end and aim», «lord and masters, «without let or hindrances», «act and deeds», «pure and simple», «in deed and truths», «really and truly», «bright and shinings», «honest and true», «proud and haughty», «weak and feeble», «race and run», «grunt and groans», «clean and neat», «toil and delves». Such double phrases occur very frequently in the «Book of Common Prayer», where we find for instance, «sins and wickedness», «dissemble nor cloak», «assemble and meet together», «requisites and necessarys, «er-red and strayed», «declare and pronounce», «pardoneth and absolveth», «bless and sanctify», «offer and presents, «rule and governs, «knowledge and understanding», «religiously and devoutly», «food and sustenances, «search and examine your consciences», «prayers and supplications», to try and examine themselves, «confirm and strengthen»). (*James B. Greenough*)

Ways of forming phraseological units

A.V. Koonin classified phraseological units according to the way they are formed. He pointed out primary and secondary ways of forming phraseological units. Primary ways of forming phraseological units are those when a unit is formed on the basis of a free word-group:

a) Most productive in Modern English is the formation of phraseological units by means of transferring the meaning of terminological word-groups, *For example*, in cosmic technique we can point out the following phrases: «launching pad» in its terminological meaning is «у чиш майдони» (стартовая площадка), in its transferred meaning - «юбориш манзили» (отправной пункт), «to link up» - «алоқа ўрнатмоқ» (стыковать) in its transferred meaning it means «танишмоқ» (знакомиться);

b) a large group of phraseological units was formed from free word group by transforming their meaning, *For example*. «granny farm» - «қарилар пансионати» (пансионат для престарелых), «Trojan horse» - «компьютер учун дастур» (компьютерная программа, преднамеренно составленная для повреждения компьютера);

c) phraseological units can be formed by means of alliteration, *For example* - «a sad sack» - «бахтли воқеа» (счастливый случай «culture vulture» - «санъатга ишқибоз одам» (человек, интересующийся искусством);

d) they can be formed by means of expressiveness, especially it is characteristic for forming interjections, *For example*. «My aunt!», «Hear, hear!» etc;

e) they can be formed by means of distorting a word group, *For example*. «odds and ends» was formed from «odd ends»;

f) they can be formed by using archaisms, *For example*. «in brown study» means «in gloomy meditation») where both components preserve their archaic meanings;

g) they can be formed by using a sentence in a different sphere of life, *For example*. «that cock won't fight» can be used as a free word-group when it is used in sports (cock fighting), it becomes a phraseological unit when it is used in everyday life, because it is used metaphorically,

h) they can be formed when we use some unreal image, *For example*. «to have butterflies in the stomach» - «хавотир олмақ» (испытывать волнение), «to have

green fingers» -« боғбонлик кўлидан келмоқ » (пре успеть как садовод - любитель) etc. ,
i) they can be formed by using expressions of writers or politicians in
'everyday life, **For example.** «corridors of power» (Snow), «American dream»
, Uby) «locust years» (Churchil), «the winds of change» (M. Millan).

Secondary ways of forming phraseological units are those when a phraseological unit is formed on the basis of another phraseological unit; they are:

a) conversion, **For example.** «to vote with one's feet» was converted into “ vote with one's feet»;

grammar form, **For example.** «Make hay while the sun shines» is transferred into a verbal phrase -«to make hay while the sun shines»;

c) analogy, **For example.** «Curiosity killed the cat» was transferred into “Care killed the cat»;

d) contrast, **For example.** «cold surgery»- «a planned before operation») was formed by contrasting it with «acute surgery», «thin cat» - «a poor person» was formed by contrasting it with «fat cat»>;

e) shortening of proverbs or sayings **For example,** from the proverb «You -an't make a silk purse out of a sow's ear» by means of clipping the middle of it the phraseological unit «to make a sow's ear» was formed with the meaning «xaxo' (omn6axbca).

f) borrowing phraseological units from other languages, either as translation, s, **For example.** « living space» (German), « to take the bull by the horns» Latin) or by means of phonetic borrowings «meche blanche» (French), «corpse l'elite» (French), «sotto voice» (Italian) etc.

Classification of phraseological units

Phraseological units can be classified according to the degree of motivation; 0 of their meaning. This classification was suggested by acad. V.V. Vinogradov Russian phraseological units. He pointed out three types of phraseological units:

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

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

c) collocations where words are combined in their original meaning but their combinations are different in different languages, **For example,** cash and carry - (self-service shop), in a big way (in great degree) etc. Phraseological collocations include motivated relatively stable word groups. They have a certain degree of stability; **For example,** to take an interest, to fall in love, to look through one's fingers, meet the demand etc.

Thus, at present the term «phraseological unit» is usually used not to all set expressions but only to those which are completely or partially non-motivated.

Prof N. Amasova gives two categories of phraseological units depending on whether just one component or both are used in phraseologically bound meaning. If all the components have

idiomatic meaning such phraseological units are called «idioms», *For example*, to toe the line (to do exactly as one is told), a free lance (a person who acts independently). If one of the components has bound specialized meaning dependent on the second component she called «phrasemes». *For example*, dutch courage (courage given by drink), to bring to book (to bring to justice), small years (in the childhood), small beers (weak beer).

Prof. A.I. Smirnitsky 1 worked out structural classification of phraseological units, comparing them with words. He points out one-top units which he compares with derived words because derived words have only one root morpheme. He points out two-top units which he compares with compound words because in compound words we usually have two root morphemes.

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

a) units of the type «to give up» (verb + postposition type). *For example*, to rt up, to back up, to drop out, to nose out, to buy into, to sandwich in etc.;

b) units of the type «to be tired» . Some of these units remind the Passive Voice in their structure but they have different prepositions with them, while in the Passive Voice we can have only prepositions «by» or «with», *For example*, to be ed of, to be interested in, to be surprised at etc. There are also units in this type which remind free word-groups of the type «to be young». *For example*, to be a kin to, to be aware of etc.

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

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

Among two-top units A.I. Smirnitsky points out the following structural types:

a) attributive-nominal such as: a month of Sundays, grey matter, a millstone round one's neck and many others. Units of this type are noun equivalents and can be partly or perfectly idiomatic. In partly idiomatic units (phrasisms) sometimes the first component is idiomatic, *For example*, high road, in other cases the second component is idiomatic, *For example*, first night. In many cases both components are idiomatic, *For example*, red tape, blind alley, bed of nail, shot in the arm and many others.

b) verb-nominal phraseological units, *For example*, to read between the lines , to speak BBC, to sweep under the carpet etc. The grammar centre of such units is the verb, the semantic centre in many cases is the nominal component, *For example*, to fall in love. In some units the verb is both the grammar and the semantic centre. *For example*, not to know the ropes. These units can be perfectly idiomatic as well, *For example*, to burn one's boats, to vote with one's feet, to take to the cleaners' etc.

Very close to such units are word-groups of the type to have a glance, to have a smoke. These units are not idiomatic and are treated in grammar as a special syntactical combination, a kind of aspect.

c) phraseological repetitions, such as : now or never, part and parcel, country and western etc. Such units can be built on antonyms, *For example* ups and downs, back and forth; often they are formed by means of alliteration, e.g cakes and ale, as busy as a bee. Components in repetitions are joined by means of conjunctions. These units are equivalents of adverbs or adjectives and have no grammar centre. They can also be partly or perfectly idiomatic, *For example* cool as a cucumber (partly), bread and butter (perfectly).

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

Phraseological units can be classified as parts of speech. This classification was suggested by I.V. Arnold. Here we have the following groups:

a) noun phraseologisms denoting an object, a person, a living being, *For example* bullet train, latchkey child, redbrick university, Green Berets,

b) verb phraseologisms denoting an action, a state, a feeling. *For example* to break the log-jam, to get on somebody's coattails, to be on the beam, to nose out, to make headlines,

c) adjective phraseologisms denoting a quality. *For example* loose as a goose, dull as lead

d) adverb phraseological units, such as : with a bump, in the soup, like a dream, like a dog with two tails,

e) preposition phraseological units, *For example* in the course of, on the stroke of,

f) interjection phraseological units, *For example* «Catch me!», «Well, I never!» etc.

In I.V. Arnold's classification there are also sentence equivalents, proverbs, sayings and quotations, For example «The sky is the limit», «What makes him tick», » I am easy». Proverbs are usually metaphorical, *For example* «Too many cooks spoil the broth», while sayings are as a rule non-metaphorical, For example «Where there is a will there is a way».

Thus, the vocabulary of a language is enriched not only by words but also by phraseological units. Phraseological units are word-groups that cannot be made in the process of speech, they exist in the language as ready-made units. They are compiled in special dictionaries. The same as words phraseological units express a single notion and are used in a sentence as one part of it. American and British lexicographers call such units «idioms». We can mention such dictionaries as: L. Smith «Words and Idioms», V. Collins «A Book of English Idioms» etc. In these dictionaries we can find words, peculiar in their semantics (idiomatic), side by side with word-groups and sentences. In these dictionaries they are arranged, as a rule, into different semantic groups.

Phraseological units can be classified according to the ways they are formed' according to the degree of the motivation of their meaning, according to their structure and according to their part-of-speech meaning.

Phraseological units are not translated into Uzbek word for word. The correspondent or equivalents of the English phraseological Units in Uzbek may be different.

1. It gave me chance to sleep. I didn't sleep last night — Хечкиси йўқ , қайтанга ухлаб олдим , кеча мижжа қоқмаган эдим . 2. «Tonight you will tell me everything, said Rinaldi— Кечкурун менга оқизмай - томизмай хикоя қилиб берасиз - деди Ренальди . . 3. When we swaggered by twirling his new mustache, everybody stopped to look and admire — У энди сабза ура бошлаган муйловини буриб , савлат тукиб юрган чоғида ҳамма одамлар унга қарашар эди . 4. I sacrificed everything for something that never came — Руёбга чиқмаган анна шу нарсани деб бутун умримни хазон қилдим . 5. It was still raining hard – Ёмгир ҳамон челақлаб қуяр эди . 6. All right, I wash my hands of the matter. But I warn you all that a time's coming when you're going to feel sick whenever you think of this day – Яхши бўлмаса ! Агар шундай бўладиган бўлса , мен қўлимни ювиб қўлтиғимга ураман . Аммо сизларга айтадиган бир гапим бор : бир кун келади бу қилмишингиздан пушаймон бўласиз ва қилган ишингизни эслашнинг ўзидаёқ хушингиз кетиб қолади . 7. Do you know how she seems to me? — She seems fresh, like a flower — Фуогни қандай тасаввур қилишимни биласизми ?- Гулдек тоза . 8. It was as plain as day — Бир пасда хаммаси кундай равшан бўлди - қолди .

Study Questions

1. What is a phraseological unit?
2. What are the most peculiarities of phraseological units?
3. What is academician V. V. Vinogradov's classification of phraseological units based on? 4. How does prof. N. N. Amasova classify phraseological units?
5. What is the stability of phraseological units?
6. What is the ideomaticity of phraseological units?
7. Why does prof. A.I. Smirnitsky say that phraseological units are the word equivalents?
8. Why do we include proverbs, sayings quotations in phraseological units?
9. What is the history of phraseological units?
- 10, What kind of discussion of the so-called word groups as «give up» was among the linguists?
11. What is the synonymy of phraseological units?
12. What is the polysemy of phraseological units?

LECTURE 14

THEME: ETYMOLOGY

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF LECTURE SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабаларсони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машғулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	lecture (visual type)
<i>Машғулот режаси /ўқув машғулотининг тузилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 1. Origin of words in English 2. The penetration of borrowed words in English 3. The classification of borrowed words 4. Assimilation of borrowed words in English 5. Classification of borrowings according to the language from which they were borrowed 6. Etymological doublets 7. The result of borrowings
<i>Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:</i>	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; • to discuss semantic triangle • to analyze nouns semantic triangle	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> • Be able to understand the origin of words . • Be able to understand classification of borrowings. • Be able to analyze etymological doublets.
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Lecture
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Lecture hall

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF LECTURE SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exerciese on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

Problems to be discussed:

1. Origin of words in English
2. The penetration of borrowed words in English
3. The classification of borrowed words
4. Assimilation of borrowed words in English
5. Classification of borrowings according to the language from which they were borrowed
6. Etymological doublets
7. The result of borrowings

Origin of words in English

Etymologically the vocabulary of the English language consists of two groups — the native words and the borrowed words.

The etymological linguistic analysis showed that the borrowed stock of words is larger than the native stock of words. In fact native words comprise only 30% of the total number of words in the English vocabulary. A native word is a word which belongs to the original English stock, which belongs to Anglo-Saxon origin. To the native words we include \words from Common Germanic language and from Indo-European stock.

Borrowed words are words taken over from other languages. Many linguists consider foreign influence plays the most important role in the history of the English language. But the grammar and phonetic system are very stable (unchangeable) and are not often influenced by other languages. Besides when we speak about the role of native and borrowed words in the English language we must not take into consideration only the number of them but their semantic, stylistic character, their wordbuilding ability, frequency value, collocability (valency) and the productivity of their word-building patterns. If we approach to the study of the role of native and borrowed words from this point of view we see, though the native words are not numerous they play an important role in the English language. They have high frequency value, great word-forming power, wide collocability, many meanings and they are stylistically neutral. Almost all words of native origin belong to very important semantic groups.

" They include most of the auxiliary and model verbs: *shall, will, should must, can, may*; pronouns: */. he, my, your, his, who, whose*; prepositions: *in, out on, under, for, of*; numerals: *one,*

two, three, four, five, six, etc; conjunctions; and, but, till, as, etc.; words denoting parts of body: *head, hand, arm, back, foot, eye* etc; members of a family: *father, mother, brother, son, wife*; natural phenomena and planets: *snow, rain, wind, sun, moon*, animals: *horse, cow, sheep, cat*; common actions: *do, make, go, come, hear, see, eat, speak, talk* etc. All these words are very frequent words, we use them every day in our speech. Many words of native origin possess large clusters of derived and compound words in the present-day language. *For example*, help — helper, helpful, helpfully, helpfulness, helping A helpingly. helpable, helpably, helped, unhelpable etc.

Such affixes of native origin as *er, -ness, -ish, -ed, -un, -rhis, -dom, -hood, -ly, -over, -out, -under* —are of native origin. We see that the role of native words in the language is great. Many authors use native words more than foreign ones. Thus Shakespear used 90% native words and 10% foreign words. Swift used 75% native words.

Borrowed words have been called «the milestones of philology» — said O. Jespersen — because they permit us (show us) to fix approximatively the dates of linguistic changes. They show us the course of civilization and give us information of the nations*.

Borrowed words from other languages is characteristic of English throughout its history More than two thirds of the English vocabulary are borrowings. Mostly they are words of Romanic origin (Latin, French, Italian, Spanish). Borrowed words are different from native ones by their phonetic structure, by their morphological structure and also by their grammatical forms. It is also characteristic of borrowings to be non-motivated semantically.

English history is very rich in different types of contacts with other countries, that is why it is very rich in borrowings. The Roman invasion, the adoption of Cristianity, Scandinavian and Norman conquests of the British Isles , the development of British colonialism and trade and cultural relations served to increase immensely the English vocabulary. The majority of these borrowings can be hardly distinguished from native words.

English continues to take in foreign words , but now the quantity of borrowings is not so abundunt as it was before. All the more so, English now has become a «giving» language, it has become Lingva franca of the twentieth century. When in two languages we find no trace of the exchange of loanwords one way or the other, we are safe to infer that the two nations have had nothing to do with each other, but if they have been in contact, the number of the loan-words and still more the quality of the loanwords, if rightly interpreted, will inform us of their reciprocal relations, they will show us which of them has been the more fertile in ideas and on what domains of human activity each has bean superior of the other. If all other sources of information were closed to us except such loanwords in our modern North-European languages as «piano», «soprano», «opera», «libretto», «tempo», «adagio» etc, we should still have no hesitation in drawing the conclusion that Italian music has played a great role all over Europe . (*O. Jespersen*).

The well-known linguist Shuchard said «No language is entirely pure», that «l the languages are mixed. Borrowed words enter the language as a result of influence of two main causes or factors; linguistic and extra-linguistic. Economic, cultural, industrial, political relations of speakers of the language with other countries refer to extra-linguistic factors. The historical development of England also influenced the language.

The penetration of borrowed words in English

« ... in 1066 came the Norman conquest, an event which had more influeric on the English language than any other from outside. There is an importam difference between the influence now to be examined and the earlier foreign influences. The native language was not completely driven out, leaving lity e impression on the language of the conquerors, as had happened when the Angles and Saxons conquered the Britons, nor modified by a related language, as in the case of the Scandinavian invasion, but instead a second language was established in the country in use side by side with the native language.

The comparison may be carried further; Scandinavian first came into and influenced chiefly the north and north-east, whereas French was most influential in the south and south-east, a fact which became of increasing importance as a standard English language gradually developed in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Scandinavian modified the existing language through related words and construction, but French introduced entirely new words. Scandinavian made its way into the everyday speech of the people, whereas, although many French words eventually became part of our everyday speech and can hardly be recognized today as foreign loan-words, the French element was in the main composed of words reflecting a high state of culture and influenced at first chiefly the language of the upper classes. (*J. A. Sheard.*)

«... The influence which French exerted on the language is seen in all aspects of life, social, political, and religious, and hardly any walk of life was unaffected by it. Had the Conquest not taken place it may be that English would have developed along entirely different lines, keeping in the main its Germanic characteristics particularly as regards vocabulary, much as the German and Scandinavian languages have done, and therefore lacking the tremendous number of Roman words which are now an accepted part of our language. It may be interesting to consider the general implication of such a large adoption of French loan words into English.

The first point to be emphasized is that here we are not dealing with completely new ideas introduced from a different type of civilization and culture, but rather the imposing by a dominant race of their own terms for ideas which were already familiar to the subject race. Such a state of affairs obviously means that there will arise pairs of words, the native and the foreign term, for the same idea and a struggle for survival between the two, so that one of the words was eventually lost from the language, or survived only with some differentiation of meaning.

Let us first take examples of native words replaced by French words; it is possible to compile a very long list, so here we must confine ourselves to a few, merely by way of illustration «cynecic» was replaced by «royal», «cynestol» by «throne», «cynhelm» by «crown», «dema» was replaced by «judge», «firen» by «crime» «rihtoew» by «justice», «sach» by «such». Much of the loss of Old English vocabulary can be accounted for by the influx of French words for the same or a similar idea in the Middle English period. (*J. A. Sheard.*)

Thus, due to the great influence of the Roman civilization Latin was for a long time used in England as the language of learning and religion. Old Norse of the Scandinavian tribes was the language of the conquerors (9 — 10—11 centuries). French (Norman dialect) was the language of the other conquerors who brought with them a lot of new notions of a higher social system, developed feudalism. It was the language of upper classes, of official documents and schools (11-14 cent).

These factors are extra-linguistic ones.

The absence of equivalent words in the language to express new subjects or a phenomena makes people to borrow words. For example the words football, volleyball, michman in Russian; to economize the linguistic means, i. e. to use a foreign word instead of a long native expressions and others are called linguistic causes.

The closer the two interacting languages are in structure the easier it is for words of one language to penetrate into the other. The fact that Scandinavian borrowings have penetrated into such grammatical classes as prepositions and pronouns (they, them, their, both, same, till) can only be attributed to a similarity in the structure of the two languages.

Borrowings enter the language in two ways: through oral speech (by immediate contact between the people) and through written speech (by indirect contact through books). Words borrowed orally (inch, mill, street, map) are usually short and they undergo more changes in the act of adoption. Written borrowings (communique, belles — lettres, naive, psychology, pagoda etc) are often rather long and they are unknown to many people, speaking English.

The classification of borrowed words

Some scientists classify borrowings into: phonetic borrowings, translation loans, semantic borrowings, morphemic borrowings.

Phonetic borrowings are most characteristic in all languages, they are called loan words proper. Words are borrowed with their spelling, pronunciation and meaning. Then they undergo assimilation, each sound in the borrowed word is substituted by the corresponding sound of the borrowing language. In some cases the spelling is changed. The structure of the word can also be changed. The position of the stress is very often influenced by the phonetic system of the borrowing language. The paradigm of the word, and sometimes the meaning of the borrowed word are also changed. Such words as: labour, travel, table, chair, people are phonetic borrowings from French; apparatchik, nomenklatura, sputnik are phonetic borrowings from Russian; bank, soprano, duet are phonetic borrowings from Italian etc.

Translation loans are word-for-word (or morpheme-for-morpheme) translations of some foreign words or expressions. In such cases the notion is borrowed from a foreign language but it is expressed by native lexical units, «to take the bull by the horns» (Latin), «living space» (German) etc. Some translation loans appeared in English from Latin already in the Old English period, For *example*. Sunday (solis dies). There are translation loans from the languages of Indians, such as: «pipe of peace», «pale-faced», from German «masterpiece», «homesickness», «superman».

Semantic borrowings are such units when a new meaning of the unit existing in the language is borrowed. It can happen when we have two relative languages which have common words with different meanings, *For example*, there are semantic borrowings between Scandinavian and English, such as the meaning «to live» for the word «to dwell» which in Old English had the meaning «to wander».

Morphemic borrowings are borrowings of affixes which occur in the language when many words with identical affixes are borrowed from one language into another, so that the morphemic structure of borrowed words becomes familiar to the people speaking the borrowing language, For example we can find a lot of Romanic affixes in the English word-building system, that is why there are a lot of words - hybrids in English where different morphemes have different origin, *For example*. «goddess», «beautiful» etc.

Non-assimilated borrowings (barbarisms) are borrowings which are used by Englishmen rather seldom and are non-assimilated, *For example*, addio (Italian), tete-a-tete (French), dolce vita (Italian), duende (Spanish), an homme a femme (French), gonzo (Italian) etc.

There are different kinds of borrowed words.

According to the nature of the borrowing borrowed words may be: 1) borrowings proper; 1) translation loans; 3) semantic loans.

Borrowings proper are words which are taken from another language with their sound, graphic forms and their meaning.

For example, street, wine (from Latin), anger, scare (from Scandinavian), garage (from-French),

Translation loans are words or expressions formed from the elements existing in the English language according to the patterns of the source language- *far example*, collective-farm, five-year- plan, house of rest, peaceful coexistence.

A semantic loan is the borrowing of a meaning for a word already existing in the English language. *For example*, the compound word «shock brigades which existed in the English language with the meaning " а варийная бригада " received a new meaning «у дарная бригада » under the influence of the Russian language (compare Russian «уflapнаа брпнаа»). The English word «pioneer» meant «explorer» and «one who is among the first in new field of activity». A word borrowed from another language never brings into the adopting language the whole of its semantic structure (meaning). It is borrowed in one of its meanings. *For example*,

the Russian word «sputnik» was borrowed by the English language only in the meaning of artificial satellite.

«Whenever the need filling motive plays a part, the borrower is being confronted with some new object or practice for which he needs words. Under these conditions . . . three rather distinct things may happen, giving rise respectively to «loanwords», «loanshifts» and «loanblends».

«Loanwords». The borrower may adopt the donor's word along with the object or practice; the new form in the borrower's speech is then a loanword ... When confronted with a new object or practice for which words are needed, the borrower may somehow adapt material in his own language. A new idiom arises and since it arises under the impact of another linguistic system, it is a «loanshift» . . . Loanshifts involve lexical and semantic change and in some cases may lead to minor grammatical change.

Loanblends. A loanblend is a new idiom developed in the borrowing situation in which both the loanword and the loanshift mechanisms are involved: the borrower imports part of the model and replaces part of it by something already in his own language, (Ch. F. Hockett)

«The type of word borrowed by personal contact would undoubtedly at first be names of objects unfamiliar to the borrowers, or products and commodities exchanged by way of trade. If the contacts were maintained over a long period then ideas concerned with government, law, religion and customs might be absorbed and perhaps the names of these would be adopted. Only in the case of nations in relatively advanced, stages of civilization would there be much influence exerted through the written word; concrete objects would come first, then abstract ideas learnt from what might actually be seen from their effects in everyday life and abstract ideas through the indirect contact achieved by books would come much later. (/ A. Sheard).

Assimilation of borrowed words in English

When a word comes into another language it adapts the phonetic, grammatical, lexical system of that language. This process is considered as the assimilation of a borrowed word. The assimilation of borrowed words may be: 1) grammatical, 2) phonetic; 3) lexical. In phonetic assimilation we speak about the changes of a word in its sounds and stress. **For example.** Modern English «change» came from French «changer» [faunʒar]. We can see the following changes of it in the English language. [ʃ] is changed into [tʃ]; [au] into [ei]; [ʒ] into [dʒ] The stress in French words falls on the final syllable where as in English on the initial. , **For example.** F': hist'oir.-E. 'history.

If a borrowed word loses its former grammatical categories and inflexions and gets new grammatical categories and paradigms by analogy with other English words we say the word is undergone grammatical assimilation. **For example,** sputnik, sputnik's, sputniks, sputnik. Sometimes the foreign inflexions are fallen off. **For example.** Lat. consultare (V) Eng.consult.

The borrowed word very often undergoes simplification. **For example.** F salade. Eng. salad.

In French «-ade» was a suffix but in English-ad is not a suffix. If many words with the same suffix or prefix are borrowed the speaker of the language thinks that they are word—building elements. A borrowed suffix is joined to a native word. This brings about the creation of hybrid words like «shortage», lovable, understandable. When a word is taken over into another language its semantic structure as a rule undergoes great changes. Polysemantic words are usually adopted only in one or two meanings. **For example.** Lat. «bilingual» had 4 meanings, but in-English it has one meaning. Besides a word will develop new meanings. **For example.** F. «mouvet» has many meanings in English. Such meanings as «внести предложения,вращаться в определенном кругу,двигаться »» are not found in French .

According to the degree of assimilation the borrowings are divided into:

1) fully assimilated borrowings. They are such borrowings which are not differed (distinguished) as borrowings. English people will surprise if they hear that the words table, chair, people take, get are borrowed words.

2) partially assimilated borrowings: they have undergone very small changes, **For example**, garage, which, still has three pronunciations [ga:rasd3],[ga:ra3],[g' A ra:3].

3) unassimilated borrowings or barbarisms. These words are used by the English people, when they speak about the customs and the life of other nations. **For example**, rickshaw (Chinese), sherbet (Arabian), caique (Turkish), khan (Arab), khakan (Turkish) etc.

The degree of assimilation of borrowings depends on the following factors: a) from what group of languages the word was borrowed, if the word belongs to the same group of languages to which the borrowing language belongs it is assimilated easier, b) in what way the word is borrowed: orally or in the written form, words borrowed orally are assimilated quicker, c) how often the borrowing is used in the language, the greater the frequency of its usage, the quicker it is assimilated, d) how long the word lives in the language, the longer it lives, the more assimilated it is.

Completely or fully assimilated borrowings are not felt as foreign words in the language, cf the French word «*sport*» and the native word «*start*». Completely assimilated verbs belong to regular verbs, **For example**, correct -corrected. Completely assimilated nouns form their plural by means of s-inflexion, **For example** gate- gates. In completely assimilated French words the stress has been shifted from the last syllable to the last but one.

Semantic assimilation of borrowed words depends on the words existing in the borrowing language, as a rule, a borrowed word does not bring all its meanings into the borrowing language, if it is polysemantic, **For example**, the Russian borrowing «*sputnik*» is used in English only in one of its meanings.

Partially assimilated borrowings are subdivided into the following groups: a) borrowings non-assimilated semantically, because they denote objects and notions peculiar to the country from the language of which they were borrowed, **For example**, sari, sombrero, taiga, kvass etc. b) borrowings non-assimilated grammatically, **For example**, nouns borrowed from Latin and Greek retain their plural forms (bacillus - bacilli, phenomenon - phenomena, datum -data, genius - genii etc. c) borrowings non-assimilated phonetically. Here belong words with the initial sounds *hi* and *it*], **For example**, voice, zero. In native words these voiced consonants are used only in the intervocal position as allophones of sounds *If* and */s/* (loss - lose, life - live). Some Scandinavian borrowings have consonants and combinations of consonants which were not palatalized, **For example**, */sk/* in the words: sky, skate, ski etc (in native words we have the palatalized sounds denoted by the digraph «*sh*», **For example**, shirt); sounds *fk/* and */g/* before front vowels are not palatalized **For example**, girl, get, give, kid, kill, kettle. In native words we have palatalization , **For example**. German, child.

Some French borrowings have retained their stress on the last syllable, **For example**, police, cartoon. Some French borrowings retain special combinations of sounds, **For example**. */a:3/* in the words : camouflage, bourgeois, some of them retain the combination of sounds */wa:/* in the words: memoir, boulevard, d) borrowings can be partly assimilated graphically, **For example**, in Greek borrowings «*y*» can be spelled in the middle of the word (symbol, synonym), «*ph*» denotes the sound [f] (phoneme, morpheme), «*ch*» denotes the sound [tj] (chemistry, chaos),«*ps*» denotes the sound */s/* (psychology).

Classification of borrowings according to the language from which they were borrowed

There is some difference between the terms «source of borrowings» and «origin of borrowed words ».

The term «source of borrowings» should be used to the language from which this or that word was taken in English. The term «origin of the borrowed words» is used to the language the word may be traced to i. e. to the language where the word was born.

For example. The word «table» was borrowed from the French language. So the French language is the source of borrowing but its origin is Latin (L. tabula). The word «school» by origin is a Greek word (scholē) but its source is Latin. paper < F. papier < L. papyrus < Gr. papyros. The source of borrowing is of greater importance for us because it has the imprint of the sound and graphic form. The morphological and semantic characteristic of the language they were borrowed from.

Borrowings may be classified according to the sources i.e. the language from which the words were borrowed.

1. Celtic borrowings: bard, brat, slagan, whisky, machintosh.
2. Latin borrowings: street, wine, angel, monk, plant, exact, congratulate, chalk produce.
3. Scandinavian borrowings: anger, scare, take, get, skirt, skill, drop, true- pronouns: they, their, them.
4. French borrowings: judge, army, royal, machine, police, air, place, brave accept, sport.
5. Russian borrowings: soviet, sputnik, kolkhos, cosmos, cosmonaut etc.
6. Italian borrowings: confetti, macaroni, opera, sonata, soprano,
7. Spanish borrowings: tomato, potato, tobacco, and others.

Among words of Romanic origin borrowed from Latin during the period when the British Isles were a part of the Roman Empire, there are such words as: street, port, wall etc. Many Latin and Greek words came into English during the adoption of Christianity in the 6-th century. At this time the Latin alphabet was borrowed which ousted the Runic alphabet. These borrowings are usually called classical borrowings. Here belong Latin words: alter, cross, dean, and Greek words: church, angel, devil, anthem.

Latin and Greek borrowings appeared in English during the Middle English period due to the Great Revival of Learning. These are mostly scientific words because Latin was the language of science at the time. These words were not used as frequently as the words of the Old English period, therefore some of them were partly assimilated grammatically, **For example**, formula - formulae. Here also belong such words as: memorandum, minimum, maximum, veto etc. Classical borrowings continue to appear in Modern English as well. Mostly they are words formed with the help of Latin and Greek morphemes. There are quite a lot of them in medicine (appendicitis, aspirin), in chemistry (acid, valency, alkali), in technique (engine, antenna, biplane, airdrome), in politics (socialism, militarism), names of sciences (zoology, physics). In philology most of terms are of Greek origin (homonym, archaism, lexicography).

Latin borrowings retain their polysyllabic structure, have double consonants, as a rule, the final consonant of the prefix is assimilated with the initial consonant of the stem, (accompany, affirmative).

The largest group of borrowings are French borrowings. Most of them came into English during the Norman conquest. French influenced not only the vocabulary of English but also its spelling, because documents were written by French scribes as the local population was mainly illiterate, and the ruling class was French. Runic letters remaining in English after the Latin alphabet was borrowed were substituted by Latin letters and combinations of letters, **For example**. «v» was introduced for the voiced consonant *M* instead of «f» in the intervocal position /ufian - love/, the digraph «ch» was introduced to denote the sound /ch/ instead of the letter «c» /chest/ before front vowels where it had been palatalized, the digraph «sh» was introduced instead of the combination «sc» to denote the sound /sh/ /ship/, the digraph «th» was introduced instead of the Runic letters «0» and « » /this, thing/, the letter «y» was introduced instead of the Runic letter «3» to denote the sound /// /yet/, the digraph «qu» substituted the combination «cw» to

denote the combination of sounds /kw/ /queen/, the digraph «ou» was introduced to denote the sound /u:/ /house/ (The sound /u:/ was later on diphthongized and is pronounced /au/ in native words and fully assimilated borrowings). As it was difficult for French scribes to copy English texts they substituted the letter «u» before «v», «m», «n» and the digraph «th» by the letter «o» to escape the combination of many vertical lines /«sunu» - «son», luvu» - «love»/.

French borrowings which came into English after 1650 retain their spelling, **For example**, consonants «p», «t», «s» are not pronounced at the end of the word (buffet, coup, debris), Specifically French combination of letters «eau» /ou/ can be found in the borrowings : beau, chateau, troussaeu. Some of digraphs retain their French pronunciation: 'ch' is pronounced as /sh/, For **example**, chic, parachute, 'qu' is pronounced as /k/ **For example**, bouquet, «ou» is pronounced as /u:/, **For example**, rouge; some letters retain their French pronunciation, **For example**. «i» is pronounced as /i:/, e.g, chic, machine; «g» is pronounced as /ʒ/, **For example**. rouge. There are the following semantic groups of French borrowings:

- a) words relating to government: administer, empire, state, government;
- b) words relating to military affairs: army, war, banner, soldier, battle;
- c) words relating to jury: advocate, petition, inquest, sentence, barrister;
- d) words relating to fashion: luxury, coat, collar, lace, pleat, embroidery;
- e) words relating to jewelry; topaz, emerald, ruby, pearl;
- f) words relating to food and cooking: lunch, dinner, appetite, to roast, to stew.

Words were borrowed from French into English after 1650, mainly through French literature, but they were not as numerous and many of them are not completely assimilated. There are the following semantic groups of these borrowings:

- a) words relating to literature and music: belle-lettres, conservatoire, brochure, nuance, pirouette, vaudeville;
- b) words relating to military affairs: corps, echelon, fuselage, manouvre;
- c) words relating to buildings and furniture: entresol, chateau, bureau;
- d) words relating to food and cooking: ragout, cuisine.

Cultural and trade relations between Italy and England brought many Italian words into English. The earliest Italian borrowing came into English in the 14-th century, it was the word «bank» from the Italian «banko» - «bench». Italian money-lenders and money-changers sat in the streets on benches. When they suffered losses they turned over their benches, it was called «banco rotta» from which the English word “bankrupt» originated. In the 17-th century Some geological terms were borrowed : volcano, granite, bronze, lava. At the same time some political terms were borrowed: manifesto, bulletin.

But mostly Italian is famous by its influence in music and in all Indo-European languages musical terms were borrowed from Italian : alto, baritone, basso, tenor falsetto, solo, duet, trio, quartet, quintet, opera, operette, libretto, piano, violin. Among the 20-th century Italian borrowings we can mention : gazette, incognito, autostrada, fiasco, fascist, dilettante, grotesque, graffitto etc.

Spanish borrowings came into English mainly through its American variant. There are the following semantic groups of them:

- a) trade terms: cargo, embargo;
- b) names of dances and musical instruments: tango, rumba, habanera, guitar;
- c) names of vegetables and fruit: tomato, potato, tobacco, cocoa, banana, ananas, apricot etc.

English belongs to the Germanic group of languages and there are borrowings from Scandinavian, German and Holland languages, though their number is much less than borrowings from Romanic languages.

By the end of the Old English period English underwent a strong influence of Scandinavian due to the Scandinavian conquest of the British Isles . Scandinavians belonged to

the same group of peoples as Englishmen and their languages had much in common. As the result of this conquest there are about 700 borrowings from Scandinavian into English.

Scandinavians and Englishmen had the same way of life, their cultural level was the same, they had much in common in their literature therefore there were many words in these languages which were almost identical, *For example*.

ON	OE	Modern E
syster	sweoster	sister
fiscr	fisc	fish
felagi	felawe	fellow

However there were also many words in the two languages which were different, and some of them were borrowed into English, such nouns as: bull, cake, egg, kid, knife, skirt, window etc, such adjectives as: flat, ill, happy, low, odd, ugly, wrong, such verbs as : call, die, guess, get, give, scream and many others.

Even some pronouns and connective words were borrowed which happens very seldom, such as : same, both, till, fro, though, and pronominal forms with «*th*» they, them, their.

Scandinavian influenced the development of phrasal verbs which did not exist in Old English, at the same time some prefixed verbs came out of usage. *For example*. Ofniman, beniman. Phrasal verbs are now highly productive in English /take off, give in etc/.

There are some 800 words borrowed from German into English. Some of them have classical roots. *For example*, in some geological terms, such as: cobalt, bismuth, zink, quartz, gneiss, wolfram. There were also words denoting objects used in everyday life which were borrowed from German: iceberg, lobby, rucksack, Kindergarten etc.

In the period of the Second World War the following words were borrowed: Volkssturm, Luftwaffe, SS-man, Bundeswehr, gestapo, gas chamber and many others. After the Second World War the following words were borrowed: Berufsverbot, Volkswagen etc. Modern German borrowings also have some peculiarities in their spelling: common nouns are spelled with a capital letter *For example*. Autobahn, Lebensraum; some vowels and digraphs retain their German pronunciation, *For example*. «a» is pronounced as /a:/ (Dictat), «u» is pronounced as /u:/ (Kuchen), «au» is pronounced as /au/ (Hausfrau), «ei» is pronounced as /ai/ (Reich); some consonants are also pronounced in the German way, *For example*. «s» before a vowel is pronounced as /ʃ/ (Sitzkrieg), «v» is pronounced as /f/ (Volkswagen), «w» is pronounced as /v/, «ch» is pronounced as /h/ (Kuchen).

Holland and England have constant interrelations for many centuries and more than 2000 Holland borrowings were borrowed into English. Most of them are nautical terms and were mainly borrowed in the 14-th century, such as: freight, skipper, pump, keel, dock, reef, deck, leak and many others. Besides two main groups of borrowings (Romanic and Germanic) there are also borrowings from a lot of other languages. We shall speak about Russian borrowings, borrowings from the language which belongs to Slavonic languages.

There were constant contacts between England and Russia and they borrowed words from one language into the other. Among early Russian borrowings there are mainly words connected with trade relations, such as: rouble, copeck, pood, sterlet, vodka, sable, and also words relating to nature, such as: taiga, tundra, steppe etc. There is also a large group of Russian borrowings which came into English through Russian literature of the 19-th century, such as : Narodnik, moujik, duma, zemstvo. volost, ukase etc, and also words which were formed in Russian with Latin roots, such as: nihilist, intelligenza, Decembrist etc. The independence and international relations of Uzbekistan with Great Britain gave the way to the penetration of Uzbek words into the English language: *For example*. Oliy Majlis, camolot, khorim, hashar, viloyat etc.

Etymological doublets

Sometimes a word is borrowed twice from the same language. As the result, we have two different words with different spellings and meanings but historically they come back to one and the same word. Such words are called etymological doublets. In English there are some groups of them: Latino-French doublets. Latin English from Latin English from French

uncia	inch	ounce
moneta	mint	money
camera	camera	chamber

Scandinavian: skirt English: shirt There are also etymological doublets which were borrowed from the same language during different historical periods, such as French doublets: gentle - mspkhh (iomiuok) genteen - GjioropoflHbifi (ojiHH*aHo6). Sometimes etymological doublets are the result of borrowing different grammatical forms of the same word, For example the Comparative degree of Latin «super» was «superior» which was borrowed into English with the meaning «high in sortie quality or rank». The Superlative degree (Latin «supremus»)in English «supreme» with the meaning «outstanding», «prominent». So «superior» and «supreme» are etymological doublets.

The result of borrowings

A great number of borrowings left some imprint upon the language. We can find the influence of borrowings in the vocabulary of the English language. It changed its synonymic groups because as a result of borrowings there appeared a number of synonymic groups in English.

For example feed (native) — nourish (borrowed); meet (native) — encounter (borrowed).

We can see the differentiation in meaning between native and borrowed synonymous words. *For example* the native word «stool» was used for all kinds of furniture where we can sit. But under the influence of the French word «chair» its meaning is narrowed now. It is used for only one kind of furniture (табуретка — stool). As a result of borrowing some words of native origin are not used in the literary national language they have become dialectal. *For example*, ea — су в туплами (поток воды), р ека river.

Heal

скрывать , покрывать — cover - копламок

Heal

2 A great number of borrowings influenced on the morphological structure of English. We can find a number of new affixes in English. *for example*, re-, inter-, able,- ee,- -sm, co-, de-, trans-, -al, -cy,-ic r -ical. These are very productive affixes. They are used mostly with romanic words. New English suffix — nik came from the Russian language in the word sputnik, now it is a very productive suffix in English. *for example* , - beatnik — человек отрицающий существующие социальные ценности, последователь, сторонник каких- либо идей,направлений, образа жизни,любитель чего-либо(ишкибоз); folknik — пропагандист народных песен(миллий ашуларарни ташвикот килувчи) ; filmnik — любитель кино (киноишкибоз); protestnik — про тествующий против чего-либо (Карши чикувчи); peacenic — борец за мир (тинчлик учун курашувчи); citynik — городской житель (шахарли).

The suffixes -ous,-ive,-ent are not used to form new words, they are nonproductive borrowed affixes. A great number of words with bound morphemes appeared. **For example**, tolerate, tolerable.

The English language has adopted from other languages such pronouns as they, them, their, she, such, same and the numeral «second»;

The influence of borrowings can be seen on the phonetic structure of words in English too. There appeared a number of words of new phonetic structure. **For example**, words with the initial [ps] psychology, [pn] pneumatic. In Middle English as a result of a number of French borrowings we can see the appearance of the new diphthong [oi] in English: point, joint, poison. The initial [sk] also appeared as a result of the influence of Scandinavian borrowings: skin, skip. «i» which was impossible in Old English came to be used at the beginning of the word. **For example** very, vain, victory. The sound [dʒ] began to be used at the beginning of the word. **For example**, jungle, journey. A high percentage of polysyllabic words can be found in English as a result of borrowings. **For example**, company, condition, government, important. The sound [fj] came to be used intervocal position. **For example**, effect, affair.

There are many . . . words, one a native word, the other a Romance loan, originally of either identical or similar meaning with some distinction made today, such as «freedom» and «liberty», «happiness» and «felicity», «help» and «aid», «hide»; and «conceal», «love», and «charity», «meal» and «re-past», «wedding» and «marriage», «wish» and «desire» and we should find that the native word has a more emotional, sense is homely and unassuming, whereas the loan word is colder, aloof, more dignified, more formal...

Sometimes the word may have disappeared from the standard language and yet have survived in regional dialect. OE «eme» was replaced by «uncle», yet «eme» still survives in Scots dialect (/ . A. Sheard)

Study Questions

1. What does the vocabulary of the English language consist of?
2. What words are called words of native origin?
3. What words are called borrowed words?
4. How do we define the role of words in the language?
5. Words of which origin play an important role in the English language?
6. What peculiarities have the native words in the English language?
7. What did scientists call the borrowed words?
8. What are the extra-linguistic causes of borrowings?
9. What are the linguistic causes of borrowings?
10. What are the two ways of borrowings in the English language?
- 11 . What is the source of borrowings?
12. What is the origin of borrowings?
13. What is the influence of borrowings on the phonetic structure of the English language?
14. What diphthongs appeared in English as a result of French borrowings?

LECTURE 15

THEME: METHODS OF USING VOCABULARY UNITS

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF LECTURE SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабаларсони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машғулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	lecture (visual type)
<i>Машғулот режаси /ўқув машғулотининг тузилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 1. The diachronic approach 2. The synchronic approach 3. Statistical methods
<i>Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:</i>	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; • to discuss semantic triangle • to analyze nouns semantic triangle	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> • Be able to understand the diachronic approach . • Be able to understand the synchronic approach. • Be able to analyze by statistic methods.
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Lecture
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Lecture hall

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF LECTURE SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exerciese on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

Problems to be discussed:

1. The diachronic approach
2. The synchronic approach
3. Statistical methods

Methods of Lexicological Research

a) The diachronic approach; b) The synchronic approach; c) Statistical methods; Diachronic approach.

The research methods used in Lexicology have always been closely connected with the general trends in Linguistics. The principles of comparative linguistics have played an important role in the development of a scientific approach to historical word study.

They have brought everything in order and classified information about the English vocabulary in their proper perspective.

The methods applied consisted in observation of speech, mostly written, collection and classification of data, hypotheses and systematic statements. Particular stress was put on the refinement of methods for collecting and classifying facts. The study of vocabulary became scientific.

The 19th century language study has recognized variety and change in language. Comparative philology insisted on reconstruction of the fundamental forms and meanings which have not come down to us. It was realized that the only basis for correctness is the usage of the native speakers of each language. They destroyed the myth of a Golden Age when all the words had their primary “correct” meaning and when the language was in a state of perfection from which it has deteriorated. It became clear from intensive work on the great historical dictionaries that multiple meaning for words is normal, not an “exception”. Comparative studies show that, save for specific technical terms, there are no two words in two languages that cover precisely the same area.

The greatest contribution, as far as English is concerned, were the Oxford English Dictionary and Data on the English vocabulary in works by H.Sweet, O.Jespersen, H.Poutsma, and others. Most of them were published in the 20th century but the main principles on which they were based were worked out in the 19th century.

In the beginning of the 20th century vocabulary study was still mainly concentrated on historical problems. In connection with the so-called word-and-thing method the study of words became a tool for the study of civilization.

A wide historical context was, in its turn, found indispensable in explaining vocabulary changes. In the process of studying some words or work, the linguists collected accurately chosen examples of usage, and arranged them according to the periods of language history (and for OE and ME according to dialects). These data were compared. As to conclusions about the meaning, they were drawn from the context and from what was known about the realia of the period.

Comparing words and morphemes with those from which they were derived it was possible to describe the processes at work in vocabulary development.

The synchronic approach.

The centre of interest has shifted to the synchronic level, the spoken utterance and structure. Lexicologists are now describing what the vocabulary of the language is like, rather than how it came to be that way.

The new trend has received the name structural (descriptive) linguistics. Its methodological principles can be summarized as follows: Language is to be analyzed by specifically linguistic methods, according to the specifically linguistic criteria, not as a combination of psychological, physiological and physical phenomenon. This analysis arrives at a definite number of discrete units, interdependent parts of relational structure, and each language is characterized by an internal structure of its own.

Descriptive linguistics can not be simply a list of elements, it must show how these elements are combined.

Structural linguistics has many varieties and schools. The main schools are those of Prague, the United States, Copenhagen, and more presently, London and Moscow.

A major achievement of the Prague school is represented in N.S. Trubetzkoy's classical work, and means in the first place a particular approach to phonology (the theory of oppositions).

The typically American developments of linguistic theory resulted from practical tasks: the study of the American Indian languages, teaching of foreign languages, and recently, machine translation. Books by L. Bloomfield, E. Nida, B. Bloch, Z. Harris and others mark stages in the development of structuralist theory in the United States.

The main achievements of the American schools are the analysis into immediate constituents, substitution, distributional and transformational analysis.

Immediate constituents (IC) are the two meaningful parts forming a larger linguistic unit. The IC of *bluish* are *blue-* and *-ish*.

Substitution is testing of similarity by placing into identical environment:

It is reddish – it is somewhat red.

Substitution is also necessary for determining classes for words.

E.g. the words *family*, *boy*, and *house* all belong to different classes of nouns, as they are differently substituted:

I like this family – I like them

I like this boy – I like him

I like this house – I like it.

This linguistic feature and not the difference between the objects the words serve to denote, is the basis for their subdivision into collective, personal and object nouns.

The term distribution is used to denote the possible variants of the immediate lexical, grammatical and phonetical environment of a linguistic unit.

According to Z. Harris, "the distribution of an element is the total of all environments in which it occurs, i.e. the sum of all the positions of an element relative to the occurrence of other elements".

E.g. she made him a good wife – she made a good wife for him.

Statistical methods

Modern structural ways of analysis are often combined with statistical procedures. Statistics describes how things are on the average. For a modern linguist it is not enough to know that it is allowable for a given structure to appear, he is interested in its frequency, in how often it appears.

Every lexicological research is based on collecting linguistic evidence, i.e. examples.

Having determined the object of research, the problem to be investigated and the set of units or phenomena to be described, the linguist proceeds to choose his method and collect and classify his data. He must have at hand a sufficiently wide choice of contexts so that his results might be statistically reliable. To know how many examples are necessary to make the conclusion, one must determine the relative frequency of the phenomenon or unit studied.

Mathematical statistics supplies the research workers with formulas showing the necessary scope of material depending on the amount of error they are prepared to tolerate.

When using a statistical method, it is true that some details are lost because statistical study is necessarily simplifying and abstract. G. Miller gives a clear picture of the situation when he says "At one time we look at the talker as generator of sound waves, and at another time he seems a fountain of prepositional phrases. The choice depends upon the interest".

The process of scientific investigation may be subdivided into several *stages*:

- **Observation** (statements of fact must be based on observation)
- **Classification** (orderly arrangement of the data)
- **Generalization** (formulation of a generalization or hypothesis, rule a law)

- **The verifying process.** Here, various procedures of linguistic analysis are commonly applied:

1). **Contrastive analysis** attempts to find out similarities and differences in both philogenically related and non-related languages. In fact contrastive analysis grew as the result of the errors which are made recurrently by foreign language students. They can be often traced back to the differences in structure between the target language and the language of the learner, detailed comparison of these two languages has been named **contrastive analysis**.

Contrastive analysis brings to light the essence of what is usually described as idiomatic English, idiomatic Russian etc., i.e. the peculiar way in which every language combines and structures in lexical units various concepts to denote extra-linguistic reality.

2). **Statistical analysis** is the quantitative study of a language phenomenon. Statistical linguistics is nowadays generally recognised as one of the major branches of linguistics. (frequency – room, collocability)

3). **Immediate constituents analysis.** The theory of Immediate Constituents (IC) was originally elaborated as an attempt to determine the ways in which lexical units are relevantly related to one another. The fundamental aim of IC analysis is to segment a set of lexical units into two maximally independent sequences or ICs thus revealing the hierarchical structure of this set.

4). **Distributional analysis and co-occurrence.** By the term **distribution** we understand the occurrence of a lexical unit relative to other lexical units of the same level (the position which lexical units occupy or may occupy in the text or in the flow of speech). Distributional analysis is mainly applied by the linguist to find out **sameness** or **difference** of meaning.

5). **Transformational analysis** can be defined as repatterning of various distributional structures in order to discover difference or sameness of meaning of practically identical distributional patterns. It may be also described as a kind of translation (transference of a message by different means).

6). **Componental analysis** (1950's). In this analysis linguists proceed from the assumption that the smallest units of meaning are sememes (семема - семантическая единица) or semes (сема (минимальная единица содержания)) and that sememes and lexemes (or lexical items) are usually not in one-to-one but in one-to-many correspondence (e.g. in lexical item "woman", sememes are – human, female, adult). This analysis deals with individual meanings.

7). **Method of Semantic Differential** (set up by American psycholinguists). The analysis is concerned with measurement of differences of the connotational meaning, or the emotive charge, which is very hard to grasp.

Study questions

1. What is diachronic approach?
2. What is synchronic approach?
3. What are the differences between diachronic and synchronic approaches?
4. What kind of method is statistical method?
5. What analysis is linguistic analysis commonly applied?

SEMINAR SESSIONS

5-semester

№	Theme	Hours
1	Lexicology as a science. Lexicology and its object .	2
2	English Lexicography . Types of dictionaries.	2
3	Semasiology. Word-meaning.	2
4	Types of meaning.	2
5	Change of meaning and its result	2
6	Semantic systems in English . Polysemy, Homonyms.	2
7	Synonyms, Antonyms.	2
8	Classification of semantic words.	2
9	Morphological structure of the word.	2
10	Word formation.	2
11	Conversion.	2
12	Secondary ways of word formation.	2
13	Phraseology.	2
14	Etymology.	2
15	Methods of using vocabulary units.	2
	Total	30

SEMINAR 1

THEME: LEXICOLOGY AND ITS OBJECT

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF SEMINAR SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабалар сони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машғулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	seminar (visual type)
<i>Машғулот режаси /ўқув машғулотининг тuzилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: I. Lexicology as a subject: 1. Subject of Lexicology, its types and branches 2. Interrelations of Lexicology with other linguistic sciences 3. The concept of the lexical unit 4. Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of lexical units 5. The word as the basic lexical unit II. Lexicography as a branch of Lexicology 1. History of English Lexicography 2. Types of dictionaries 3. Problems of dictionary compiling
<i>Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:</i>	<u>To provide students with information about the English vocabulary</u>
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; • To explain the subject matter of Lexicology	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> • Be able to understand the concepts • Be able to understand the main units • Be able to compare types of lexical units
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Seminar
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Seminar classrom

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF SEMINAR SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities	Exerciese on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video

	addressing all learning styles			materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

Problems to be discussed:

1. Lexicology as a branch of linguistics.
2. Lexicology and its links with other branches of linguistics. The theoretical and practical value of lexicology.
3. Lexical naming. Types of lexical naming. (General overview.)
4. The *word* as the basic lexical unit. The problem of the *word* in English. Word variants.
5. The concept of *lexeme*.
6. The size of the English lexicon.
7. The size of a person's lexicon.

Key Terms

lexeme lexical item/unit lexical system lexicalization lexicology cognitive lexicology contrastive lexicology descriptive lexicology diachronic/historical lexicology general lexicology special lexicology synchronic lexicology lexicon lexis	mental lexicon morpheme derivational morpheme naming lexical naming phraseological unit ready-made unit set expression/phrase two-faceted unit vocabulary word word-group word stock word variants
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Tasks and Exercises

1. **What counts as a word? Define the status of the given lexical items and comment on the types of naming. Consult the recommended dictionaries:**

<i>ad</i> <i>Adam's apple</i> <i>bike</i> <i>blue(-)stocking</i> <i>boarding school</i> <i>break-down</i> <i>demo</i> <i>extra-</i>	<i>hot line</i> <i>lily of the valley</i> <i>mini</i> <i>mother-in-law</i> <i>pram</i> <i>runaway</i> <i>second-rate</i> <i>town hall</i>
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<i>flower pot</i> <i>forget-me-not</i> <i>heart attack</i> <i>hot dog</i>	<i>UNESCO</i> <i>VIP</i> <i>Whitehall</i> <i>White House</i>
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Read the excerpt and answer the questions.

HOW LARGE IS THE ENGLISH LEXICON?

The two biggest dictionaries suggest around half a million lexemes – a total approached by the unabridged *Webster's Third New International* (which claimed over 450,000 entries in 1961) and by the integrated edition of the *Oxford English Dictionary* (which claimed over 500,000 entries in 1992). The true figure is undoubtedly a great deal higher.

A comparison of these two dictionaries – or of any other group of dictionaries of comparable size – shows a remarkable lack of identity between headword lists. Discrepancies are usually caused by differing editorial emphases. The *Oxford* has far more historical references and British dialect items than does the *Webster*, which in turn has far more local American items. On the other hand, neither work would claim to be comprehensive in its coverage of the vocabulary of the new Englishes in such parts of the world as India, Singapore, and Nigeria, where thousands of new lexemes are coming into the language. And because the tradition in lexicography is to use the written language as the test for inclusion, much local spoken nonstandard vocabulary will be omitted. There must be thousands of slang expressions currently in common use which have never been recorded, such as all the lexemes which express the concept of 'being drunk' – *canned, blotto, squiffy, jagged, paralytic, smashed*, etc.

Even if we restrict the issue to standard vocabulary, there are many items which could be included as part of the lexicon, but which are not usually found in a dictionary. There are some half a million abbreviated forms in English, many of which have a clear lexical status (*BA, FBI, NATO*, etc.); and fauna and flora also provide a vast lexical resource. For example, there are apparently some million insects already described, with several million more awaiting description. This means that there must be at least a million designations enabling English-speaking entomologists to talk about their subject. Should all of these be allowed into the word-count as well?

It is difficult to see how even a conservative estimate of the English vocabulary could go much below a million lexemes. More radical accounts, allowing in all of scientific nomenclature, could easily double this figure. Only a small fraction of these totals, of course, is learned by any one of us. (From: *D. Crystal*. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. 1995. P. 119)

Questions

1. What linguistic items do lexicologists study?
2. What is the minimal meaningful unit of language?
3. What accounts for numerous and different definitions of the term *word*? Compare various definitions of the word and state on what properties (phonological, morphological, syntactic, etc.) of the word they are based.
4. What are the main problems connected with the concept of *the word* in English?
5. Why is *the word* considered the basic lexical unit?
6. How do you define the term *lexeme*?
7. How large is the English lexicon?
8. How many lexical items are registered in *The Oxford English Dictionary/Webster's Third New International Dictionary*?
9. How large is the lexicon of a native speaker? Does it vary within different age groups/professional groups?

10. How large is your lexicon?

Recommended Reading

1. Арнольд, И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка / И.В. Арнольд; на англ. яз. – 3-е изд. – М.: Высш. шк., 1986. – С. 272 – 285.
 2. Лебедева, Л.Д. Введение в курс английской лексикографии: учеб. пособие / Л.Д. Лебедева. – М.: Высш. шк., 2008.
 3. Лексикология английского языка / Р.З. Гинзбург [и др.]; на англ. яз. – 2-е изд., испр. и доп. – М.: Высш. шк., 1979. – С. 210–233.
 4. Лещёва, Л.М. Слова в английском языке: Курс лексикологии английского языка / Л.М. Лещёва; на англ. яз. – Минск: Академия управления при Президенте Республики Беларусь, 2001. – С. 89–94.
 5. Ступин, Л.П. Лексикография английского языка: учеб. пособие / Л.П. Ступин. – М.: Высш. шк., 1985.
 6. Суша, Т.Н. Лингвистические основы лексикографии: учеб. пособие / Т.Н. Суша; на англ. яз. – Минск: МГЛУ, 1999.
- Английская лексикология в выдержках и извлечениях / С.С. Хидекель [и др.]. – Л.: Просвещение. Ленингр. отд-ние, 1969. – С. 193–211.
7. Щерба, Л.В. Опыт общей теории лексикографии / Л.В. Щерба // Избранные работы по языкознанию и фонетике академика Л.В. Щербы / Ленингр. гос. ун-т; отв. ред. М.И. Матусевич. – Л., 1958. – С. 54–91.
 8. Lexicography. An Emerging International Profession / ed. by R. Ilson. – Manchester: Manchester Univ. Press in Assoc. with Fulbright Commiss., 1986.

SEMINAR 2

THEME: ENGLISH LEXICOGRAPHY. TYPES OF DICTIONARIES.

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF SEMINAR SESSION

Вақт: 2	Талабаларсони: 30-34
Ўқув машғулоти шакли ва тури	seminar (visual type)
Машғулот режаси /ўқув машғулоти тузилиши	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 1. The meaning of the dictionary . 2. Unilingual and bilingual dictionaries. 3. Differences between general and special dictionaries.
Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:	To provide students with information about the <u>English vocabulary</u>
Педагогик вазифалар: • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; To explain:	Ўқув фаолияти натижалари: • Be able to understand the concepts • Be able to understand the meaning of the dictionary. • Be able know about unilingual and bilingual dictionaries.

1. The meaning of the dictionary . 2. Unilingual and bilingual dictionaries. 3. Differences between general and special dictionaries.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Be able to compare general and special dictionaries.
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Seminar
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Seminar classrom

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF SEMINAR SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	20	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exercise on the new topic.	20	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

Key words: *lexicography, dictionary, vocabulary, lexicographer, compiler of a dictionary, lexical unit, or item, entry, single and separate entries, onomasiological and semasiological approaches in the organization of an entry, alphabetical order, encyclopedic and linguistic dictionaries, or encyclopedias and dictionaries, thesaurus, or thesaurus dictionaries, abridged and unabridged dictionaries, general and restricted dictionaries, specialized and non-specialized dictionaries (technical dictionaries, phraseological dictionaries, dictionaries of synonyms, antonyms and etc.), monolingual, or unilingual or explanatory, dictionaries and bilingual and polylingual, or translation, dictionaries, synchronic and diachronic, or historical, dictionaries, prospective users' type of dictionaries and learners' type of dictionaries, concordances and glossaries, electronic dictionaries.*

Look up these terms in the glossary or in the sources indicated in the bibliography to the glossary. Compare the definitions given in English and in Russian.

Problems for Discussion

1.	Lexicography as the branch of linguistics. Lexicography vs. lexicology.
2.	The history of British and American lexicography.

3. The principles the complication of a dictionary is based on. Lexical units included in dictionaries. Information provided by dictionaries and the form of its presentation. The structure of the entry.
4. Dictionaries and their typology. Classification of linguistic dictionaries.

Questions and Tasks

1. What is a dictionary from your point of view? What is it necessary for?
2. Do you know the name of the first British dictionary compiler? What other outstanding names from the history of British and American lexicography do you know? From the history of Russian/Belarusian lexicography?
3. Study the information concerning the first British and American dictionaries. In what ways are they similar to or different from the dictionaries we use nowadays?
4. What types of dictionaries do you know? What are the main types of dictionaries from your point of view? Why?
2. Compare encyclopedic and linguistic dictionaries. Do they have much in common?
3. Compare linguistic dictionaries of different types. What are the main criteria linguistic dictionaries can be classified by?
4. You are a dictionary-compiler. Choose lexical units necessary from your point of view for inclusion in the dictionary: *-aholic*, *Brangelina*, *e-*, *-ee*, *Euro-* (combining form), *Euro* (adj, (informal) connected with Europe, especially the European Union), *euro* (n, the unit of money of some countries of the European Union), *flip-flop*, *freak*, *it-girl*, *heads and tails*, *nanotechnology*, *nonalcalinocetaceoaluminosocupreovitriolic*, *see-saw*, *tip-top*, *ugly duckling*. State the principles upon which you have made your choice.
5. Offer a reasonable solution to such problems as the number of meanings of a word for inclusion in a dictionary (if a word is polysemantic) and the choice of the meaning which should be placed first in the entry.
6. Give examples of the ways the information about the meaning of the lexical unit (its derived meanings if a word is polysemantic) may be given by.
7. Semasiological approach in the organization of an entry (information goes from a name to the correspondent notion) vs. onomasiological approach (information goes from a notion to the name(s) it can be expressed by). Give an example of a dictionary which practices onomasiological approach in the organization of its entries. Characterize the prospective user of such a dictionary.
8. Arranging entry words in alphabetical order vs. arranging entry words in alphabetical order starting with their final letters. Give an example of a dictionary where entry words aren't presented alphabetically. Characterize the prospective user of such a dictionary.
9. Compare the contents and structure of entries in dictionaries of different types. Do you agree that the most complicated type of entry is that found in monolingual, or explanatory, dictionaries?
10. Identify the types of dictionaries the following entries belong to and try to explain what is of interest in the treatment of the same word by dictionaries of different types:

a) **woman** /wʊmən/ n. (pl. women /wɪmɪn/)

1 an adult human female. **2** the female sex; any or an average woman (*how does woman differ from man?*). **3** *colloq.* a wife or female sexual partner. **4** (prec. by *the*) emotions or characteristics traditionally associated with women (*brought out the woman in him*). **5** a man with characteristics traditionally associated with women. **6** (*attrib.*) female (*woman driver; women friends*). **7** (as second element in *comb.*) a woman of a specified nationality, profession, skill, etc. (*Englishwoman; horsewoman*). **8** *colloq.* a female domestic help. **9** *archaic or hist.* a queen's etc. female attendant ranking below lady (*woman of the bedchamber*). □ **woman of the streets** a prostitute. **women's lib** *colloq.* = *women's liberation*. **women's libber** *colloq.* a supporter of women's liberation. **women's liberation** **1** the liberation of women from inequalities and subservient status in relation to men, and from attitude causing these. **2** (also **women's liberation movement**) = **women's movement** a broad movement campaigning for women's liberation and rights. **women's rights** rights that promote a position of legal and social equality of women with men. □ **womanless** *adj.* **womanlike** *adj.* [OE *wīfmon*, *-man* (as WIFE, MAN), a formation peculiar to English, the ancient word being WIFE] (The Oxford English Reference Dictionary / ed. by J. Pearsall, B. Trumble. – 2nd ed. – Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, 1996. – P. 1662.)

b) **woman** /wʊmən/ *noun* (*pl.* women /wɪmɪn/)

1 [C] an adult female human: *men, women and children* ◇ *a 24-year-old woman* ◇ *I prefer to see a woman doctor.* **2** [U] female humans in general: (*informal*) *She's all woman!* (= has qualities that are typical of women) **3** [C] (in compounds) a woman who comes from the place mentioned or whose job or interest is connected with the thing mentioned: *an Englishwoman* ◇ *a businesswoman* ◇ *a Congresswoman* ◇ *a horsewoman* → note at GENDER **4** [C] a female worker, especially one who works with her hands: *We used to have a woman to do the cleaning.* **5** [sing.] (*old-fashioned*) a rude way of addressing a female person in an angry or important way: *Be quiet, woman!* **6** [C] (sometimes *disapproving*) a wife or sexual partner: *He's got a new woman in his life.* – see also FALLEN WOMAN, KEPT WOMAN, OTHER WOMAN **IDM be your own** *oman/woman* to act or think independently, not following others or being ordered: *Working for herself meant that she could be her own woman.* – more at HEART, HELL, HONEST, MAN *n.*, PART *n.*, POSSESSED, SUBSTANCE, WORLD (Hornby, A.S. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English / A.S. Hornby; ed. by S. Wehmeier (chief ed.) [et al.]. – 7th ed. – Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, 2005. – P. 1755.)

c) **woman** *noun*

Adj. **young** | **middle-aged** | **elderly, old, older** *The thief tricked his way into an elderly woman's home.* ◇ *Older women often have difficulty conceiving.* | **adult, grown** *The little girl she remembered was now a grown woman.* | **married** | **single, unattached, unmarried** | **widowed** | **divorced** | **pregnant** | **childless** | **business** (also **businesswoman**), **career, professional, working** | **non-working** | **attractive, beautiful, good-looking, handsome, pretty** | **desirable** | **well-dressed** | **plain, ugly** | **motherly** | **hysterical** | **decent, good, kind** | **evil, wicked** | **battered** *a hostel for battered women* | **the other** *Jean Menkes plays the president's wife and Fiona Handley plays the other woman* (the one the President is having an affair with).

VERB + WOMAN **depict, portray, present, show** *We want to change the way women are depicted in the media.* | **limit, reduce** *Women are limited to the more poorly paid jobs.* ◇ *Women are reduced to merely playing a passive role.*

PHRASES the position/role of women *There were important changes in the position of women in society.* **a woman of the world** *He saw her as the woman of the world who could offer him advice.* **women's lib/liberation** *(becoming old-fashioned) The freedom to wear trousers became a symbol of women's liberation.* **the women's movement, women's rights** (Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English. – Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, 2002. – P. 879.)

d) **woman** [wʊmən] *n.* **1.** женщина; **my good ~** милая; **kept ~** содержанка; **the little ~** (*жoc., my wife*) женушка, хозяйка; **old ~** (*lit.*) старуха; (*coll., wife*) жена, хозяйка; **the 'other' ~** (*in sexual triangle*) любовница, разлучница; **single ~** незамужняя женщина; **~ of the town** уличная женщина; **~ of the world** светская/бывалая женщина; **play the ~** вести (*det.*) себя как баба; **a ~' place in the home** место женщины дома (*орючага*); **women's rights** женско-равноправие; **man born of ~** (*ibid.*) смертный; рожденный женщиной. **2. (femininity): there is little of the ~ in her** в ней мало женственности; **all the ~ in her rebelled** вся ее женская суть восстала против этого. **3. (coll., charwoman): daily ~** приходящая домработница; **4. (arch. female attendant)** камеристка, фрейлина. **5. (illicit sexual partner)** любовница. **6. (man with feminine characteristics)** баба; **he is an old ~** он настоящая баба; **~ doctor** женщина-врач; **~ friend** подруга, приятельница. **cpds. womenfolk** *n. pl.* женщины (*f. pl.*); (*of household*) женская половина; **~ hater** *n.* женоненавистник; **~ kind** *n.* женщины (*f. pl.*); женская половина; **~ servant** *n.* служанка. (The Oxford Russian Dictionary: Russian-English/English-Russian / rev. and updated by C. Howlett. – Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, 1997. – P. 1329.)

e) **woman** wu·mən *pl.* **women** wɪ·mɪn

adult female human being; female servant. OE. *wīfman* (*n*) *m.*, later *fem.*, *f.* *wīf* woman + *man* (*n*) MAN; a formation peculiar to Eng. not in the oldest OE. records, the primitive words being *wīf* WIFE and *cwene* QUEAN; assim. of *-fm-* to *-mm-* is evident in late OE. sp. (cf. LEMAN) and rounding of *wim-* to *wum-*, *wom-* in XIII. *wo-manish*¹. XIV (ch., Gower). *wo-mankind*. XIV. *wo-manly*¹. XIII (AncR.). *wo-manize* emasculate XVI; consort XIX. (The Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology / ed. by C.T. Onions. – Oxford: AT the Clarendon Press, 1996. – P. 1011.)

f) **WOMAN**, *n.* 1562e (*West, M. A General Service List of English Words with Semantic Frequencies and a Supplementary Word-List for the Writing of Popular Science and Technology / M. West. – Longman, 1959. – P. 571.*)

g) **WOMAN** (wʊmən) World Organization for Mothers of All Nations (The Oxford Dictionary of Abbreviations. – 2nd ed. – Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, 1998. – P. 390.)

h) **WOMAN** World Organization for Mothers of All Nations Всемирная организация матерей (*Волкова, Н.О. Англо-русский словарь сокращений / Н.О. Волкова, И.А. Никанорова. – 3-изд., стер. – М.: Рус. яз., 2000. – С. 459.*)

14. Compare the contents and structure of entries in dictionaries of the same type belonging to different publishing houses.
15. Compare the contents and structure of entries in dictionaries catering to the needs of learners having different levels of language proficiency.
16. Analyze the illustrative examples (if there are any) in the following entries:

ro·mance /rəʊməns; ˈrəʊməns; NAmE ˈɔːrou-/ *noun, verb*

noun **1** [C] an exciting, usually short, relationship between two people who are in love with each other: *a holiday romance* ◇ *They had a whirlwind romance.* **2** [U] love or feeling of being in love: *Spring is here and romance is in air.* ◇ *How can you put the romance back into your marriage?* **3** [U] a feeling of excitement and adventure, especially connected to a particular place or activity: *the romance of travel* **4** [C] a story about a love affair: *She's compulsive reader of romances.* **5** [C] a story of excitement and adventure, often set in the past: *medieval romances*

verb **1** [V] to tell stories that are not true or to describe sth in a way that makes it seem more exciting or interesting than it really is **2** [VN] to have to try to have a romantic relationship with sb (*Hornby, A.S. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English / A.S. Hornby; ed. by S. Wehmeier (chief ed.) [et al.]. – 7th ed. – Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, 2005. – P. 1319.*)

ro·man·ti·cism /rəʊməntɪsɪzəm; NAmE ˈɔːrou-/ *noun* [U]

1 (also **Romanticism**) a style and movement in art, music and literature in the late 18th and early 19th century, in which strong feelings, imagination and a return to nature were more important than reason, order and INTELLECTUAL ideas – compare REALISM **2** the quality of seeing people, events and situations as more exciting and interesting than they really are **3** strong feeling of love; the fact of showing emotion, affection, etc. (*Hornby, A.S. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English / A.S. Hornby; ed. by S. Wehmeier (chief ed.) [et al.]. – 7th ed. – Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, 2005. – P. 1320.*)

How much space from your point of view should be devoted to illustrative examples and/or pictorial illustrations? What words may be listed without them?

- | |
|---|
| 17. What does the size of a dictionary depend on? Is it possible to say that a dictionary of a living language (a dictionary of reasonable size) is complete? |
| 18. What dictionaries are indispensable for those interested in the following things: |

- a) the pronunciation of a definite word and its spelling;
- b) the part of speech it belongs to;
- c) its meaning(s);
- d) its derivatives;
- e) its synonyms and antonyms;
- f) its equivalents in other languages;
- g) its frequency;
- h) its chronological development over time;
- i) the way it can be combined in a language.

- | |
|--|
| 19. What types of dictionaries do you use? What do they help you in? |
| 20. Compare the structure of dictionaries of different types. Do they have much in common? |
| 21. Explain the role of the preface (foreword) in the dictionary. |
| 22. Can you say that you know how to use a dictionary in a proper way? If you can explain what the following abbreviations, symbols and labels used in dictionaries of different types mean: |

a) *abbr., adj. (A, a, Adj, adj), adv. (Adv, adv), C, conj. (Conj, conj), det., n. (N, n), pl. (pl), pp, prep., pron. (Pron, pron), pt, sb, sing. (sing), sth, symb., U, v. (V, v)*;

b) *AustralE, BrE, CanE, EAfrE, IndE, IrishE, NAmE, NEngE, NZE, SAfrE, ScotE, SEAsianE, US, WAfrE, WelshE*;

c) *IDM, OPP, PHR V, SYN*;

d) *(dis)approving, dialect, figurative, (in)formal, humorous, ironic, literary, offensive, old-fashioned, old use, slang, taboo, technical*.

Study the entries where the following signs are used: ~, =, ≠, ↔. Explain what they are necessary for.

Recommended Reading

1. *Арнольд, И.В.* Лексикология современного английского языка / И.В. Арнольд; на англ. яз. – 3-е изд. – М.: Высш. шк., 1986. – С. 272 – 285.
2. *Лебедева, Л.Д.* Введение в курс английской лексикографии: учеб. пособие / Л.Д. Лебедева. – М.: Высш. шк., 2008.
3. Лексикология английского языка / Р.З. Гинзбург [и др.]; на англ. яз. – 2-е изд., испр. и доп. – М.: Высш. шк., 1979. – С. 210–233.
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6. *Суша, Т.Н.* Лингвистические основы лексикографии: учеб. пособие / Т.Н. Суша; на англ. яз. – Минск: МГЛУ, 1999.
7. Английская лексикология в выдержках и извлечениях / С.С. Хидекель [и др.]. – Л.: Просвещение. Ленингр. отд-ние, 1969. – С. 193–211.
8. *Щерба, Л.В.* Опыт общей теории лексикографии / Л.В. Щерба // Избранные работы по языкознанию и фонетике академика Л.В. Щербы / Ленингр. гос. ун-т; отв. ред. М.И. Матусевич. – Л., 1958. – С. 54–91.
9. *Lexicography. An Emerging International Profession* / ed. by R. Ilson. – Manchester: Manchester Univ. Press in Assoc. with Fulbright Commiss., 1986.

Dictionaries

1. *Волкова, Н.О.* Англо-русский словарь сокращений / Н.О. Волкова, И.А. Никанорова. – 3-е изд., стер. – М.: Рус. яз., 2000.
2. *Hornby, A.S.* Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English / A.S. Hornby; ed. by S. Wehmeier [et al.]. – 7th ed. – Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, 2005.
3. *Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English*. – Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, 2002.
4. *The Oxford Dictionary of Abbreviations*. – 2nd ed. – Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, 1998.
5. *The Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology* / ed. by C.T. Onions. – Oxford: AT the Clarendon Press, 1996.
6. *The Oxford English Reference Dictionary* / ed. by J. Pearsall, B. Trumble. – 2nd ed. – Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, 1996.

7. The Oxford Russian Dictionary: Russian-English; English-Russian / rev. and updated by C. Howlett. – Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, 1997.
8. West, M. A General Service List of English Words with Semantic Frequencies and a Supplementary Word-List for the Writing of Popular Science and Technology / M. West. – Longmans, 1959.

SEMINAR 3

THEME: SEMASIOLOGY. WORD-MEANING

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF SEMINAR SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабаларсони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машғулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	seminar (visual type)
<i>Машғулот режаси /ўқув машғулотининг тузилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 9. Referential Approach to Meaning 10. Meaning in the Referential Approach 11. Functional Approach to Meaning 12. Relation Between the Two Approaches
<i>Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:</i>	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; • to discuss semantic triangle • to analyze nouns semantic triangle	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> • Be able to understand semantic triangle. • Be able to understand semantic triangle. • Be able to analyze nouns by semantic triangle
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Seminar
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Seminar classroom

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF SEMINAR SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities	Exerciese on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video

	addressing all learning styles			materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

The object, goals and problems of Lexicology as a linguistic science

- Word meaning.
- Definition of meaning.
- Different approaches to meaning.
- Types of meaning.
- Motivation of the word.
- Semantic structure of the word.

Exercise 1: Answer the following questions:

1. What is the meaning of a word?
2. Characterize the referential and functional approach.
3. What is the grammatical meaning of a word?
4. What is the lexical meaning of a word?
5. What are the denotational and connotational aspect of the lexical meaning?
6. What types of motivation are known to you? Characterize each.

Exercise 2. Specify grammatical and lexical meaning of the words in bold.

1. Everything was **revealed** the other **day** when I was by chance walking through Covent Garden. 2. "I called you", he whispered in a **softer** voice. "But your **boys** denied my call". 3. She **takes** my **hand** and stands up in front of me. 4. **Do** you know that **this** morning I went **to buy** a new **husky**. 5. Sometimes, **lying** awake at night, I **could** hear her dry, **irritable** cough.

Exercise 3. Define denotative and connotative meanings of the words in bold.

1. I suppose **muggins** will have to do it. 2. Give **mummy** the **doggie** then. 3. My brother is terrible. Let's get rid of this little **beastie**. 4. Let me get you the **aforementioned**. 5. We are away to the sunnier **climes**. 6. Anastasia had **to fork out** a lot for that present. 7. For us it's been a real **catch-22**, because we had the time to take a vacation without having any money.

Recommended reading

1. Арнольд И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка (The English Word): М.-Л., Просвещение, 1966.- (31-32pages).
2. Tukhtakhodjaeva Z.T., Saidova N.A., Yuldasheva D. SEMINARS IN MODERN ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY : Учебное пособие для семинарских занятий по курсу лексикологии современного английского языка: Т. " SHARQ" 2010.

SEMINAR 4

THEME: TYPES OF MEANING

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF SEMINAR SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабаларсони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машғулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	Seminar (visual type)
<i>Машғулот режаси /ўқув машғулотининг тузилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 1. Grammatical Meaning 2. Lexical Meaning 3. Part-of-speech Meaning 4. Denotational and Connotational Meaning
<i>Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:</i>	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; • to discuss semantic triangle • to analyze nouns semantic triangle	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> • Be able to understand grammatical meaning. • Be able to understand lexical meaning. • Be able to analyze types of meaning
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Seminar
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Seminar classroom

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF SEMINAR SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exercise on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

1. The object, goals and problems of Lexicology as a linguistic science

- Grammatical Meaning

- Lexical Meaning
- Part-of-speech Meaning
- Denotational and Connotational Meaning

EXERCISE 1.

Divide the following words into three groups and count the number of the words in each group: a) orthographic words; b) grammatical word forms; c) lexemes.

How does our brain store information? How is it possible to make learning faster and easier? Is there any way not to forget what we have learned and to remember things more easily? Of what importance is the fact that information is never deleted from our memory, even if we have forgotten it? These are among many of the questions for which answers have been sought over the years (A. M.).

EXERCISE 2.

Characterise the words taking into consideration the features which are common for the word.

I **took** the beakers of **orange** juice and carried **them** back to the cubicle. **Fiona** drank hers **slowly** and gratefully; then she **drank** half of mine. She said that I looked a bit **distracted** and asked me what had **happened**.

"**This** guy's just been brought in. **He's** unconscious, and he's in a **pretty** bad way. **It** just gave me a bit of a shock."

Fiona said: "I'm sorry. This is a terrible way **to start** the New Year" (J. C.).

EXERCISE 3.

Ascribe the words to their lexico-grammatical classes. Note that one and the same word can belong to different classes.

Affect, back, carry, collocation, draw, dream, eager, fair, finger, go, hatred, just, icon, idol, kneel, linger, miniature, nausea, oral, premeditated, settings, standing, still, tricolour, whoever, yet.

EXERCISE 4.

Arrange the following words into three lexico-semantic fields. Give the name to these fields.

Affection, back, backbone, chest, curriculum, calf, calmness, chin, colleague, contentment, delight, dictionary, drill, elbow, empathy, eyelash, exhilaration, faculty, fee, forehead, frustration, heel, ignorance, indignation, jealousy, journal, knee, knuckle, lecturer, limb, malice, master, notebook, palm, professor, passion, pedagogy, postgraduate, principle, rapture, relief, sadness, scholar, schooling, seminar, session, smattering, staff, sympathy, syllabus, syntax, temple, tenderness, thigh, thumb, toe, tutor, university, unrest, wrath, zeal.

Recommended reading

1. Арнольд И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка (The English Word): М.-Л., Просвещение, 1966.- (31-32pages).
2. Tukhtakhodjaeva Z.T., Saidova N.A., Yuldasheva D. SEMINARS IN MODERN ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY : Учебное пособие для семинарских занятий по курсу лексикологии современного английского языка: Т. "SHARQ" 2010.

SEMINAR 5

THEME: CHANGE OF MEANING AND ITS RESULT

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF SEMINAR SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабаларсони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машғулоти шакли ва тури</i>	Seminar (visual type)
<i>Машғулоти режаси /ўқув машғулоти тузилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 9. Causes of Semantic Change 10. Nature of Semantic Change 11. Results of Semantic Change 12. Interrelation of Causes, Nature and Results of Semantic Change
<i>Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:</i>	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; • to discuss semantic triangle • to analyze nouns semantic triangle	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> • Be able to understand causes of semantic change • Be able to understand nature of semantic change • Be able to analyze semantic change
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Seminar
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Seminar classroom

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF SEMINAR SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exercise on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

1. The object, goals and problems of Lexicology as a linguistic science

- Meaning and context.
- Change of meaning of words.

Exercise 1: Answer the following questions:

1. What causes of semantic change do you know?
2. What linguistic causes of semantic change can be singled out?
3. What two kinds of the nature of semantic change can be distinguished?
4. What is a metaphor? What is the similarity based on?
5. What is a metonymy? What words are often used metonymically?

Exercise 2. What meanings does a polysemantic word 'nice' have in the following sentences? What is the role of the context?

1. One of the nicest things about her is her sense of humour. 2. I asked him in the nicest possible way not to park in front of my garage. 3. He is not very nice to her when he has had a few drinks. 4. The discussion on one of the nice points of law seemed to be endless. 5. You need a nice hot bath after such a tiring day. 6. He has a nice taste in garment. 7. This is a nice mess you've got us into! 8. She's not too nice in her business methods.

Exercise 3. Discuss the meanings of the words and word forms of 'die', 'white', 'black', 'house'. How are the meanings of each of these words related?

1. The old traditions are dying out. Die in the car crash. Die of embarrassment. Die of cancer. Die in ones' bed. The day is dying. Die in harness. Die a lingering death. His secret dies with him. The flame flickered and died. I'm dying for a drink. The play quickly died the death. Never say die. The noise died away. The rabbits died out.

2. White face. White lie. White elephant. White sugar. White meat. White hair. White teeth. A white youth in his twenties. White coffee.

3. Black clouds. Black tea. Black community. Hands black with grime. Black despair. To be in a black mood. A black comedy.

4. The White House. An ancient trading house. Don't wake the whole house. On the house. A two-bedroom house. He played to packed houses. To urge the house to vote. Bring the house down. To keep house.

Recommended reading

1. Арнольд И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка (The English Word):М.-Л., Просвещение, 1966.- (31-32pages).

2. TukhtakhodjaevaZ.T., SaidovaN.A., YuldashevaD. SEMINARS IN MODERN ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY :Учебное пособие для семинарских занятий по курсу лексикологии современного английского языка: Т. " SHARQ" 2010.

SEMINAR 6

THEME: SEMANTIC SYSTEMS IN ENGLISH. POLYSEMY, HOMONYMS.

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF LECTURE SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабаларсони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машғулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	Seminar (visual type)
<i>Машғулот режаси /ўқув машғулотининг тузилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 3. Polysemy 4. Homonyms
<i>Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:</i>	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; • to discuss semantic triangle • to analyze nouns semantic triangle	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> • Be able to understand polysemies. • Be able to understand homonyms. • Be able to analyze semantic systems of the English language.
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Seminar
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Seminar classroom

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF SEMINAR SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard

2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exerciese on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

A. ITEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. THE DEFINITION. TYPES OF HOMONYMS, THEIR CLASSIFICATION.
2. SOURCES OF HOMONYMS IN ENGLISH.
3. THE DIFFERENTIATION BETWEEN POLYSEMY AND HOMONYMY.

B. SUGGESTED QUESTIONS AND ASSIGNMENTS

1. HOW CAN THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY BE CLASSIFIED?
2. GIVE THE DEFINITION OF HOMONYMS. WHAT IS THEIR ROLE IN THE LANGUAGE?
3. HOW CAN HOMONYMS BE CLASSIFIED? WHAT PRINCIPLES ARE THE CLASSIFICATIONS BASED ON?
4. WHAT ARE THE SOURCES OF HOMONYMS?
5. WHAT IS THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN POLYSEMY AND HOMONYMY? WHAT ARE
6. THE CRITERIA OF DELIMITATION OF POLYSEMOUS AND HOMONYMOUS WORDS?

C. EXERCISES

Exercise 1: *Spell the following homophones. Translate them into Uzbek and use them in sentences of your own.*

[sierial], [fa:6e], [lein], [meiz], [dia], [pleit], [prei], [0roun], [bi:f], ['beri], [seil], [sent], [pi:s]

Exercise 2: *Transcribe the following homographs. State their different meaning.*

Lead, compact, row, invalid, polish, desert, wind, bow, tear, close

Exercise 3: *Choose the right word:*

- 1) Our team will (lose, loose) unless it learns to pass the ball.
- 2) After dinner we all (set, sat) round the table.
- 3) Ann will clean all the carpets (accept, except) this one.
- 4) Liz (quite, quiet, quit) likes her job and spends a lot of time at work.
- 5) Nick is not sure (weather, whether) Jeff is going with us.
- 6) Kim (through, threw) the javelin a record distance.

Exercise 4: *Speak about the type of homonyms and explain the difference:*

proceed - precede; access - excess; principal - principle; affect- effect; stationary - stationery; dessert - desert n - desert v; cite -site - sight; persecute - prosecute; peace - piece

Exercise 5: *Explain what stylistic device is used in these proverbs and sayings, what it is based upon.*

- 1) A clean fast is better than a dirty breakfast.
- 2) Who feasts till he is sick, must fast till he is well.
- 3) Feast today and fast tomorrow.
- 4) - Is life worth living? - It depends upon the liver.
- 5) - What do you do with the fruit? -We eat what we can, and what we can't eat we can.
- 6) Her nose was sharp, but not so sharp as her voice or the suspiciousness, with which she faced me.
- 7) Nowadays all of us are so hard up, that only pleasant things to pay are compliments, so it's the only thing we pay.
- 8) When the life goes tough, the tough get going.

Exercise 6: *Give words homonymous with the following and say what they mean:*

Fare, flour, rite, soul, horse, beat, which, plane, gate, break

Exercise 7: *The following are homographs. How are they pronounced and what do they mean ?*

Bow - bow, desert - desert, lead - lead, minute - minute, row -row, rear - tear, wind - wind.

Exercise 8: *Find the homophones to the following words and say what they mean:*

sum, coarse, sight, hare, sail, sell, blue, beach, led.

Exercise 9: *Would you expect the following words to be entered more than once in a dictionary (as homographs) or to be treated in a single entry (as a case of polysemy). First make a guess then consult a dictionary.*

coach (bus, give training)
 cobble (stone for paving, mend shoes)
 fence (round a field, sport using a sword)
 mount (ascend, mountain) .
 rook (bird, chess piece)
 stable (firmly fixed, place for horses) ,

Exercise 10: *Find the meanings of the archaic words in the following list:*

Phaeton, hapless, damsel, swain, reck, palter, nonce, huggermugger, haply.

Recommended reading

1. Арнольд И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка (The English Word): М.-Л., Просвещение, 1966.- (31-32pages).
2. Tukhtakhodjaeva Z.T., Saidova N.A., Yuldasheva D. SEMINARS IN MODERN ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY : Учебное пособие для семинарских занятий по курсу лексикологии современного английского языка: Т. " SHARQ" 2010.

SEMINAR 7

THEME: SYNONYMS, ANTONYMS

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF SEMINAR SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабаларсони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машгулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	Seminar (visual type)
<i>Машгулот режаси /ўқув машгулотининг тузилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 3. Synonyms 4. Antonyms
<i>Ўқув машгулоти мақсади:</i>	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; • to discuss semantic	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> • Be able to understand synonyms. • Be able to understand antonyms. • Be able to analyze semantic systems of the English language.

triangle • to analyze nouns semantic triangle	
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Seminar
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Seminar classroom

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF SEMINAR SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exerciese on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

The objects and goals :

- *the classification according to the type of composition: Polysemy, Homonyms, Synonyms, Antonyms.*
- *the classification of compounds according to the structure of immediate constituents.*

Exercise 1: *In what respects do the following synonyms differ?*

1. policeman, bobby, cop
2. master, owner, head, proprietor, possessor
3. worker, labourer, toiler, hand
4. fabricate, construct, frame, invent, forge, manufacture, feign
5. mansion, house, habitation, residence, abode, hut, cottage

Exercise 2: *Change the following sentences so that they express the contrary meaning by using antonyms. State whether they are absolute or derivational antonyms.*

1. All the seats were occupied.
2. The room was lighted by the strong rays of the sun.
3. He added three hundred to the sum.
4. I came in while you were asleep.
5. A lamp is a necessary thing in this room.
6. The door was closed and locked.
7. In the second year of their residence the company seemed especially to increase.
8. The little boy was outside the car.
9. He drew two crooked lines.
10. Light curtains hung in the dining-room windows; therefore it was light.

Exercise 3: Are the following words synonyms? Prove your point of view.

pillow, cushion	mirror, looking glass
sink, basin	fireplace, mantelpiece
desktop, laptop	watch, clock
stove, vent	sail, float, swim
linen, underwear	hurt, ache
mustache, whiskers	cut, slice, chop
rack, shelf	clean, peel
clock, watch	eatable, edible
rocket, missile	private, personal

Exercise 5: Is Sonnet 130 by W. Shakespeare based on similarity of meaning of words? Are those words synonyms? Prove.

W. Shakespeare Sonnet CXXX

My mistress' eyes are nothing like the sun,
Coral is far more red than her lips' red;
If snow be white, why then her breasts are dun;
If hairs be wires, black wires grow on her head.
I've seen roses damasked, red and white,
But no such roses see I in her cheeks;
And in some perfumes is there more delight
That in the breath that from my mistress reeks.
I love to hear her speak, yet well I know
That music hath a far more pleasant sound;
I grant I never saw a goddess go,
My mistress, when she walks, treads on the ground;
And yet by heaven, I think my love as rare
As any she belied with false compare.
Recommendation: Learn this world-famous sonnet by heart!

Exercise 6: Keeping in mind that problems such as meaning equivalence should be approached on the basis of 'graduation' because there are comparatively few clear-cut cases, find in the following list of words synonymic series and classify them into three groups:

a) synonyms which display an obvious semantic difference (ideographic synonyms);

b) synonyms which display an obviously stylistic difference (stylistic synonyms);

c) synonyms more or less equally displaying both differences.

Ailing, arrogant, battle, begin, behold, bicker, brawl, bright, callous, clever, commence, conflict, conquest, consume, cruel, defeat, devour, diseased, despiteous, dumb, easy, eat, engorge, facile, fatuous, fight, food, grub, hard-boiled, haughty, high-hat, hoity-toity, horse, ill, inept, ingest, intelligent, light, masticate, obduracy, pace, proud, quarrel, sagacious, see, shrewd, snobbish, snooty, squabble, steed, stride, stroll, stupid, supercilious, tiff, walk.

Exercise 7: With the help of dictionaries explain the meaning of each member of the synonymic

groups given below. Give their synonymic dominants.
 bystander - spectator - looker-on; cry - weep - shed tears - sob
 -snivel - wail -whimper; distinguished - illustrious - famous - noted
 - eminent - celebrated.

Exercise 8: Find antonyms to the following words:

Add, asleep, correct, despair, different, esteem, exclude, handsome, high, mount, profound, reject, scarce, truth, weak.

Exercise 9: Name classifiers (hyperonyms) for the following groups of hyponyms:

- a) lettuce, peas, onion, paprika, cucumber, leek
- b) Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, Neptune

Recommended reading

1. Арнольд И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка (The English Word):М.-Л., Просвещение, 1966.- (31-32pages).
2. Tukhtakhodjaeva Z.T., SaidovaN.A., YuldashevaD. SEMINARS IN MODERN ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY :Учебное пособие для семинарских занятий по курсу лексикологии современного английского языка: Т. “ SHARQ” 2010.

SEMINAR 8

THEME: CLASSIFICATION OF SEMANTIC WORDS

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF SEMINAR SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабаларсони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машғулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	Seminar (visual type)
<i>Машғулот режаси /ўқув машғулотининг тузилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 1. Ways of enriching vocabulary 2. The classification of the English vocabulary 3. Morphological grouping 4. Thematic and ideographic groups 5. Terminological systems 6. Different types of non-semantic groupings.
<i>Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:</i>	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme;	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> • Be able to understand morphological grouping . • Be able to understand thematic and ideographic groups antonyms.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> to discuss semantic triangle to analyze nouns semantic triangle 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> able to analyze The classification of the English vocabulary
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Seminar
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Seminar classroom

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF SEMINAR SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exerciese on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

Discuss question:

1. Ways of enriching vocabulary
2. The classification of the English vocabulary
3. Morphological grouping
4. Thematic and ideographic groups
5. Terminological systems
6. Different types of non-semantic groupings.

Exercise 1.

Give American English equivalents of the following British English words.

Aubergine, draughts, eraser, fortnight, full stop, interval, ladybird, parcel, porridge, post, roundabout, queue, tin, waistcoat.

Exercise 2.

Give British English equivalents of the following American English words.

First floor, French fries, garbage, gear shift, pitcher, sidewalk, sneakers, trashcan.

Exercise 3.

Divide the words into two groups: a) American English, b) British English.

Airplane, cookie, faucet, gas, highway, knickers, lift, lorry, mailman, motorway, pants, petrol, streetcar, store, subway, tram, truck, tube, vacation, wireless.

Exercise 4.

Spell the following words according to British English norms of spelling.

Acknowledgment, behavior, catalog, center, color, favor, gram, harbor, humor, jewelry, judgment, labor, marvelous, odor, offense, pajamas, program, theater, traveling, woolen.

Exercise 4.

In the following sentences, find American English words and divide them into 3 groups: a) proper Americanisms; b) historical Americanisms; c) words borrowed by American English.

Apartment, automobile, banjo, canyon, corn, coyote, fall, faucet, guess, hammock, moccasin, mosquito, racoon, railroad, ranch, toboggan, truck, wigwam.

Exercise 5.

Read the following extract. Find American English words and explain their meanings.

In the USA just as in Great Britain, you see the same shops with the same boards and windows in every town and village.

Shopping, however, is an art of its own and you have to learn slowly where to buy various things. If you are ill, you go to the chemist's. A chemist's shop is called a drugstore in the USA. In the larger drugstores you buy drugs, but here you also can get also other types of goods, for example cosmetics. Business in department stores consists in selling stationery, candies, toys, braces, belts, fountain pens, furniture, jewellery, etc. You must be extremely careful concerning the names of certain articles. If you ask for suspenders in a man's shop, you receive a pair of braces, if you ask for a pair of pants, you receive a pair of trousers and should you ask for a pair of braces, you receive a queer look. I should like to mention that although a lift is called an elevator in the USA, when hitch-hiking you do not ask for an elevator, you ask for a lift. There's some confusion about the word flat. A flat in America is called an apartment; what they call a flat is a puncture in your tire. Consequently the notice: "Flats Fixed" does not indicate an estate agent where they are going to fix you up with a flat, but a garage where they are equipped to mend a puncture.

Recommended reading

1. Арнольд И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка (The English Word): М.-Л., Просвещение, 1966.- (31-32pages).
2. Tukhtakhodjaeva Z.T., Saidova N.A., Yuldasheva D. SEMINARS IN MODERN ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY : Учебное пособие для семинарских занятий по курсу лексикологии современного английского языка: Т. " SHARQ" 2010.

SEMINAR 9

THEME: MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF THE WORD

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF SEMINAR SESSION

Вақт: 2

Талабаларсони: 30-34

Ўқув машгулотининг шакли ва тури	Seminar(visual type)
Машгулот режаси /ўқув машгулотининг тузилиши	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 1. Morphemes. Types of morphemes 2. Principles of morphemic analysis 3. Principles of Derivational analysis. Stems. Types of Stems.
Ўқув машгулоти мақсади:	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.
Педагогик вазифалар: • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; • to discuss semantic triangle • to analyze nouns semantic triangle	Ўқув фаолияти натижалари: • Be able to understand morphemes. • Be able to understand principles of morphemic analysis. • Be able to analyze types of steps.
Таълим усуллари	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
Таълим шакли	Seminar
Таълим воситалари	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
Таълим бериш шароити	Seminar classroom

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF SEMINAR SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exerciese on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

The objects and goals :

- *The morpheme, its characternstics and types*
- *Methods of the morphological analysis of the word*
- *Grammatical (inflectional) and derivational (affixational) morphemes*
- *The stem and its types*

Exercise 1: Divide the following words into their morphemes. Indicate which morphemes are inflectional and which are derivational.

Mistreatment; deactivation; psychology; airsickness; terrorized; uncivilized; lukewarm; arms; sooner.

Exercise 2: Identify the roots in the following words:

Readiness, tired, unassuming, deactivated, possible, racketeers, cloudiness, hopefully, exceptionally, derivational, inflectional, characteristics.

Exercise 3: Do the full morphological analysis of each of the following words step by step. The steps are:

1. Say how many morphemes are in the underlined word in each phrase, and rewrite the word with hyphens between the morphemes.
2. Identify each morpheme in the word as bound or free; root or non-root, inflectional or derivational, prefix or suffix. For inflectional morphemes, identify the category the inflection marks (tense, number, etc.), and whether or not the inflection appears in a regular or irregular form.
3. For bound morphemes, give at least two other words in which the same morpheme appears (same meaning; same or nearly same form). One example is done for you as a sample:

Example: Several Americanisms

America-an-ism-s

America- free root

-an: bound morpheme, derivational, suffix; e.g., 'Dominican', 'Republican', 'Asian'

-ism: bound morpheme, derivational, suffix; e.g., 'Communism', 'defeatism'

-s: bound morpheme, inflectional, regular plural; e.g., 'walls', 'things'

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. an unfortunate error | 7. Which scenario is unlikelier? |
| 2. exchanging pleasantries | 8. He unmasks me every time |
| 3. we have misidentified the victim | 9. the safest location |
| 4. children's clothing | 10. the inspector's parking place |
| 5. they're previewing the slides. | 11. They are all reactionaries. |
| 6. her two ex-husbands | 12. The play delighted us. |

Exercise 4: Identify inflectional and derivational morphemes in the following text:

Having thus answered the only objection that can ever be raised against me as a traveller, I here take a final leave of all my courteous readers and return to enjoy my own speculations in my little garden at Redriff; to apply those excellent lessons of virtue which I learned among the Houyhnhnms; to instruct the Yahoos of my own family, as far as I shall find them docile animals; to behold my figure often in a glass, and thus, if possible, habituate myself by time to tolerate the sight of a human creature, to lament the brutality to Houyhnhnms in my own country, but always treat their persons with respect, for the sake of my noble master, his family, his friends, and the whole Houyhnhnm race, whom these of ours have the honour to resemble in all their lineaments, however their intellectuals came to degenerate. ("Gulliver's Travels", J.Swift)

Recommended reading

1. Арнольд И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка (The English Word): Пособие для студентов английских и отделений педагогических институтов, М.-Л.,- (pages 145-180).
2. Tukhtakhodjaeva Z.T., Saidova N.A., Yuldasheva D. SEMINARS IN MODERN ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY :Учебное пособие для семинарских занятий по курсу лексикологии современного английского языка: Т. “ SHARQ” 2010.

SEMINAR 10

THEME: WORD FORMATION

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF SEMINAR SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабаларсони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машғулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	Senimar (visual type)
<i>Машғулот режаси /ўқув машғулотининг тузилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 9. Word formation and its basic peculiarities 10. Affixation 11. The Classification of Affixes 12. Word Cluster
<i>Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:</i>	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; • to discuss semantic triangle • to analyze nouns semantic triangle	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> • Be able to understand affixation. • Be able to understand word cluster. • Be able to analyze word formation.
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Senimar
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Senimar classroom

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF SEMINAR SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook

3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exercise on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

1.The objects and goals :

- *Affixation as a highly productive type of word formation. Types of affixes.*
- *Classification of affixes according to various criteria (position in structure, part-of-speech, origin, meaning, usage, etc.).*

Exercise 1: State the origin and explain the meaning of the suffixes and prefixes in:

Childhood, extravagant, hardship, ill-natured, freedom, underdeveloped, toward, irregular, brotherly, prewar, granny, reread, hatred, hireling, village, drunkard, limitation.

Exercise 2: Explain the difference between the meanings of the following words produced from the same root by means of different affixes. Translate them into Uzbek.

Watery - waterish, embarrassed - embarrassing, colourful - coloured, respected - respectful, respectable, manly - mannish.

Exercise 3: Use the prefixes and suffixes auto-, bio-, inter-, tele-, sub-, trans-, over-, -logy and the other clues given below, to build 12 words.

1. Something that moves, or is mobile, by itself, is: _____
2. "Graph" means recording or writing, so a word meaning 'self-writing' would be: _____
3. If "-matic" means working, then a mechanism that works by itself is: _____
4. Marine means to do with the sea. What can go under the sea? _____
5. A word meaning "across the sea" could be: _____
6. Portare is the Latin word 'to carry'. Make a word that means "carry across": _____
7. Flights "between nations" are described as: _____
8. Do you have 20/20 vision? This word means "seeing from far": _____
9. A word meaning "life study" is: _____
10. A piece of writing about someone else's life is: _____
11. Can you guess a word "own-life-writing"? _____
12. Can you guess the name of a science dealing with UFOs? _____

Exercise 4: Pick out words with noun-building suffixes. Explain the meaning of the words.

1. He did not know how the officialdom would end the scandal. 2. Gemma's friendship, her charm, her simple comradeship were the brightest things in his life. 3. Gabriel's wife served out spoonfuls of the pudding and passed the plates down the table. 4. It was a dull,

respectable,uninspired townlet, but scarcely a hole. 5. The grey changelessnessof things got hold of me. 6. The cat is a splendid mouser. 7.When he returned to the palace the marketing began. 8. "Please,"auntie says, "will you try a piece of our Mayday cake?" 9. The pavement of the road took two months. 10. Shall I tell the receptionist thatMrs. Baird is a regular case and open an account for her?

Exercise 5: Determine what kind of morpheme is highlighted in the words below. Try to discover its origin. The item number follows the word in analysis. Put the Nos after each classification in the given column:

- Grammatical inflection _____
- **Noun**-forming suffix _____
- Verb**-forming suffix _____
- Adjective**-forming suffix _____

It was a dark and tempestuous(1) night. Suddenly, an explosion(2) pierced(3) the silence(4). The maid's(5) persistent(6) screams(7) rang from the conservatory(8). The butler was running(9) up the stairs, when he stumbled over the prostrate(10) body of his erstwhile employer(11), a reclusive(12) industrialist(13). Quickly, he deduced that the man had been given(14) a fatal(15) dose of an anesthetic(16). A fragile(17) document(18) was missing from the gigantic(19) safe. He began to organize(20) a reconnaissance(21) to search for the fugitive(22). After that, he planned to interrogate(23) the miscreant(24).

Recommended reading

1. Арнольд И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка (The English Word): Пособие для студентов английских и отделений педагогических институтов, М.-Л.,- (pages 145-180).
2. Tukhtakhodjaeva Z.T., Saidova N.A., Yuldasheva D. SEMINARS IN MODERN ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY :Учебное пособие для семинарских занятий по курсу лексикологии современного английского языка: Т. “ SHARQ” 2010.

SEMINAR 11

THEME: CONVERSION

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF SEMINAR SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабаларсони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машғулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	Seminar(visual type)
<i>Машғулот режаси /ўқув машғулотининг тузилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 5. Definition of conversion 6. The most common types of conversion 7. Criteria of semantic derivation 8. Substantivization of Adjectives

<i>Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:</i>	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; • to discuss semantic triangle • to analyze nouns semantic triangle 	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Be able to understand conversion . • Be able to understand types of conversion. • Be able to analyze criteria of semantic derivation.
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Seminar
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Seminar classroom

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF SEMINAR SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exerciese on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

Answer the following questions

1. When was the term «conversion» first used?
2. What approaches to the study of conversion do you know?
3. Why do the treatments of conversion as a non-affixal word-building, a shift from one part of speech to another cause doubt to us?
4. What is A. I. Smirnitsky's point of view to conversion?
5. What problems of conversion do you study on the diachronic level?
6. What is the origin of conversion?
7. How is conversion treated on synchronic level?
8. What are the most common types of conversion do you know?
9. What are the less common types of conversion?
10. How is the derived word connected with the underlying word in their meaning in converted pairs?
11. How tshould we say that one of the members of converted pairs is a derived word?

Recommended reading

1. Арнольд И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка (The English Word): Пособие для студентов английских и отделений педагогических институтов, М.-Л.,- (pages 145-180).
2. Tukhtakhodjaeva Z.T., Saidova N.A., Yuldasheva D. SEMINARS IN MODERN ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY :Учебное пособие для семинарских занятий по курсу лексикологии современного английского языка: Т. “ SHARQ” 2010.

SEMINAR 12

THEME: SECONDARY WAYS OF WORDFORMATION

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF SEMINAR SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабаларсони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машгулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	seminar (visual type)
<i>Машгулот режаси /ўқув машгулотининг тузилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 1. Shortened words abbreviations and clippings 2. Classification of abbreviations 3. Splinters and their properties 4. Sound interchange 5. Stress interchange 6. Sound imitation 7. Backformation 8. Blending
<i>Ўқув машгулоти мақсади:</i>	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; • to discuss semantic triangle • to analyze nouns semantic triangle	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> • Be able to understand classification og abbreviation . • Be able to understand splinters and their properties. • Be able to analyze sound and stress interchanges.
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	seminar
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Seminar classroom

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF SEMINAR SESSION

Plan

	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exercise on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

Discuss the following questions

1. What do you understand by the term «shortening»?
2. Why can't we say that shortening is a derivational word-formation?
3. What distinction is made between abbreviations and clippings.
4. What is the classification of clippings?
5. What -is the peculiarity of shortened words?
6. . What is the difference between the clipping and the original word?
7. What is the homonymy of abbreviations?
8. What do you understand by the term sound-interchange?
9. What is the distinction between vowel-interchange and consonant—interchange?
10. What is understood by the term «backfor-mation?»
11. What is the peculiarity of blending as a means of word -formation?
12. What is a splinter?

Recommended reading

1. Арнольд И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка (The English Word): Пособие для студентов английских и отделений педагогических институтов, М.-Л.,- (pages 145-180).
2. Tukhtakhodjaeva Z.T., Saidova N.A., Yuldasheva D. SEMINARS IN MODERN ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY :Учебное пособие для семинарских занятий по курсу лексикологии современного английского языка: Т. “ SHARQ” 2010.

SEMINAR 13

THEME: PHRASEOLOGY

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF SEMINAR SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабаларсони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машғулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	seminar (visual type)

<i>Маиғулот режаси /ўқув маиғулотининг тузилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 4. Definition of phraseological units, their stability and ideomaticity 5. Ways of forming phraseological units 6. Classification of phraseological units
<i>Ўқув маиғулотининг мақсади:</i>	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> • To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; • to discuss semantic triangle • to analyze nouns semantic triangle	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> • Be able to understand phraseological units . • Be able to understand ways of phraseological units. • Be able to analyze classification of phraseological units.
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	seminar
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Seminar classroom

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF SEMINAR SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exercise on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

Key words: *stability vs. changeability, idiomaticity vs. motivation, word equivalence, set expressions, idioms, phraseological units (PhU), phraseological fusions, phraseological unities, phraseological collocations; traditional collocations, idioms proper, ready made utterances; free (variable) context combinations – non-variable (stable) context combinations, phrasemes vs. idioms.*

Look up these terms in the glossary or in the sources indicated in the bibliography to the glossary. Compare the definitions given in English and in Russian.

Problems for Discussion

1. Motivation and variability of word combinations.
2. Free phrases versus phraseological units. Criteria and difficulties of differentiation.
3. Types of phraseological units. Classifications and their evaluation.
4. Linguistic laws of PhUs formation. Activity of words and syntactic patterns.
5. Contrastive study of phraseology. Common sources as the foundation for equivalent phraseological units. Socio-cultural properties of phraseological units.

Questions and Tasks

1. Analyze the following word combinations and comment on their meaning and variability of the components: *settle the future of the country, shake hands on (over) the bargain, sink or swim, speak of the devil and he is sure to appear, wait for the postman, for a friend, for the train, for instructions.*
2. Classify the following phraseological units using semantic, contextual and functional criteria: *drenched to the bone, a break in the clouds, creditors have better memories than debtors, good egg, put all one's eggs in one basket, separate the husk from the grain, Attic salt, to lick the boots, break bread with smb, shoot the bull.*

Recommended Reading

1. Арнольд, И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка / И.В. Арнольд; на англ. яз. – 3-е изд. – М.: Высш. шк., 1986. – С. 153–164.
2. Лексикология английского языка / Р.З. Гинзбург [и др.]; на англ. яз. – 2-е изд., испр. и доп. – М.: Высш. шк., 1979. – С. 127–140.
3. Смирницкий, А.И. Лексикология английского языка / А.И. Смирницкий. – М.: Изд-во лит. на иностр. яз., 1956. – С. 71 – 83, 99–100.
4. Харитончик, З.А. Лексикология английского языка / З.А. Харитончик. – Минск: Вышэйш. шк., 1992. – С. 166–176.

SEMINAR 14

THEME: ETYMOLOGY

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF SEMINAR SESSION

Вақт: 2	Талабаларсони: 30-34
Ўқув машғулотининг шакли ва тури	lecture (visual type)
Машғулот режаси /ўқув машғулотининг тузилиши	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Origin of words in English 2. The penetration of borrowed words in English 3. The classification of borrowed words 4. Assimilation of borrowed words in English 5. Classification of borrowings according to the language from which they were borrowed 6. Etymological doublets 7. The result of borrowings
Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:	To provide students with information about the structure of the

	word.
<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; to discuss semantic triangle to analyze nouns semantic triangle 	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Be able to understand the origin of words . Be able to understand classification of borrowings. Be able to analyze etymological doublets.
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Lecture
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Lecture hall

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF SEMINAR SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exercise on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

Exercise 1. Etymological survey of the English word-stock. Topics for discussion.

1. Definition of terms native, borrowing, translation loan, semantic loan.
2. Words of native origin and their characteristics.
3. Foreign elements in Modern English. Scandinavian borrowings, classical elements-Latin and Greek, French borrowings.
4. Assimilation of borrowings. Types and degrees of assimilation.
5. Etymological doublets, hybrids.
6. International words

Exercise 2.

Explain the origin of the following words: *father, brother, mother, dog, cat, sheep, wolf, house, life, earth, man, apple, live, go, give, begin, strong, long, wide, to, for, from, and, with, I, he, two, well, much, little.*

Exercise 3.

Analyse the following words from the point of view of the type and degree of assimilation. State which words are: a) completely assimilated; b) partially assimilated; c) non-

assimilated: *prima-donna, ox, caftan, city, school, etc., mazurka, table, street, they, century, sky, wall, stimulus, reduce, cup, present.*

Exercise 4.

Comment on the different formation of the doublets and on the difference in meaning, if any: balm-balsam, suit-suite, senior-sir, legal-loyal, skirt-shirt, emerald-smaragdus, major-mayor, pauper-poor, of-off, history-story, catch-chase.

Exercise 5.

Read the following text. Find the international words. State to what sphere of human activity they belong. British dramatists.

In the past 20 years there has been a considerable increase in the number of new playwrights in Britain and this has been encouraged by the growth of new theatre companies. In 1956 the English Stage Company began productions with the object of bringing new writers into the theatre and providing training facilities for young actors, directors, and designers; a large number of new dramatists emerged as a result of the company productions. Television has been an important factor in the emergence of other dramatists who write primarily for it; both the BBC and IBA transmit a large number of single plays each year as well as drama series and serials.

Recommended Reading

1. *Арнольд, И.В.* Лексикология современного английского языка / И.В. Арнольд; на англ. яз. – 3-е изд. – М.: Высш. шк., 1986. – С. 153–164.
2. Лексикология английского языка / Р.З. Гинзбург [и др.]; на англ. яз. – 2-е изд., испр. и доп. – М.: Высш. шк., 1979. – С. 127–140.
3. *Смирницкий, А.И.* Лексикология английского языка / А.И. Смирницкий. – М.: Изд-во лит. на иностр. яз., 1956. – С. 71 – 83, 99–100.
4. *Харитончик, З.А.* Лексикология английского языка / З.А. Харитончик. – Минск: Вышэйш. шк., 1992. – С. 166–176.

SEMINAR 15

THEME: METHODS OF USING VOCABULARY UNITS

TECHNOLOGICAL MODUL OF SEMINAR SESSION

<i>Вақт: 2</i>	<i>Талабаларсони: 30-34</i>
<i>Ўқув машғулотининг шакли ва тури</i>	seminar (visual type)
<i>Машғулот режаси /ўқув машғулотининг тузилиши</i>	-to discuss the key concepts under the given theme -to explain the essence of the themes: 4. The diachronic approach 5. The synchronic approach 6. Statistical methods
<i>Ўқув машғулоти мақсади:</i>	To provide students with information about the structure of the word.

<i>Педагогик вазифалар:</i>	<i>Ўқув фаолияти натижалари:</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To introduce the main concepts under the given theme; to discuss semantic triangle to analyze nouns semantic triangle 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Be able to understand the diachronic approach . Be able to understand the synchronic approach. Be able to analyze by statistic methods.
<i>Таълим усуллари</i>	Brainstorming, debate, cluster, fan, Venn diagram
<i>Таълим шакли</i>	Seminar
<i>Таълим воситалари</i>	Report, handouts, computer, speakers, video
<i>Таълим бериш шароити</i>	Seminar classroom

TECHNOLOGICAL MAP OF SEMINAR SESSION

Plan				
	Stages	Procedure	Time	Materials
1.	Lead in	Brainstorm.	5	Blackboard
2.	Questionnaire on learning styles	Checking home-assignment. Analysing mistakes and omissions.	20	Textbook
3.	Your own style	Discussing information from previous lesson. Introducing new topic.	15	Slides Handouts
4.	Activities addressing all learning styles	Exerciese on the new topic.	25	Audio & Video materials, Handouts
5.	Reflection and action	Reflecting on the session; making an action plan	10	Handouts
6.	Outcomes	Eliciting outcomes of the session from Participants	5	None

Use the suggested scheme of lexicological analysis

Task 1. Etymology of the words, Identify native and foreign words in the text (of Greek, Latin, French, Italian, Spanish, Russian etc, origin). Determine the type of assimilation (phonetic, grammatical, lexical), the degree of assimilation (complete, partial, lack of assimilation).

Task 2. Word-formation. Find productive and non-productive ways of word-formation in the text. Find derived and compound words in the text Determine the type of word-derivation (affixation or conversion). State morphemic structure of the derived words, types of morphemes Determine the type of compound words (compound proper, derivational compounds, words of secondary derivation). Find other cases of word formation in the text.

Task 3. Free-word groups. Pick out from the text some free word-groups, determine their type according to the syntactic connection between the components. Classify the selected free word-groups according to the part of speech the head-word belongs to. Define the context (grammatical, lexical) for the headword in the selected word-groups.

Task 4. Phraseological Units. Find the phraseological units in the text. Making use of semantic, contextual and functional classifications of phraseological units define their types.

Task 5. Semantics. Define the meanings of words in free word-groups which you selected for the analysis. Using the dictionary state whether the words are used in their main or derived meanings. Determine the context (lexical or grammatical) which helps to actualise the meaning of polysemantic word.

Recommended Reading

1. *Арнольд, И.В.* Лексикология современного английского языка / И.В. Арнольд; на англ. яз. – 3-е изд. – М.: Высш. шк., 1986. – С. 153–164.
2. Лексикология английского языка / Р.З. Гинзбург [и др.]; на англ. яз. – 2-е изд., испр. и доп. – М.: Высш. шк., 1979. – С. 127–140.
3. *Смирницкий, А.И.* Лексикология английского языка / А.И. Смирницкий. – М.: Изд-во лит. на иностр. яз., 1956. – С. 71 – 83, 99–100.
4. *Харитончик, З.А.* Лексикология английского языка / З.А. Харитончик. – Минск: Вышэйш. шк., 1992. – С. 166–176.

INDEPENDENT STUDY TASKS

5-semester

#	Theme	Ways of doing task	Hours
1	Lexicology and language.	Power point presentation	4
2	Phonetic and morphological aspects of words.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	4
3	Qualitative and quantitative aspects of vocabulary.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	4
4	Archaisms and neologisms.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	4
5	Activity of lexical naming and ways to enrich vocabulary.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	4
6	Etymological classification of the language vocabulary.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	4
7	Paradigmatics and syntagmatics in studying the structure of word meaning role.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	4
8	Types of meaning and lexical-semantic meanings of the word.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	4
9	Synonyms, antonyms and homonyms.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	6
10	Morphological construction of the word.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	4
11	Stable and free compounds.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	4
12	Similarity and difference of word combination.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	4
13	Etymology of words.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	4
14	Lexical analysis of texts	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	6
Total			60

COURSE PAPER TOPICS

1. Semasiologiya: Soʻzlarning fonetik va semantik aspektlari
2. Kontekst turlari, maʼnoning turlari va soʻzning leksik-semantik variantlari, semantik maydon.
3. Monosemiya, polisemiya, giperonimiya -giponimiya muammolari.
4. Sinonimlar va ularning tasnifi
5. Antonimlar va ularning tasnifi
6. Omonimlar va ularning tasnifi.
7. Soʻzning morfologik qurilishi: morfemalar tiplari va sinflari.
8. Soʻz tuzilishi, diaxronik va sinxronik qarashlar.
9. Morfema va allomorfemalar.
10. Soʻz yasash: leksik nom berishda soʻz yasashning roli va oʻrni.
11. Konversiya, uning kelib chiqishi va asoslari.
12. Qoʻshma soʻzlarni ona tiliga tarjima qilishning yoʻllari.
13. Qisqartma soʻzlar.
14. Frazologiya: turgʻun va erkin birikmalarni farqlash muammosi.
15. Frazologik birliklar va ularning shakllanish etimologiyasi
16. Etimologiya: Oʻrganilayotgan tilda paydo boʻlgan soʻzlar va boshqa tillardan kirib kelgan soʻzlar va ularning turlari, oʻzlashtirilishi, assimilyatsiya.
17. Internatsional soʻzlar va etimologik dubletlar.
18. Leksikografiya: oʻrganilayotgan til lugʻat tarkibining umumiy tasnifi.

CONTROL TASKS AND TEST QUESTIONS

CONTROL TASKS

Variant 1

1. What is the subject-matter of Lexicology?
2. What is a morpheme?
3. What is the subject-matter of wordformation?

Variant 2

1. What types of Lexicology do you know?
2. What do you understand by affixation?
3. What is understood by a word cluster?

Variant 3

1. What approaches to the study of conversion do you know?
2. What is understood by the term «polysemy»?
3. What are the synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of compound words?

Variant 4

1. What is a homonym?
2. How do we analyse polysemy diachronically?
3. What is semasiology busy with?

Variant 5

1. What is a phraseological unit?
2. What words are called borrowed words?
3. What is the conceptual analysis of words?

Variant 6

1. What is the transformational analysis?
2. How do we analyse homonyms?
3. What is the difference between stylistically marked words and stylistically neutral words?

Variant 7

1. What is the Cognitive analysis of words?
2. What are the grammatical differences of English in Great Britain and in the USA.
3. What does the entry of a word in the dictionary contain?

Variant 8

1. What is a phonetic, grammatical, lexical assimilation?
2. What is the influence of borrowings on the vocabulary of the English language?
3. What is the ideomaticity of phraseological units?

Variant 9

1. What do you understand by the term «shortening»?
2. What is the difference between the grammatical meaning and the lexical meaning?
3. What is the difference between ideographic synonyms and stylistic ones?

Variant 10

1. What is the development of a word cluster in the course of historical development of the English language?
2. How do we classify compound words from the point of view how the components are joined together?
3. What is the distinction between vowel-interchange and consonant—interchange?

Variant 11

1. What is understood by the term «backformation»? (written)
2. What is the difference between homonymy and polysemy? (written)
3. How does prof. N. N. Amasova classify phraseological units? (oral)

Variant 12

1. What is the influence of borrowings on the morphological structure of the English language?
2. What does lexicography study?
3. What are the lexical differences of English in Great Britain and in the USA.

Variant 13

1. How do we classify compound words from the functional point of view?
2. What is a splinter?
3. What principle of classification of homonyms was given by Smirnitsky?

Variant 14

1. What is a distributional analysis?
2. What types of dictionaries do you know?
3. What is academician V. V. Vinogradov's classification of phraseological units based on?

Variant 15

1. How is Lexicology connected with grammar (phonetics, stylistics, history of the language)?
2. What can you say about the types of wordformation?
3. What is the difference between a word cluster and a word family?

Variant 16

1. Write about the subject-matter of Lexicology given in different literature
2. Write the morphemic structure of the word given in different books on Lexicology
3. Write the diachronic and the synchronic aspects of productivity

Variant 17

1. Write types of Lexicology given in different literature
2. Write synchronic and diachronic approaches to the analysis of the stem of the word
3. Write semantic relations between the components of a compound

Variant 18

1. Write the methods of linguistic research used in Lexicology and explain their significances
2. Analyse the most typical differences between synonyms as described by prof. V E. Collinson. Classify them according to the type of meaning: denotational and connotational
3. Write the difference between free word-groups and phraseological units

Variant 19

1. Compare the connection of Lexicology with Other aspects of the language given in different literature
2. Write about the difference between morphemic and derivational analysis of words in English
3. Compare two levels of morphological analysis the difference between derivative relevancy analysis. (Marchand)

Variant 20

1. Write the relationships existing between words
2. Compare different approaches to and different understandings of conversion
3. Write the problem of polysemy and the interrelation of polysemy and frequency value of the word

Variant 21

1. Write the morphemic analysis of the words in different languages with the help of I. C. method
2. Compare different approaches to synonymy
3. Write the assimilation of borrowings in English.

Variant 22

1. Write the influence of the different kinds of borrowings on the English language. Make special mention of different approaches to the effect on grammar
2. Write the process of back-formation and the degree of its productivity
3. Point out different types of English dictionaries

Variant 23

1. Compare types of morphemes given in different books on Lexicology
2. Compare different approaches to homonymy
3. Explain the difference in the borrowing of words and affixes

Variant 24

1. Write the difference between the morpheme, the phoneme and the word and express your point of view
2. Write suffixation as a means of word-formation
3. Compare the system of meanings of the Uzbek қилмок , бажармок and the English *make* and *do*

Variant 25

1. Write the three laws of synonymy; the law of distribution, the law of synonymic attraction and the law of radiation of synonyms
2. Write the French influence upon the English vocabulary and its difference- from earlier influences
3. Compare and Write different approaches to classification of word-groups

Variant 26

1. Discuss subdivisions of Lexicology given in different literature
2. Discuss different types of meaning: denotation and connotation, grammatical and lexical
3. Discuss prefixation as a means of word-formation. Note the peculiarities of prefixes used in scientific terminology

Variant 27

1. Express your attitude towards diachronic and synchronic approaches to the study of the vocabulary of the language
2. Write different linguists' point of views about the stem and its types
3. Write the so-called minor ways of word-formation: clipping, blending, phonetic symbolism

TEST QUESTIONS

1. Find the difference between morpheme and phoneme.
 - A. morphemes have stems
 - B. morphemes have no meaning but phonemes have
 - C. morphemes have meaning but phonemes have not
 - D. phonemes are meaningful
2. There exist types of lexicology
 - A. 4
 - B. 5
 - C. 3
 - D. 6
4. The relationship existing between words may be ...
 - A. paradygmatic
 - B. diachronic and synchronic
 - C. syntagmatic or paradigmatic
 - D. syntagmatic
5. The paradigmatic relationship is ...
 - A. found between words
 - B. found in the context
 - C. very important part of Lexicology
 - D. the relations between words within the vocabulary: polysemy, synonymy, antonymy
6. Etymologically the vocabulary of the English language consists of ...
 - A. two groups- the native words and the real words.
 - B. two groups- the native words and the borrowed words.
 - C. three groups- the native words, the real existed and the borrowed words.
 - D. the native words
7. Synonyms may be divided into:
 - A. stylistic and lexic synonyms.
 - B. native synonyms and borrowed synonyms
 - C. ideographic synonyms and stylistic synonyms
 - D. semantic and stylistic synonyms
8. Antonyms may be divided into:
 - A. native and root antonyms
 - B. stylistic and derivational antonyms

- C. root and stylistic antonyms
 - D. root antonyms and derivational antonyms
9. Antonyms which are formed by affixes are called ...
- A. derivational antonyms
 - B. root antonyms
 - C. stylistic antonyms
 - D. formed antonyms
10. There are two main types of dictionaries. They are ...
- A. general dictionaries and special dictionaries
 - B. general dictionaries and bilingual dictionaries
 - C. general dictionaries and special dictionaries
 - D. compiled dictionaries and special dictionaries
11. Translation or parallel dictionaries ...
- A. are word-books containing vocabulary items in one language
 - B. are word-books containing vocabulary items in 2 languages and their equivalents in another language.
 - C. are very important in studying Lexicology
 - D. are word-books containing vocabulary items in one language and their equivalents in another language.
12. What is Lexicography?
- A. Lexicography is a science of word-formation
 - B. Lexicography is a science of finding new words in the direct language
 - C. Lexicography is a book of synonyms
 - D. Lexicography is a science of compiling dictionaries
13. Find the homonyms
- A. good - bad
 - B. spring - spring
 - C. good – the best
 - D. main - man
14. According to their meaning words can be divided into ...
- A. homonyms and monosemantic words..
 - B. structural and lexical words.
 - C. antonyms and synonyms.
 - D. polysemantic and monosemantic words
15. How many meanings have polysemantic words ?
- A. only one meaning
 - B. only two meanings
 - C. more than two meanings
 - D. only one or two meanings
16. Monosemantic words have ...
- A. more than two meanings
 - B. only one meaning
 - C. I don't know
 - D. only two meanings
17. How many approaches are exist to the study of the vocabulary of a language?
- A. diachronic, synchronic and syntactical
 - B. diachronic and synchronic
 - C. lexical and syntactical
 - D. paradigmatic and syntagmatic
18. What is synchronic approach to the study of the vocabulary of a language?

- A. It deals with the vocabulary as it exists at a given time at the present time.
 - B. It studies the changes and the development of vocabulary in the course of time
 - C. It deals with the meaning of the words.
 - D. It studies the changes of the vocabulary
19. Neologisms are ...
- A. words newly coined words or phrase or a new meaning for an existing word or a word borrowed from another language
 - B. words belonging to the same part of speech.
 - C. overused words and phrases borrowed from another language.
 - D. new.
20. What is a native English word?
- A. A native word is a word which differs from borrowed word
 - B. A native word is a word which borrowed from other language stock.
 - C. A native word is a word which belongs to the original English stock.
 - D. An old borrowed word that became an English word.
21. Borrowings enter the language in ...
- A. through Internet.
 - B. three ways: through oral speech, written speech and books.
 - C. through oral speech
 - D. two ways: through oral speech and written speech
22. What is Semasiology?
- A. It studies the origin of words
 - B. It deals with the formation of the word.
 - C. It deals with the meaning of the word.
 - D. It studies compiling dictionaries.
23. What is Compound stem?
- A. Compound stem is stem which consist of two or more stems.
 - B. Compound stem is such a stem which can be divided into a root and an affix.
 - C. Compound stem is a part of the word which is identical with a root morpheme and to which the grammatical elements are added.
 - D. It is a very important component of root.
24. What is derived stem?
- A. A derived stems are stems which consist of two or more stems.
 - B. A derived stem is such a stem which can be divided into a root and an affix.
 - C. A derived stem is a part of the word which is identical with a root morpheme and to which the grammatical elements are added.
 - D. It is morpheme.
25. Explain the external structure of the word.
- A. It is meaning of the word.
 - B. It is morphological structure of the word
 - C. It is the word stock.
 - D. It is the origin of the word.
26. Explain the term “polysemy”.
- A. borrowed words
 - B. singularity of meaning
 - C. native words
 - D. plurality of meanings
27. Explain the term “borrowed words”
- A. words which belong to the original English stock
 - B. words taken over from other languages

- C. The disappearance of words
 - D. Words which are not used generally
28. Find the compound words (diachronically)
- A. friendly, boyfriend
 - B. childhood, kingdom
 - C. undone, fun
 - D. wisdom, gardener
29. What is the difference between synchronic and diachronic study of word-formation?
- A. There is no difference between them.
 - B. the synchronic word-formation studies the history of word-formation while the diachronic studies the present day system of formatting words types .
 - C. the synchronic word-formation studies the present day system of formatting words types while the diachronic studies the history of word-formation .
 - D. the synchronic word-formation studies only affixation and the diachronic studies secondary ways of word-formation.
30. Explain the term “word”
- A. The term «word» denotes the main lexical unit of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning.
 - B. The term «word» denotes a group of sounds.
 - C. The term «word» denotes the part of linguistics which deals with the vocabulary.
 - D. Lexical meaning.

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GLOSSARY OF LITERARY TERMS

antonym: a meaning which shares at least one COMMON COMPONENT with another meaning but which has an opposite value for a POLAR diagnostic component (*good—bad, tall—short*)

archaism: an expression which was used at an earlier period but which is no longer current in the language; opposed both to CONTEMPORARY USAC-E and to NEOLOGISM; archaic

central meaning: that meaning of a word which is generally understood when the word is given with no CONTEXT; also called unmarked meaning
channel capacity: in communication, the degree of ability which a RECEPTOR has to understand a MESSAGE. Channel capacity is conditioned both by the receptor's personal qualities and by his cultural background, and is a function of the amount of information which the receptor has in common with the author. The narrower the channel capacity, the more REDUNDANCY needs to be introduced to lighten the COMMUNICATION LOAD

classification: the system according to which a language distinguishes or groups aspects of experience, as symbolized by words, into DOMAINS which are covered by GENERIC terms

classifier: a term used with another term, often a proper name, to make clear what category and/or class it belongs to (*the city of Jerusalem*)

collocation: a structured combination of words with COMPATIBLE semantic components

common component: (1) a SEMANTIC COMPONENT which is shared by one meaning of each of several words, so that these meanings cover at least part of a DOMAIN; (2) a semantic component which is shared by several meanings of a word and which supports the intuition that it is one word rather than a set of HOMONYMS

common language: that portion of the total lexical, grammatical, and stylistic resources of a language which is both understood and accepted as good usage by all who know the language. Excluded are (a) LITERARY and TECHNICAL language, which are understood only by persons specially trained; (b) SUBSTANDARD and VULGAR language, which are unacceptable for serious communication; and (c) all features which are peculiar to any local, regional, or social DIALECT
communication: the act of transmitting a MESSAGE to a RECEPTOR; the closer the resemblance between the intent of the sender and the understanding of the receptor, the more effective the communication.

communication load: the degree of difficulty of a message, as measured by the ratio between the number of units of information and the number of formal units (i.e. words). An overloaded message can be made easier by the controlled addition of REDUNDANCY, which makes the ratio smaller.

connotation, connotative meaning: that aspect of meaning which concerns the emotional attitude of the author and the emotional RESPONSE of a receptor. It can be good or bad, strong or weak; words with very strong connotations, either good or bad, often become TABOO.
constituent part: same as COMPONENT ;I)

consumer language: that range of vocabulary, grammar, and style which a person can understand when he hears or reads it; more extensive than PRODUCER LANGUAGE : also called passive language

contemporary usage: that form of language which is used in the present day; opposed both to ARCHAISM and NEOLOGISM

context: the total setting in which a word is used, including the CULTURAL CONTEXT and the linguistic context, which in turn consists of the SYNTACTIC CONTEXT and the SEMOTACTIC CONTEXT. One function of the context is to select for each word the single appropriate meaning, and so to avoid ambiguity in a discourse, contextual conditioning: the placing in the context of information which is needed to make the meaning clear to a receptor, Typically, it

involves making explicit something which is implicit in the original message as by the use of classifiers.

contextual consistency: the quality which results from translating a source language word by that expression in the receptor language which best fits each context rather than by the same expression in all contexts (which is called VERBAL CONSISTENCY) ; one aspect of DYNAMIC EQUIVALENCE contrastive component: see DIAGNOSTIC COMPONENT

cultural context: that part of the CONTEXT which includes both the total culture within which a communication takes place and the specific nonlinguistic circumstances of the communication

denotation, denotative meaning: see REFERENTIAL MEANING dependent clause: see CLAUSE

derivation: see AFFIX

euphemism: a word or expression which is used in ordinary circumstances as a substitute for a TABOO word

homonym: a word which is written and/or pronounced in the same way as another, but which has an unrelated meaning

idiom: an expression consisting of several words and whose meaning cannot be derived from the meanings of the individual words, e.g. *kick the bucket* for *die*; also called exocentric expression idiomatic: see NATURAL

lexical: pertaining to the selection and use of words as units bearing meaning; related to SEMOTACTIC, but often more arbitrary than systematic linguistic context: that aspect of the CONTEXT which comprises the SYNTACTIC CONTEXT and the SEMOTACTIC CONTEXT

morpheme: the smallest grammatical piece in a language. Some words, especially particles, are composed of only one morpheme; others are composed of several morphemes, e.g. *un-shak-able*. Morphemes are often classified as stems and AFFIXES. morphology: see GRAMMAR; morphological

semantic area: that aspect of experience which is covered by a term or by a set of related terms

semantic component: a structural part of the REFERENTIAL MEANING of a word, discovered by COMPONENTIAL ANALYSIS. Semantic components may be common components, diagnostic components, or supplementary components, semantic field: see DOMAIN

semantics: that part of the structure of a language which deals with the meanings of words and expressions and also with the meaningful structure of discourse. One aspect, componential analysis, deals with referential meaning; another deals with connotation; distinguished" from grammar and phonology

semantic space: a conceptualization of the universe of experience in which meanings and domains are said to be near or far from each other according to the number and similarity of shared components or the degree of cultural and/or psychological association of ideas between them

set: a group of units, e.g. words, which share some feature (semantic, grammatical, or phonological) in common. Where the shared features are semantic, the terms constitute a CATEGORY or a DOMAIN ; where they are grammatical, the terms are a CLASS; and where they share only phonological or spelling similarity, they are

slang: a special vocabulary, typically used by adolescents to distinguish themselves from adults and to avoid being understood by adults, often characterized by extreme figurative language and sound symbolism; usually very temporary sound symbolism: the use of special sounds either to imitate or to represent conventionally certain meanings, especially certain connotations; frequently found in ideophones and slang

structure: (1) the patterns and rules according to which words, phrases, clauses, sentences, and discourses are built up out of their constituent parts. This is the structure of a language. (2) the characteristic form of a discourse built according to sense (1). This is, e.g., the structure of a sentence, of a discourse, style: the patterning of choices made by a particular author within the resources and limitations of the language and of the literary genre in which he is working. It is

the style which gives to a text its uniqueness and which relates the text personally to its author.

taboo: which is forbidden, either because it is dangerously- powerful (positive taboo) or because it defiles or saps one's life force (negative taboo). Words are often taboo, in which case they are replaced in ordinary usage by EUPHEMISMS.

transform (*to*): *to* convert a KERNEL or several kernels into a SURFACE STRUCTURE by the application of transformations

APPENDICES

ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС ТАЪЛИМ ВАЗИРЛИГИ

ЎЗБЕКИСТОН ДАВЛАТ ЖАҲОН ТИЛЛАРИ УНИВЕРСИТЕТИ



2020 йил "14" 08

Рўйхатга олинди: №БД-5111400-3.01
2020 йил "14" 08

ЎРГАНИЛАЁТГАН ТИЛ НАЗАРИЙ АСПЕКТЛАРИ

ФАН ДАСТУРИ

Билим соҳаси:	100000	– Гуманитар соҳа
Таълим соҳалари:	110000	– Педагогика
	120000	– Гуманитар фанлар
Таълим йўналишлари:	5111400	– Хорижий тил ва адабиёти (тиллар бўйича)
	5112200	– Мактабгача ва бошланғич таълимда хорижий тил (тиллар бўйича)
	5120100	– Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш (роман-герман филологияси)
	5120200	– Таржима назарияси ва амалиёти (роман-герман тиллари)

Фан/модуль коди O'TNA30118		Ўқув йили 2022/2023 2023/2024	Семестр 5-6 7-8	ECTS - Кредитлар 18	
Фан/модуль тури мажбурий		Таълим тили Инглиз/немис/француз/ испан/итальян		Хафтадаги дарс соатлари 4/4, 6/4	
1.	Фаннинг номи	Аудитория машғулоти (соат)	Мустақил таълим (соат)	Жами юклама (соат)	
	Ўрганилаётган тил назарий аспекти ¹	270	270	540	
2.	<p>I. Фаннинг мазмуни</p> <p>Фанни ўқитишдан мақсад – талабаларга ўрганилаётган тилнинг асосий назарий тушунчалари, чет тилини ўрганишнинг услуб ва ёндашувлари, тилнинг илмий билимлар тизимида тутган ўрни ва аҳамияти билан таништириш, уларга тил сатҳларининг нуткий мулоқот жараёнида кузатиладиган асосий қонуниятларини ўргатишдан иборат.</p> <p>Фаннинг вазифаси – талабаларга тил назарий аспектиларининг бир-бири билан ўзаро муносабатлари тўғрисидаги илмий-назарий тушунчаларни ўргатиш, уларнинг табиий тил моҳияти тўғрисидаги билимларини кенгайтириш, тилнинг ички тузилмаси, тил қатламлари ва бирликларини илмий асосда тадқиқ этиш қўникмаларини ривожлантиришдир.</p> <p>II. Асосий назарий қисм (маъруза машғулоти)</p> <p>“Ўрганилаётган тил назарий аспекти” фани таркибда 5 та модуль – “Лексикология”, “Назарий фонетика”, “Назарий грамматика”, “Стилистика” ва “Ўрганилаётган тил тарихи” ўқитилади.</p> <p>III. Фан таркибига қуйидаги мавзулар киради:</p> <p style="text-align: center;">1. ЛЕКСИКОЛОГИЯ</p> <p style="text-align: center;">1-мавзу. “Лексикология фанига кириш”</p> <p>Фаннинг мазмуни. Лексикология фан сифатида. Лексикология терминининг пайдо бўлиши ва ривожланиши. Лексикологиянинг бошқа фанлар билан боғлиқлиги. Фаннинг предмети ва объекти, фаннинг методи ва ишлатиш йўллари. Лексикология фанининг бўлимлари ва унинг бошқа қисмлари билан боғлиқлиги.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">2-мавзу. Лексикография</p> <p>Лексикографиянинг фан сифатида ривожланиши. Луғатларнинг асосий турлари: энциклопедик, лингвистик, изоҳли ва таржима луғатлари. Луғат турлари муаммоси ва уларни яратиш услублари. Луғатлар учун сўз танлаш, луғат мақолаларининг тузилиши ва бошқалар. Инглиз, немис, француз ва испан тилларидаги луғатларнинг асосий турлари: изоҳли ва таржима луғатлари,</p>				

¹ Ушбу дастурга “Хорижий тил ва адабиёти (тиллар бўйича)” таълим йўналиши ўқув режасидаги “Ўрганилаётган тил назарий аспекти” фани бўйича маълумотлар киритилган. Ишчи дастурларни тузишда йўналишлар хусусиятига қараб шу ерда келтирилган мавзулардан муҳим ва долзарб бўлганлари танланиши мақсадга мувофиқ.

синонимлар луғати, фразеологик бирликлар луғати, этимологик, идеографик, махсус луғатлар, неологизмлар луғатлари ва бошқалар.

Ўқув луғатларининг тузилиши (сўзларнинг бирикиш йўллари луғати, кўп қўлланиладиган сўзлар луғати). Турли луғатларда сўз маъноларини очиб бериш йўллари. Таржима жараёнида луғат билан ишлаш, Сўзнинг изоҳли таҳлилини ўрганиш, бошқа луғатлардаги изоҳлари билан киёслаш. Тил луғат таркибининг ўзгариши социолингвистик ҳодиса эканлиги. Луғат таркибининг сифат ва сон жиҳатдан ўзгариши. Луғат таркибининг лексик ва стилистик таснифи. Сўзларни ишлатилиши жиҳатидан тасниф этиш. Умумистеъмом сўзлари ва махсус лексика. Архаизмлар, историзмлар, неологизмлар, уларнинг тарихий боғлиқлиги ва ўзаро таъсири. Асосий ва ёрдамчи сўз туркумларининг сон жиҳатидан ўзаро фарқи. Номлашнинг фаоллиги ва луғат таркибининг бойиш йўллари. Сўзнинг маъно тараккиёти ривожи, бошқа тиллардан кирган сўзлар катлами.

3-мавзу. Семасиология

Сўз тил луғат таркибининг асосий бирлиги сифатида. Сўзнинг морфема, сўз шакли, сўз бирикмасидан фарқли хусусиятлари. Мотивация тушунчаси. Идиоматика ва мотивация турлари: фонетик, морфологик, семантик. Маъно ва сўз маъносининг тузилиши. Ўрганилаётган тил, она тили ва бошқа тиллардаги сўзларнинг семантик тузилиши. Сўз маъносининг тузилишини ўрганишда парадигматика ва синтагматиканинг роли. Контекст ва унинг турлари. Содда, туб, ясама ва қўшма сўзларнинг ўзига хос маънолари. Сўз маъноси ва унинг тузилиши. Фразеологик бирликлар маъноларининг хусусиятлари, маъно турлари таснифи. Сўзнинг лексик- семантик вариантлари.

4-мавзу. Сўз маъносининг ўзгариши ва натижалари

Маъно тузилишида синхроник ва диахроник қарашлар ва унинг ривожланиш қонуниятлари. Луғат бирлигини семантик гуруҳларга ажратиш.

5-мавзу. Семантик майдон тушунчаси

Моносемия, полисемия, омонимлар-тил бирликлари сифатида. Гиперонимия ва гипонимия муаммолари. Синоним, антоним ва масалалари, ва уларнинг манбалари, таснифи, тилни бойитиши ва тил ривожланишидаги аҳамияти.

6-мавзу. Сўзларнинг семантик классификацияси

Инглиз тилида сўзларнинг семантик қатлами, китобий услуб, сўзлашув услубида сўзлар, сўзларнинг турли семантик ва носемантик гуруҳлари.

7-мавзу. Сўзнинг морфологик тузилиши

Бир ва кўп морфемали сўзлар. Морфеманинг лексик бирлик эканлиги. Морфемалар турлари ва синфлари. Сўз негизи ва унинг турлари. Ҳозирги замон инглиз тилида сўз тузилишининг турлари. Сўз тузилишига диахроник ва синхроник қараш. Морфемалар яшаш. Морфема ва алломорфемалар. Сўз тузилишини морфемик таҳлил қилиш асослари ва уларнинг сўз яшаш таҳлилидан фарқи.

8-мавзу. Сўз яшаш

Сўз яшаш усуллари. Сўзнинг асосий таркибий қисмлари. Сўз негизи. Ўзакнинг тузилиши ва семантикаси. Кенг ва кам тарқалган усуллар билан сўз яшаш. Лексик номлашда сўз яшашнинг роли ва ўрни. Сўз яшаш каторлари занжири. Олд қўшимчалар ва уларнинг турлари. Ҳар хил мезонларга асосланиб олд қўшимчаларни тасниф этиш. Ўзак олд қўшимчаларнинг семантикаси. Ярим олд қўшимчалар ёрдамида сўз яшаш. Қўшма сўзларнинг сўз яшашнинг кенг тарқалган йўллари билан бири эканлиги. Анъанавий ва замонавий тилшуносликда қўшма

сўзларни тасниф қилиш асослари. Қўшма сўз ясашнинг ҳар хил турлари, уларнинг кенг тарқалганлиги. Қўшма сўзларни она тилига таржима қилиш йўллари. Конверсия, унинг келиб чиқиши ва асослари. Сўз ясашиш йўлини аниқлашда конверсиядаги семантик алоқаларнинг асосий мезон эканлиги. Конверсиянинг кенг тарқалганлигини белгиловчи асосий омиллар.

Конверсияни таржима қилиш муаммолари. Қисқартма сўзлар (аббревиация). Қисқартма сўзларнинг турлари. Клиппинглар. Қисқартма сўзларни таржима қилишдаги қийинчиликлар. Сўз ясашнинг кичик усуллари: маъно кенгайтиши, товуш ва урғу кўчиши, товушга таклид қилиш ва редупликация, грамматик шаклларнинг лексикализациялашуви ва сўз ясашда ҳар хил турларнинг бирикуви.

9-мавзу. Фразеология

Фразеологиянинг мақсад ва вазибалари. Турғун ва эркин бирикмаларни фарқлаш муаммоси, уларни фарқловчи белгилар. Лексик бириқиш. Турғун бирикмалар ва уларнинг ҳар хил мезонларга асосан таснифи. Фразеологик бирикларнинг юзага келиш йўллари. Сўз ва сўз бирикмасининг ўхшашлиги ва фарқи. Фразеологик бириклар ва уларни таржима қилиш муаммолари. Фразеологик бирикларнинг лингвокультуролия ва прагматика жиҳатдан хусусиятлари.

10-мавзу. Этимология

Тил луғат таркибининг этимологик жиҳатдан таснифи. Ўрганилаётган тилда кейин пайдо бўлган ва бошқа тиллардан кириб келган сўзлар. Хорижий тиллардан кириб келган сўзларнинг турлари, ўзлаштирилиши, ассимиляцияси, луғат таркиби ва сўз ясаш тизимига таъсири. Байналминал сўзлар. Этимологик луғатлар.

11-мавзу. Тилнинг луғат составидан фойдаланиш методлари

Тил луғат бирикларидан фойдаланиш. Лексик тадқиқ қилиш жараёни, босқичлари ва методлари

2. НАЗАРИЙ ФОНЕТИКА

1-мавзу. Фонетика лингвистик фан сифатида

Фонетика лингвистик фан сифатида, турли фонологик мактаблар ва фонологик назариялар, олимларнинг товушлар ҳақидаги фикрлари.

2-мавзу. Ўрганилаётган тил фонемаларининг тилнинг турли вариантларида ифодаланиши

Ўрганилаётган тилнинг турли вариантларида унли ва ундошларнинг талаффуз фарқлари.

3-мавзу. Ўрганилаётган тилда сегмент фонемалар

Сегмент фонемаларнинг артикуляцион томони: товушлар ҳосил бўлишининг тўрт механизми (куч, тебраниш, резонаторлик ва тўсикни енгил), уларга алоқадор бўлган нутқ органлари. Нутқ органларининг тузилиши, фаолияти ва вазибалари. Унли товушларни тасниф қилишда ўзбек, рус, Европа ва Америка олимларининг фикрлари. Унлиларнинг талаффуз турғунлигига кўра (монофтонг, дифтонг, дифтонгоид), тилнинг горизонтал ва вертикал ҳаракатига кўра, лабларнинг ҳолатига кўра, тарихий чўзиқлигига кўра, нутқ органларининг таранглашувида кўра таснифи. Ўрганилаётган тил унлиларини рус ва ўзбек тили унлилари билан

киёслаш. Ундош товушларни тасниф қилишда рус, ўзбек, инглиз, немис, француз, испан ва америка олимларининг фикрлари. Ундош товушларни товуш пайчаларининг иштирокига кўра ва талаффуз кучига кўра; фаол ва пассив нутқ органларига кўра; товуш ҳосил бўлишида тўсикнинг турига кўра ва шовкиннинг характерига кўра; кичик тилнинг фаолиятига кўра таснифи. Ўрганилаётган тилда аффрикат товушларининг сони ҳақида фикрлар. Ўрганилаётган тилдаги ундошларни рус ва ўзбек тили ундошлари билан киёслаш. Унли ва ундош товушларнинг ҳосил бўлишида асосий фарқлар. Турли тилларда мавжуд бир хил товушларнинг сифат жиҳатидан фарқланиши. Артикуляцион база тушунчаси. Сегмент фонемалар ҳосил бўлишининг акустик томони: нутқ товушларининг, физик хусусиятлари (товуш тебраниши, чўзиқлиги, овоз тони), уларнинг артикуляцион шакли. Сегмент фонемаларнинг фонологик томони: фонемага таъриф бериш муаммоси.

4-мавзу. Фонема назарияси

Фонеманинг уч хусусияти яхлитлигидан иборатлиги: унинг материал (талаффуз) томони, абстрактлиги, умумийлиги, функционал, яъни маъно фарқлай олиш хусусияти. Фонема ва унинг вариантлари (аллофонлар). Сегмент фонемаларнинг конститутив ва дистинктив вазифалари. Урғусиз унлилар ва уларнинг таснифи. Транскрипция ва унинг турлари. Нутқ товушларининг ўзгариши ва уларнинг турлари. Бу ҳақда Москва ва Санкт Петербург олимларининг қарашлари. Ассимиляция, аккомодация ва элизия каби товуш ўзгариши хусусиятлари.

5-мавзу. Тилларда бўғин қурилиши

Бўғин фонетиканинг талаффуз бирлиги сифатида. Бўғиннинг нутқдаги вазифалари. Бўғин ҳосил қилувчи товушлар. Бўғиннинг таркибий қисмлари ва турлари. Бўғин бошида ва охирида унли ва ундошларнинг бирика олиши. Ўрганилаётган хорижий тилда бўғин ажратиш қоидалари. Бўғин ҳақида мавжуд назариялар. Бўғиннинг вазифалари.

6-мавзу. Сўз урғуси

Сўз урғуси тушунчаси, уларнинг турлари (динамик, мусиқий, сифат ва микдор урғулари). Сўз урғусининг хусусиятлари. Урғунинг ўрни ва даражаси. Урғу ўрнини белгиловчи омиллар (рецессив, ритмик, грамматик ва семантик), уларнинг ўзаро муносабати. Сўз урғусининг вазифалари.

7-мавзу. Интонация

Интонация таърифи. Тор ва кенг таъриф. Интонациянинг ташкилий қисмлари ва уларнинг вазифалари. Интонация ва просодия. Интонациянинг мелодик компоненти, унинг таърифи ва вазифалари. Текст ҳосил қилишда мелодик компонентнинг роли. Мелодик компонентнинг турлари. Интонациянинг гап урғуси компоненти, унинг таърифи ва вазифалари. Гап урғусининг турлари. Гап урғуси ва сўз урғуси муносабати. Гап урғусининг матн тузишда ритмик ва интонацион гуруҳлар ҳосил қилишдаги роли. Гап урғусининг мелодик компонент билан ўзаро муносабати ва гапнинг коммуникатив марказини ҳосил қилиш қобилияти. Гап урғусининг вазифалари. Интонацияни ёзма ифодалаш турлари (Л. Армстронг ва И.Уорд системаси ва Р.Кингдон методи). Интонациянинг рақамли ва поғонали ифодаланиши. Интонацияда нутқ тезлиги (темп), овоз бўёғи (тебр), пауза (тўхташ) ва ритм (урғули ва урғусиз бўғинлар кетма-кетлиги) каби бирликларнинг

вазифалари. Интонациянинг фонологик вазифаси. Интонама тушунчаси. Интонациянинг матн ҳосил қилиш вазифаси.

8-мавзу. Нутқнинг фоностилистик хусусиятлари

Фоностилистиканинг асосий ўрганиш объектлари. Талаффуз нормаси ва унинг стилистик фарқланиши масаласи. Фонетик услубларни ифодалашда экстралингвистик ва паралингвистик воситалар. Товуш ва интонация стилистикаси. Интонацион услуб турлари. Фонетик синонимия масаласи. Товушлар символизми тушунчаси.

3. НАЗАРИЙ ГРАММАТИКА

1-мавзу. Назарий грамматика фанига кириш

Ўрганилаётган тилнинг генетик ва морфологик хусусиятлари. Морфология ва синтаксис. Грамматиканинг таърифи. Грамматик шакл ва грамматик маъно.

2-мавзу. Тил ва нутқ тушунчаларини фарқлаш

Тил ва нутқ. Актуализация. Грамматик қурилишнинг бирликлари. Тилни грамматик жиҳатдан тасвирлашнинг турлари. Грамматикадаги метод ва назарий йўналишлар.

3-мавзу. Морфология

Ўрганилаётган тилнинг грамматик воситалари: тилнинг грамматикқурилиши. Тилнинг морфологик қурилиши. Гапда сўз тартиби, ёрдамчи сўзлар, грамматик қўшимчалар, урғу ва интонация, ўзак таркибидаги товушлар ўзгариши. Морфема, морф, алломорф ва уларнинг структуравий турлари. Морфеманнг турлари. Аналитик шакл тушунчаси. Тил грамматик тизимининг хусусиятлари. Сўз туркуми. Асосий сўз туркумлари. Мустақил ва ёрдамчи сўзлар. Ўрганилаётган тилда сўз туркумларининг умумий хусусиятлари. Сўз туркумларининг шакл ва маънолари. Транспозиция ходисаси.

4-мавзу. Грамматик категориялар

Грамматикадаги асимметрия ходисаси. Функционал ёндашув. Грамматик категориялар. Грамматик категориянинг мазмун плани. Грамматик категориянинг ифода плани. Ўрганилаётган тил грамматик тузилишининг ўзига хос хусусиятлари. Грамматик маънони ифода этувчи воситалар. Грамматик категориялар. Грамматик шакл ва грамматик маъно тушунчалари. Сўзнинг синтетик ва аналитик шакллари. Сўз туркумлари ва гап бўлаклари орасидаги муносабат. Сўзнинг морфологик структураси. Морфема ва унинг турлари. Комбинаторика тушунчаси.

5-мавзу. Сўз туркумлари

Сўз туркуми тушунчаси, сўз туркуми тушунчаси мезонлари ва турли олимларнинг сўз туркуми ҳақида фикрлари

6-мавзу. От сўз туркуми

Хорижий тилда отнинг дистрибутив белгилари. Уларнинг бошқа сўз туркумлари ёрдамида қўшилиши. Отнинг сўз туркуми сифатида морфологик ва семантик характеристикаси. Отларнинг асосий семантик гуруҳлари. Сон категорияси. Отларда кўплик категориясининг ишлатилиши. Жамловчи ва партитив отлар. Детерминативлар. Детерминативларнинг сўз туркуми сифатидаги умумий хоссалари. Детерминативларнинг семантикаси. Келишик категорияси, келишик категорияси ҳақида ҳар хил назариялар.

Эгалик келишигининг шакли ва унинг қўлланиш хусусиятлари. Аниклик-ноаниклик категориясини ифодаловчи асосий восита. Артиклнинг умумназарий муаммолари, артиклнинг функциялари, Род категорияси

7-мавзу. Сифат ва равиш

Сифат сўз туркуми сифатида. Унинг асосий хусусиятлари. Сифатнинг семантик таснифи. Қиёслаш категориясига оид олмошларнинг семантикаси, синтактик хоссалари, грамматик категориялари ва шакллари. Равишнинг семантик - грамматик гуруҳлари. Адвербиализация.

8-мавзу. Сон, Олмош

Сон-сўз туркуми сифатида. Соннинг турлари. Соннинг гаптадаги вазибалари. Олмош сўз туркуми сифатида. Олмошнинг келишик категорияси. Олмошнинг семантик ва структуравий турлари.

9-мавзу. Фейл

Фейл - сўз туркуми сифатида. Унинг лексик, морфологик ва синтактик хусусиятлари, умумий ва фарқ қилувчи томонлари. Фейлнинг морфологик вазибаларига кўра таснифи: мустақил феъллар, ўтимли ва ўтимсиз феъллар, маъно жиҳатидан тугалланган ва тугалланмаган феъллар. Фейлнинг грамматик категориялари: аспект (тарз) категорияси, нисбат категорияси. Мажхул нисбатнинг кенг тарқалиш сабаблари. Мажхул конструкцияларнинг қўлланиш хусусиятлари. Фейл майллари. Улар тўғрисидаги замонавий концепциялар. Фейлнинг семантик - грамматик гуруҳлари. Фейл тизимидаги грамматик маъноларни ифода қилиш воситалари. Фейлнинг шахсиз формалари. Инфинитив, герундий ва сифатдош.

10-мавзу. Ёрдамчи сўз туркумлари

Артикль, кўмакчи, боғловчи, юклама ва модал сўзлар.

11-мавзу. Синтаксис ва унинг ўрганадиган объекти

Морфология ва Синтаксис. Синтактик структуралар. Синтаксисда моделлаш тушунчаси. Гапни таҳлил қилиш методлари. Грамматиканинг турлари: анъанавий грамматика, мантикий грамматика, структуравий грамматика, бевосита ташкил этувчиларга ажратиш грамматикаси, трансформацион грамматика, генератив грамматика, келишик грамматикаси, когнитив грамматика. Ўрганилаётган тилда тил бирликлари орасида кузатиладиган синтактик алоқалар турлари; Координация, Субординация, Предикация, Бирламчи ва иккиламчи предикация тушунчалари. Мураккаб таркибли структуралар. Полипредикатив қурилмаларнинг структуравий-функционал таҳлили.

12-мавзу. Гап

Гап тушунчасини аниқлаш хақидаги асосий фикрлар. Гапни аниқлашда классик ёндашув. Гап таснифи. Гапнинг мақсадга кўра турлари: бир бош бўлакли ва икки бош бўлакли гаплар. Гапта эллипсис тушунчаси. Бир бош бўлакли ва икки бош бўлакли гапларнинг фарқи.

13-мавзу. Гапнинг мулоқот мақсадига кўра ва тузилишига кўра турлари

Гап – коммуникация бирлиги сифатида, гапнинг вазибаси, тузилиши. Асосий ва иккинчи даражали бўлақлар. Эга. Эганинг ифода воситалари. Кесим - гапнинг асосий белгиси сифатида. Модаллик тушунчаси. Кесимнинг асосий хусусияти. Модаллик категориясининг ифода усуллари. Сўз бирикмаси. Бирикма

хосил бўлиш омиллари. Сўз бирикмасининг структуравий - функционал типологияси. Сўз бирикмасининг компонентлари ўртасидаги семантик муносабатлар. Гап бўлақларининг структуравий типлари. Гап бўлақлари ва сўз туркумлари ўртасидаги муносабат. Предикативлик муносабатларнинг ўзига хос шаклларига эга бўлган гаплар. Қискартирилган синтактик структурага эга бўлган гаплар. Тўлиқсиз гаплар. Атов гаплар. Полипредикативлик ва мураккаблашган гаплар. Қўшма гаплар. Боғланган қўшма гаплар. Эргашган қўшма гаплар.

4. СТИЛИСТИКА

1-мавзу. “Стилистика” фаннинг мазмуни, предмети ва методи

Стилистика курсининг долзарблиги ва вазифалари. Стилистика замонавий тилшунослик йўналишлари нигоҳида. Стилистиканинг бошқа фанлар билан боғлиқлиги: стилистика ва коммуникатив лингвистика, стилистика ва прагмалингвистика, стилистика ва лингвокультурология. Стилистика турлари: киёсий стилистика, амалий стилистика, фуқционал стилистика, индивидуал услуб стилистикаси. Стилистик таҳлил методлари.

2-мавзу. Услубий лексика таркиби

Услубий лексика таркиби: Адабий сўзлар, нейтрал сўзлар, ва оғзаки сўзлар. адабий сўзларнинг стилистик жиҳатлари ва турлари: атама, архаизм, неологизм, поэтик сўзлар тушунчалари ва уларнинг матндаги стилистик вазифалари. Оғзаки сўзларнинг стилистик хусусиятлари ва турлари: сленг, вульгаризм, эвфемизм, шева ва жаргон тушунчалари ва уларнинг матндаги стилистик вазифалари. Тилда меъёр тушунчаси. Шахсий ёндашув ва меъёр. Умумий, адабий, оғзаки ва адабий услублар хусусиятлари. Регистр тушунчаси.

3-мавзу. Функционал услуб тушунчаси

Функционал услуб ва унинг турлари. Бадий услуб хусусиятлари: шеърий, драма ва наср услубларининг асосий тил хусусиятлари. Илмий услуб хусусиятлари ва вазифалари. Публицистик услуб хусусиятлари ва вазифалари. Ахборот воситалари услуб хусусиятлари ва вазифалари. Ахборот воситалари матнида жанр турлари ва хусусиятлари. Расмий услуб вазифалари, расмий услуб турлари ва уларнинг лисоний хусусиятлари.

4-мавзу. Лексик стилистик воситалар

Ифода ва стилистик восита тушунчаси. Стилистик вазифа тушунчаси ва турлари. Лексик маъно турлари. Стилистик воситаларнинг тил сатҳлари аро турланиши: метафора, метонимия, ирония, эпитет, муболаға, оксиморон, антономасия, зевгма, сўз ўйини тушунчаси, лисоний аҳамияти ва вазифалари.

5-мавзу. Лексик-синтактик стилистик воситалар

Ўхшатиш, перефраз, литота, градация, антитеза, аллюзия, ўзлаштира гап тушунчалари, уларнинг лисоний аҳамияти ва вазифалари.

6-мавзу. Синтактик стилистик воситалар

Синтактик стилистик воситаларнинг лисоний аҳамияти ва вазифалари. Гап қурилишидаги ўзгаришларга асосланган стилистик воситалар: бир бош бўлакли гап, инверсия, параллел конструкция, хиазм, такрор, санаш, полисиндетон, асиндетон ва риторик сўрок гап. Оғзаки нутқда гап таркиби

Ўзгаришларига асосланган стилистик воситалар: эллипсис, тугалланмаган гап, ажратилган конструкция.

7-мавзу. Фонетик стилистик воситалар

Юфония, аллитерация, ономотопия тушунчалари ва уларнинг лисоний аҳамияти ва вазифалари.

8-мавзу. Матн таҳлилининг вазифаси

Адабий матн тушунчаси. Матн мазмуни, образ структураси: муаллиф образи, табиат образи, асар қаҳрамони образи, бадий деталь тушунчаси ва унинг турлари. Матн бадий композицияси. Бадий деталь турлари ва вазифалари. Матн лингвистикаси асосий тушунчалари, Матн категорияси турлари: информативлик категорияси, модаллик категорияси, матн боғликлиги ва яхлитлиги категорияси, матн сегментацияси, ўрин пайт категорияси, интертекстуаллик категорияси. Бадий асар номлари, турлари ва унинг информативлиги. Бадий асар номининг концептуал ахборотни очиб беришдаги ўрни. Матн таҳлили методлари. Матннинг концептуал аҳамияти. Матннинг миллий – маданий хусусиятлари. Матнни стилистик, прагматик, лингвокультурологик жиҳатдан таҳлил этиш.

5. ЎРГАНИЛАЁТГАН ТИЛ ТАРИХИ

1-мавзу. Роман - герман тиллари ҳақида умумий маълумот

Роман ва герман тилларининг хинд-европа тиллар оиласида тутган ўрни. Ҳозирги замон роман ва герман тиллари, уларнинг тарқалиши ва таснифи. Роман ва Герман қабилалари ҳақидаги маълумотлар: (Питеас, Юлий Цезар, Тацит) роман ва герман қабилаларининг таснифи ва “халқларнинг буюк кўчиши” даврида уларнинг жойлашиши. Роман - герман ва роман тилларининг ўзига хос хусусиятлари: ундошларнинг биринчи кўчиши, Гримм қонуни, Вернер қонуни, унлиларнинг ўзгариши, отларнинг турланиш тизими, феълларнинг миқдор ўзгариши ва суффиксли феълларга ажралиш тизими, қадимги алифбо, роман ва герман тилларининг энг муҳим ёзма ёдгорликлари ва уларнинг таснифи.

2-мавзу. Тиллар тарихини даврлаштириш муаммоси

Европа қитъасида Кельт қабилалари. Рим қўшинларининг Британия ороллари босиб олиши, Римликлар қурган тарихий обидалар. Минтақада ғарбий герман қабилалари ва уларнинг Рим билан алоқаси. Англо-саксон, фриз ва ют қабилаларининг Британия ороллари истило қилиши ва англо – саксон давлатларининг юзага келиши. Лотин тили ва унинг роман тилларининг шаклланишидаги ўрни ва аҳамияти. Қадимги алфавитлар ва ёзма ёдгорликлар Немис тилининг пайдо бўлиш тарихи. Роман-герман тиллари товуш тизимининг тарихий қонуниятлари; палаталлашув. Сонор ундош бирикмалари олдида унлиларнинг чўзилиши, кейинги ундошнинг тушиб қолиши натижасида унлиларнинг чўзилиши. Ундошларнинг биринчи ва иккинчи кўчиши

3-мавзу. Морфология

Роман-герман тиллари морфологияси. Отнинг грамматик категориялари: род, сон, келишик. Негиз асосида отларнинг қадимги таснифи. Отларда кўплик шакллари хосил бўлиши ва уларнинг турлари. Сўзнинг морфологик структураси. Ички флексия ёрдамида ўзакдаги унлининг ўзгариши. Ташқи флексия. Флексиясиз товуш алмашилиши.

4-мавзу. Қадимги герман ва роман тилларида сифат, олмош ва сон

Сифатнинг икки хил турланиши: кучли ва кучсиз турланиш, турланишларнинг пайдо бўлиши. Кишилик олмошлари, олмошларда грамматик категориялар: шахс, сон (иккилик сонининг мавжудлиги), Кўрсатиш олмошларнинг пайдо бўлиши. Санок сонлар. Тартиб сонлар.

5-мавзу. Қадимги роман-герман даврида феъл

Кучли ва кучсиз феъллар. Претерит – презент феъллар ва уларнинг морфологик хусусиятлари. Супплетив феъллар. Феълларнинг асосий грамматик категориялари: шахс, сон, замон, майл. Феълнинг аналитик шакли масаласи: Нисбат категорияси.

6-мавзу. Қадимги роман ва герман тилларида синтаксис

Синтаксис. Гап турлари. Сўрок гапларда сўз тартиби. Гапда бош бўлақларнинг ифода этилиши. Содда гапда синтактик алоқаларнинг ифодаланиши. Келишикларнинг вазифалари.

7-мавзу. Қадимги роман- герман тиллари луғат бойлиги

Роман-герман тиллари луғат таркиби ва уларнинг тараққиёти. Луғат таркибининг хусусиятлари. умум хинд – европа ва умум роман ва герман сўзлари, луғат таркибининг бойиб бориши ва унинг турли йўллари: Аффикслар ёрдамида сўзлар яшаш. Сўз ясалиш жараёнининг махсулдор ва кам махсуллик хусусиятларини ақс этирувчи аффикслар; Қўшма сўзлар. қўшма сўзларни ҳосил қилиш йўллари. Товуш алмашиши (умлаут) ; Эски сўзларнинг янги маънога эга бўлиши. Ўзлаштирма сўзларнинг ишлатилиши.

8-мавзу. Ўрганилаётган тил тарихининг ўрта даври

Ўрта даврнинг асосий тарихий воқеалари. Унлилар тизимининг ўзгариши. Урғусиз унлиларнинг ҳосил бўлиши ва уларнинг кейинчалик тушиб қолиши. Ўрта даврда унлиларнинг чўзилиши ва қисқариши. Дифтонгларнинг чўзилиши ва қисқариши. Дифтонгларининг ўрта даврда чўзилиши ва қисқариши. Дифтонгларининг ўрта даврда монофтонглашуви. Янги дифтонгларнинг ҳосил бўлиши. Ундошлар тизимининг ўзгариши. Ўрта даврда графикасидаги ўзгаришлар. Морфология. 12-15 асрларда морфологияда содир бўлган ўзгаришлар. Отларнинг турланишида турланишида келишикларнинг соддалашиб бориши ва уларнинг предлоги бирикмалар билан алмаштирилиши. Сифат даражалари. Қиёсий даражаларда аналитик шаклнинг юзага келиши. Олмошларнинг турланишда икки келишикнинг тизимга ўтиши. Кўрсатиш олмошларида икки турнинг ҳосил бўлиши: янги олмошларнинг пайдо бўлиши. Аниқ ва ноаниқ артикларнинг пайдо бўлиши. Кучли феъллар тизимидаги ўзгаришлар. Феъл бўйича ҳозирги замон сифатдош шаклларнинг ўзига хос хусусияти. Феълнинг аниқ, мажхул ва ўтган замон шаклларининг юзага келиши.

Рашидош ва инфинитивнинг пайдо бўлиши. Рашишларнинг суффикслар ёрдамида ясалиши. Суффиксларнинг соддалашуви.

9-мавзу. Роман- герман тилларида синтаксис

Гапнинг бош бўлақларидаги қатъий тартибнинг аста – секин қарор топиши. Қўшимча гапларнинг ривожланиши. Ўрта давр луғат таркибининг ўзига хос хусусиятлари. Ижтимоий тузимнинг ўзгариши, ҳунарманчилик, савдо-сотик ва

кишлоқ хўжалиги тараққиёти муносабати билан луғат таркибининг бойиб бориш йўллари. Эскирган сўзларнинг янги маънода ишлатилиши, аффикслар ёрдамида янги сўзларнинг ишлатилиши. Икки тил: яъни скандинав ва француз тиллари хисобига инглиз ва немис тили луғати таркибининг бойиб бориши.

10-мавзу. Тиллар тараққиётининг янги даври

Роман –герман тиллари тараққиёти тарихининг янги давридаги асосий тарихий воқеалари. Миллий тилнинг вужудга келишида пойтахт шевасининг аҳамияти. Махаллий шеваларнинг сакланиб қолиши ва уларнинг ижтимоий кўринишлари. Касб – ҳунар жаргонларининг пайдо бўлиши. Китоб нашр қилиниши муносабати билан миллий тил ёзма шаклининг кенг тарқалиб бориши. Янги даврда содир бўлган асосий фонетик ўзгаришлар. “Унлиларнинг буюк кўчиши”. Урғусиз бўғиндаги унлиларнинг тушиб қолиши. Янги унли товушларнинг пайдо бўлиши. Унлилар ва ундошлар тизимида содир бўлган бошқа ўзгаришлар. Тиллар грамматик тизимида содир бўлган ўзгаришлар. Феълларнинг нотўғри тусланиши тизимдан тўғри феъллар гуруҳига ўтиши. Мажхул нисбатнинг ривожланиши, иш – ҳаракат ва ҳолат пассиви маъноларнинг фарқланиши.

III. Семинар машғулоти бўйича қўрсатма ва тавсиялар

Семинар машғулоти учун қуйидаги мавзулар тавсия этилади:

1. Лексикология

1- мавзу. Лексикологиянинг мақсади ва вазифалари.

2- мавзу. Лексикография: ўрганилаётган тил луғат таркибининг умумий таснифи. Луғатларнинг асосий турлари: энциклопедик, лингвистик, изоҳли ва таржима луғатлари. Луғат турлари муаммоси ва уларни яратиш услублари. Луғатлар учун сўз танлаш, луғат мақолаларининг тузилиши ва бошқалар. Инглиз, немис, француз ва испан тилларидаги луғатларнинг асосий турлари: изоҳли ва таржима луғатлари, синонимлар луғати, фразеологик бирликлар луғати, этимологик, идеографик, махсус луғатлар, неологизмлар луғатлари ва бошқалар.

Ўқув луғатларининг тузилиши (сўзларнинг бирикиш йўллари луғати, кўп қўлланиладиган сўзлар луғати). Турли луғатларда сўз маъноларини очиб бериш йўллари. Таржима жараёнида луғат билан ишлаш, Сўзнинг изоҳли таҳлилини ўрганиш, бошқа луғатлардаги изоҳлари билан қиёслаш. Тил луғат таркибининг ўзгариши социолингвистик ҳодиса эканлиги. Луғат таркибининг сифат ва сон жиҳатдан ўзгариши. Луғат таркибининг лексик ва стилистик таснифи. Сўзларни ишлатилиши жиҳатидан тасниф этиш. Умумистеъмол сўзлари ва махсус лексика. Архаизмлар, историзмлар, неологизмлар, уларнинг тарихий боғлиқлиги ва ўзаро таъсири. Асосий ва ёрдамчи сўз туркумларининг сон жиҳатидан ўзаро фарқи. Номлашнинг фаоллиги ва луғат таркибининг бойиш йўллари. Сўзнинг маъно тараққиёти ривожи, бошқа тиллардан кирган сўзлар қатлами.

3-мавзу. Семасиология: Сўзларнинг фонетик ва семантик аспекти. Контекст турлари, маънонинг турлари ва сўзнинг лексик-семантик вариантлари, семантик майдон. Моносемия, полисемия, гипер-гипонимия муаммолари. Синоним, антоним ва омонимлар ва уларнинг таснифи.

4-мавзу. Сўзнинг морфологик қурилиши: морфемалар типлари ва синфлари. Сўз тузилишидаги диахроник ва синхроник қараш. Морфема ва алломорфемалар.

5-мавзу. Сўз яшаш: лексик ном беришда сўз яшашнинг роли ва ўрни. Конверсия, унинг келиб чиқиши ва асослари. Қўшма сўзларни она тилига таржима қилишнинг йўллари. Қисқартма сўзлар.

6-мавзу. Фразеология: турғун ва эркин бирикмаларни фарқлаш муаммоси. Уларни фарқловчи белгилар. Фразеологик бирликлар ва уларни таржима қилиш муаммолари.

7-мавзу. Этимология: Ўрганилаётган тилда пайдо бўлган сўзлар ва бошқа тиллардан кириб келган сўзлар ва уларнинг турлари, ўзлаштирилиши, ассимиляция, интернационал сўзлар ва этимологик дублетлар.

8-мавзу. Матнларни лексик таҳлил қилиш жараёни, матндаги сўзларнинг морфологик қурилишига кўра таҳлил, сўз ясалиш услубига кўра таҳлил, сўзларнинг семантик ва полисемантик хусусиятларига кўра таҳлил, сўзларнинг матндаги асл ва фразеологик маъносига кўра таҳлили, сўзларнинг этимологик хусусиятларига кўра таҳлили.

2. Назарий фонетика

1-мавзу. Назарий фонетиканинг мақсад ва вазифалари.

2-мавзу. Фонологик назариялар.

3-мавзу. Ўрганилаётган тилда талаффузнинг асосий турлари.

4-мавзу. Ўрганилаётган тилда унли товушлар тизими.

5-мавзу. Ўрганилаётган тилда ундош товушлар тизими.

6-мавзу. Фонемаларнинг нутқдаги ўзгариши.

7-мавзу. Ўрганилаётган тилда бўғин тузилиши.

8-мавзу. Ўрганилаётган тилда сўз урғуси.

9-мавзу. Ўрганилаётган тилда оҳанг тузилиши.

10-мавзу. Фоностилистика ва унинг асосий хусусиятлари.

3. Назарий грамматика

1-мавзу. Назарий грамматика фанининг мақсади ва предмети.

2-мавзу. Тил ва нутқ. Грамматикада метод ва назарий йўналишлари. Грамматик таҳлил усуллари.

3-мавзу. Сўзнинг морфологик қурилиши: морфемалар типлари ва синфлари. Сўз тузилишидаги диахроник ва синхроник қараш. Морфема ва алломорфемалар.

4-мавзу. Морфология. Грамматик шакл ва грамматик маъно. Грамматик маънони ифодалаш усуллари.

5-мавзу. Ўрганилаётган тилдаги сўзларни туркумларга ажратишнинг асосий тамойиллари.

6-мавзу. Ўрганилаётган тил морфологияси. Ўрганилаётган тилда от сўз туркуми ва унинг грамматик категориялари.

7-мавзу. Ўрганилаётган тилда феъл сўз туркуми. Феълнинг структураси ва грамматик категориялари.

8-мавзу. Ўрганилаётган тилда феълнинг семантик хусусиятлари

9-мавзу. Ўрганилаётган тилда Синтаксис. Сўз бирикмаси ва содда гап.

10-мавзу. Синтаксис. Синтактик бирликлар. Синтактик алоқалар турлари. Сўз бирикмаларининг асосий белги ва хоссалари.

11-мавзу. Гап назарияси. Гапнинг таърифи ва классификацияси. Микро ва макросинтаксис. Гапни таҳлил қилиш методлари.

12-мавзу. Ўрганилаётган тилда гапнинг тузилиш жиҳатдан турлари.

13-мавзу. Ўрганилаётган тилда қўшма гап турлари.

5. Стилистика

1-мавзу. Услубиёт предмети, унинг асосий йўналишлари ва бошқа назарий фанлар билан алоқаси.

2-мавзу. Функционал услуб турлари, уларнинг вазифалари ва лингвистик хусусиятлари. (бадий, илмий, ва газета ва публицистик, расмий ҳужжатлар).

3-мавзу. Ўрганилаётган тил лексикасининг услубий таркиби;

4-мавзу. Лексик стилистик воситалар (метафора, метонимия, ирония, эпитет, оксюморон, гипербола, антономасия, зевгма ва сўз ўйини) нинг лисоний аҳамияти ва вазифалари.

5-мавзу. Лексик-синтактик стилистик воситалар (ўхшатиш, перефраз, литота, антитеза, градация)нинг лисоний аҳамияти ва вазифалари.

6-мавзу. Синтактик стилистик воситалар (инверсия, такрорлаш, риторик савол ва бошқалар)нинг лисоний аҳамияти ва вазифалари.

7-мавзу. Фонетик стилистик воситалар (юфония, аллитерация, ономотапия)нинг лисоний аҳамияти ва вазифалари.

8-мавзу. Матн таҳлили вазифаси. Бадий асар матн таҳлилининг объекти сифатида бадий матннинг ўзига хосликларини кўрсатиш, бадий детал, матн композицияси. Матн категориялари. Информативлик категориялари. Матнни идрок этиш ва унинг таҳлили.

5.Ўрганилаётган тил тарихи

1-мавзу. Роман ва Герман тиллари ҳақида умумий маълумот

Роман-герман тилларининг фонетик хусусиятлари, Тиллар тарихини даврлаштириш муаммоси, Қадимги герман ва роман тилларида сўз туркумлари масаласи, Қадимги роман-герман даврида Феъл, Қадимги роман ва герман тилларида Синтаксис, Қадимги роман- герман тиллари луғат бойлиги, Ўрганилаётган тил тарихининг ўрта даври, Ўрганилаётган тил тарихининг ўрта даври луғат бойлиги, Ўрганилаётган тил тарихининг ўрта даврида Синтаксис.

2-мавзу. Тиллар таракқиётининг янги даври, Роман–герман тиллари таракқиёти тарихининг янги давридаги асосий тарихий воқеалари.

3-мавзу. Миллий тилнинг вужудга келишида пойтахт шевасининг аҳамияти. Маҳаллий шеваларнинг сакланиб қолиши ва уларнинг ижтимоий кўринишлари.

4-мавзу. Касб – ҳунар жаргонларининг пайдо бўлиши. Китоб нашр қилиниши муносабати билан миллий тил ёзма шаклининг кенг тарқалиб бориши.

5-мавзу. Янги даврда содир бўлган асосий фонетик ўзгаришлар.Тиллар грамматик тизимида содир бўлган ўзгаришлар.

6-мавзу. Феълларнинг нотўғри тусланиши тизимдан тўғри феъллар гуруҳига ўтиши.

7-мавзу. Мажхул нисбатнинг ривожланиши, иш – ҳаракат ва ҳолат пассиви маъноларнинг фаркланиши.

Семинар машғулотлари мультимедиа воситалари билан жиҳозланган аудиторияда ўтказилиши лозим. Машғулотлар фаол ва интерфаол усуллар ёрдамида ўтилиши, мос равишда муносиб педагогик ва ахборот технологиялар қўлланилиши мақсадга мувофиқ.

IV. Мустақил таълим ва мустақил ишлар

Мустақил таълим учун тавсия этиладиган мавзулар:

1. Лексикология ва тил.
2. Сўзларнинг фонетик ва морфологик аспекти.
3. Луғат таркибининг сифат ва сон жиҳатлари.

	<p>4. Архаизмлар ва неологизмлар.</p> <p>5. Лексик номланишнинг фаоллиги ва луғат таркибининг бойиш йўллари.</p> <p>6. Тил луғат таркибининг этимологик жиҳатдан таснифи.</p> <p>7. Сўз маъносининг тузилишини ўрганишда парадигматика ва синтагматиканинг роли.</p> <p>8. Маънонинг турлари ва сўзнинг лексик - семантик маънолари.</p> <p>9. Синоним, антоним ва омонимлар.</p> <p>10. Сўзнинг морфологик қурилиши.</p> <p>11. Турғун ва эркин бирикмалар.</p> <p>12. Сўз бирикмасининг ўхшашлиги ва фарқи.</p> <p>13. Сўзларнинг этимологияси.</p> <p>14. Матнларни лексик таҳлил этиш</p> <p>15. Тилда фонологик назариялар.</p> <p>16. Ўрганилаётган тилда талаффуз турлари.</p> <p>17. Ўрганилаётган тилда товушлар қисқариши (редукция турлари).</p> <p>18. Ўрганилаётган тилда унли товушлар.</p> <p>19. Ўрганилаётган тилда ундош товушлар.</p> <p>20. Ўрганилаётган тилда монофтонг, дифтонг ва трифтонлар.</p> <p>21. Ўрганилаётган тилда оҳанг ва унинг турлари.</p> <p>22. Ўрганилаётган тилда сўз урғуси ва маъно урғуси.</p> <p>23. Синтагма ва унинг қўлланилиши.</p> <p>24. Фоностилистика ва унинг асосий хусусиятлари.</p> <p>25. Гапда сўзларнинг маъноли бирикиш усуллари.</p> <p>26. От сўз туркуми ва унинг грамматик категориялари.</p> <p>27. Феъл сўз туркуми ва унинг грамматик категориялари.</p> <p>28. Сифат сўз туркуми ва унинг турлари.</p> <p>29. Сон категорияси.</p> <p>30. Гапнинг тузилишига кўра турлари.</p> <p>31. Гапнинг ифода мақсадига кўра турлари.</p> <p>32. Ўрганилаётган тилдада қўшма гаплар. (Боғланган қўшма гап ва эргашган гапли қўшма гап)</p> <p>33. Гапда синтактик алоқалар турлари.</p> <p>34. Бирламчи ва иккиламчи предикация тушунчалари.</p> <p>35. Адабий – китобий тилда сўзларнинг хусусиятлари ва вазифалари</p> <p>36. Оғзаки услубга хос сўзларнинг тил хусусиятлари ва вазифалари</p> <p>37. Метафора ва метонимия</p> <p>38. Эпитет, оксюморон, гипербола</p> <p>39. Антономазия, ўхшатиш ва унинг ўрганилаётган тилдаги турлари</p> <p>40. Литота ва перифразанинг лингво-культурологик хусусиятлари</p> <p>41. Ўрганилаётган тилда такрор ва уни қиёсий ўрганиш</p> <p>42. Риторик сўроқ</p> <p>43. Фонетик стилистик услублар</p> <p>44. Стилистик синонимлар ва уларнинг бадиий нутқда қўлланилиши</p> <p>45. Идиомаларнинг стилистик хусусиятлари</p> <p>46. Мақол ва маталларнинг стилистик вазифалари</p> <p>47. Чет тилидан ўзлаштирилган сўзлар ва уларнинг стилистик аҳамияти</p>
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48. Стилистик услубларнинг бадиий матнда ишлатилиши
49. Шеъринг услубнинг ўзига хос стилистик жиҳатлари
50. Бадиий матнда поэтик деталлар.
51. Текст категориялари
52. Ўрганилаётган тил тарихини даврларга бўлиб ўрганиш
53. Ўрганилаётган тил қадимги даврнинг фонетик хусусиятлари
54. Ўрта давр фонетик структураси.
55. Ўрганилаётган тил қадимги давридаги ёзма ёдгорликлар
56. Ўрганилаётган тил тарихий даври луғат бойлиги
57. Ўрганилаётган тил ўрта даври луғат бойлиги
58. Ўрганилаётган тил ўрта даври ва хусусиятлари.
59. Ўрганилаётган тил янги давр грамматикасининг ўзига хос тил хусусиятлари
60. Ўрганилаётган тил Янги давр шеваларининг ўзига хос тил хусусиятлари.

Мустақил ўзлаштириладиган мавзулар бўйича талабалар томонидан рефератлар тайёрлаш ва уни тақдимот қилиш тавсия этилади.

Фан бўйича курс иши. Курс иши фан мавзуларига тааллуқли масалалар юзасидан талабаларга яқка тартибда тегишли топшириқ шаклида берилди. Курс ишининг ҳажми, расмийлаштириш шакли, баҳолаш мезонлари ишчи фан дастурида ва тегишли кафедра томонидан белгиланади. Курс ишини бажариш талабаларда фанга оид билим, кўникма ва малакаларни шакллантиришга хизмат қилиши керак.

Курс иши учун тахминий мавзулар:

1. Семасиология: Сўзларнинг фонетик ва семантик аспекти
2. Контекст турлари, маънонинг турлари ва сўзнинг лексик-семантик вариантлари, семантик майдон.
3. Моносемия, полисемия, гиперонимия -гипонимия муаммолари.
4. Синонимлар ва уларнинг таснифи
5. Антонимлар ва уларнинг таснифи
6. Омонимлар ва уларнинг таснифи.
7. Сўзнинг морфологик қурилиши: морфемалар типлари ва синфлари.
8. Сўз тузилиши, диахроник ва синхроник қарашлар.
9. Морфема ва алломорфемалар.
10. Сўз яшаш: лексик ном беришда сўз яшашнинг роли ва ўрни.
11. Конверсия, унинг қелиб чиқиши ва асослари.
12. Қўшма сўзларни она тилига таржима қилишнинг йўллари.
13. Қисқартма сўзлар.
14. Фразеология: турғун ва эркин бирикмаларни фарқлаш муаммоси.
15. Фразеологик бирликлар ва уларнинг шаклланиш этимологияси
16. Этимология: Ўрганилаётган тилда пайдо бўлган сўзлар ва бошқа тиллардан кириб келган сўзлар ва уларнинг турлари, ўзлаштирилиши, ассимиляция.
17. Интернационал сўзлар ва этимологик дублетлар.
18. Лексикография: ўрганилаётган тил луғат таркибининг умумий таснифи.
19. Сўзларнинг фонетик ва фонологик аспекти.
20. Ўрганилаётган тилда талаффузнинг стилистик хусусиятлари.
21. Мулоқот жараёнида талаффузнинг коммуникатив хусусиятлари.

22. Ўрганилаётган тилда товушни ўрганишда асосий йўналишлар.
23. Ўрганилаётган тилда вариантларида ўзига хос фонетик хусусиятлар.
24. Ўрганилаётган тилда унли товушлар.
25. Ўрганилаётган тилда ундош товушлар.
26. Ўрганилаётган тилда оҳанг турлари.
27. Ўрганилаётган тилда урғунинг турлари.
28. Сўзнинг морфологик қурилиши: морфемалар типлари ва синфлари.
29. Сўз тузилишидаги диахроник ва синхроник караш. Морфема ва алломорфемалар.
30. Грамматик категориялар, грамматик шакл ва грамматик маъно.
31. Ўрганилаётган тилда сўзларнинг туркумларга ажратишнинг асосий тамойиллари.
32. Ўрганилаётган тилда морфологияси. От сўз туркуми ва унинг грамматик категориялари.
33. Ўрганилаётган тилда феъл сўз туркуми. Феълнинг структураси ва грамматик категориялари.
34. Ўрганилаётган тилда феълнинг семантик хусусиятлари
35. Ўрганилаётган тилда Синтаксис. Сўз бирикмаси ва содда гап.
36. Синтаксис. Синтактик бирликлар. Синтактик алоқалар турлари.
37. Сўз бирикмаларининг асосий белги ва хоссалари.
38. Гап назарияси. Гапнинг таърифи ва классификацияси.
39. Микро ва макросинтаксис.
40. Гапни таҳлил қилиш методлари.
41. Ўрганилаётган тилда гапнинг тузилиш жиҳатдан турлари
42. Стилистика фанидаги янги йўналишлар (коммуникатив, когнитив, этностилистика)
43. Проза жанрининг ўзига хос хусусиятлари
44. Поэзиянинг ўзига хос хусусиятлари
45. Драманинг ўзига хос хусусиятлари
46. Нотиклик услубининг ўзига хос хусусиятлари
47. Илмий услубнинг ўзига хос хусусиятлари
48. Расмий услуб ва унинг тил хусусиятлари
49. Эмоционаллик стилистик категория сифатида
50. Поэтик сўзларнинг роли
51. Чет тилидан ўзлаштирилган сўзлар
52. Слэнглар ва уларнинг тил хусусиятлари
53. Ёзма нутқнинг ўзига хос хусусиятлари
54. Стилистик маъно ва вазифа
55. Метафора ва метонимияни когнитив тадқиқ қилиш
56. Матннинг бадиий хусусиятлари.
57. Бадиий матнда рамзлар.
58. Бадиий матнда поэтик деталлар.
59. Матнда информативлик категорияси.
60. Матнда модаллик категорияси.
61. Бадиий матннинг қисмларга бўлиниши.
62. Бадиий матн қисмларининг бир бирига мантикий боғланиши.

	<p>63. Бадиий матнда сарлавҳанинг роли.</p> <p>64. Бадиий матнда фразеологик бирликларнинг стилистик функциялари.</p> <p>65. Бадиий матнда сарлавҳанинг мазмунни очиб бериш вазифаси</p>
3.	<p>V. Фан ўқитилишининг натижалари (шаклландиган компетенциялар)</p> <p>Фанни ўзлаштириш натижасида талаба:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ўрганилаётган хорижий тил фонетик структураси, грамматик қурилиши ва луғат таркибининг асосий тушунчалари ва категориялари тўғрисида <i>тасаввур ва билимга эга бўлиши;</i> • талаба лисоний мулоқот жараёнларини таҳлил қилиш усуллари қўллаш, нутқий мулоқот муаммолари бўйича тўғри қарор қабул қилиш <i>қўникмаларига эга бўлиши;</i> • тилшунослик назарияси асосларини, лингвистик қонунлар, тушунчалар категорияларини, мулоқот жараёнларининг функционал дискурс хусусиятларини <i>билиши ва улардан фойдалана олиш малакасига эга бўлиши керак.</i>
4.	<p>VI. Таълим технологиялари ва методлари:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • маърузалар; • интерфаол кейс-стадилар; • семинарлар (мантикий фиклаш, тезкор савол-жавоблар); • гуруҳларда ишлаш; • тақдимотларни қилиш; • индивидуал лойиҳалар; • жамоа бўлиб ишлаш ва ҳимоя қилиш учун лойиҳалар.
5.	<p>VII. Кредитларни олиш учун талаблар:</p> <p>Фанга оид назарий ва услубий тушунчаларни тўла ўзлаштириш, таҳлил натижаларини тўғри ақс эттира олиш, ўрганилаётган жараёнлар ҳақида мустақил мушоҳада юритиш ва жорий, оралик назорат шаклларида берилган вазифа ва топшириқларни бажариш, якуний назорат бўйича ёзма ишни топшириш.</p>
6.	<p>Асосий адабиётлар²</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Инглиз тили</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Abduazizov A.A. English Phonetics. Tashkent, 2007. 2. Антрушина Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка. Москва.: “ Дрофа”, 2006 3. Ashurova D.U., Galiyeva M.R. Stylistics of Literary text. Tashkent.: “Turon-Iqbol”, 2016 4. Blokh M.Y. Theoretical Grammar of the English Language. M, 2004 5. Eastwood J. Oxford guide to English grammar. Oxford, OUP, 2002. 6. Galperin I.R. Stylistics. M.: Higher School, 2000. 7. Hogg R. Cambridge History of the English language, Volume I, 2005. 8. Iriskulov M., Kuldashv A. Theoretical Grammar of the English Language. T.2020 9. Muminov O.M. Lexicology of the English language. T, 2006. 10. Nino Kirkavialidze. Theoretical Course of English Grammar. Tbilisi, 2013 11. Peter Roach “English phonetics and phonology” Camb.Univ. press, 2000, 2 nd edition 12. Rastorguyeva T. A. “A history of the English language”. M.: Vlados, 2003.

² Адабиётлар рўйхатида ОТМ ахборот-ресурс марказлари имкониятлари, соҳага оид замонавий манбалар ва ҳар бир тил хусусиятлари инобатга олинган ҳолда қўшимчалар киритилиши мумкин. Киритилган қўшимчалар ишчи дастурларда келтирилади.

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- Фан дастури Олий ва ўрта махсус, профессионал таълим йўналишлари бўйича ўқув-услубий бирлашмалар фаолиятини Мувофиқлаштирувчи кенгашининг 2020 йил “14” августдаги 3-сонли баённомаси билан маъқулланган.

Ўзбекистон Республикаси Олий ва ўрта махсус таълим вазирлигининг 2020 йил “14” августдаги 418-сонли буйруғи билан маъқулланган фан дастурларини таянч олий

	таълим муассасаси томонидан тасдиқлашга розилик берилган.
8.	<p>Фан/модуль учун масъуллар: К.А. Джаббарова – ЎзДЖТУ, “Инглиз тили аспектлари назарияси №1” кафедраси мудири, катта ўқитувчи З. Б. Давронова – ЎзДЖТУ, “Француз тили назарияси ва амалиёти ” кафедраси мудири, катта ўқитувчи Т.Ж. Олтиев – ЎзДЖТУ “Испан тили назарияси ва амалиёти” кафедраси мудири, филология фанлари номзоди, доцент С.Н. Султонова – ЎзДЖТУ, “Инглиз тили назарий фанлар” кафедраси мудири, катта ўқитувчи М.Я Қосимова – ЎзДЖТУ, “Немис тили назарияси ва амалиёти” кафедраси мудири, катта ўқитувчи У.Йўлдошев – ЎзДЖТУ, “Инглиз тили таржима назарияси ва амалиёти” кафедраси мудири, PhD Ш.Абдуганиев – ЎзДЖТУ, “Таржима назарияси ва амалиёти” кафедраси ўқитувчиси</p>
9.	<p>Тақризчилар: Ж.Ш.Джумабаева – ЎзМУ, “Инглиз филологияси” кафедраси мудири, филология фанлари доктори М.Т. Тошхонов – ЎзДЖТУ, “Испан тили назарияси ва амалиёти” кафедраси доценти, педагогика фанлари номзоди</p>

GULISTON DAVLAT UNIVERSITETI

“ TASDIQLAYMAN ”

O‘quv ishlari bo‘yicha prorektor

_____ J.X.Karshibayev

2022 yil “ ___ ” _____

**“O‘RGANILAYOTGAN TIL NAZARIY ASPEKTLARI”
ISHCHI O‘QUV DASTURI**

Bilim sohasi: 100000 – Gumanitar soha
Ta’lim sohasi: 110000 – Pedagogika
Ta’lim yo‘nalishi: 5111400 – Xorijiy til va adabiyoti (Ingliz tili)

O‘quv soatlari hajmi: – 240soat
Ma’ruza mashg‘ulotlari – 60 (5-semestr – 30 s, 6-semestr – 30s)
Seminar mashg‘ulotlari – 60 (5-semestr – 30s, 6-semestr – 30s)
Mustaqil ta’lim soati – 120 (5-semestr – 60s, 6-semestr – 60 s)

Guliston- 2022

Mazkur fanning ishchi o'quv dasturi O'zbekiston Respublikasi Oliy va o'rta maxsus ta'lim vazirligining 2020 yil 14 avgustdagi 418-sonli buyrug'i bilan tasdiqlangan "O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari" fani dasturi asosida tayyorlangan.

Mazkur ishchi fan dasturi "Ingliz tili va adabiyoti" kafedrasining 2022 yil "___" ___avgust__dagi yig'ilishida muhokama qilinib, tasdiqlash uchun tavsiya etilgan. (___1___-sonli bayonnoma).

Mazkur ishchi fan dasturi "Filologiyar" fakulteti Kengashining 2022 yil "___" ___avgust__dagi yig'ilishida muhokama qilinib, tasdiqlash uchun tavsiya etilgan. (___1___-sonli bayonnoma).

Mazkur ishchi fan dasturi Guliston davlat universiteti Kengashining 2022 yil "___" ___avgust__dagi ___1___-sonli bayonnoma bilan tasdiqlangan.

Tuzuvchi:

Ayubova S. GulDU "Ingliz tili va adabiyoti" kafedrasini o'qituvchisi

Tilavoldiyev O. GulDU "Ingliz tili va adabiyoti" kafedrasini katta o'qituvchisi

Tojiyev X. GulDU f.f.n., "Ingliz tili va adabiyoti" kafedrasini dotsenti

Kafedra mudiri: _____ **A. Pazilov**

Filologiya fakulteti dekani : _____ **M. Mamatkulov**

O'quv-uslubiy boshqarma boshlig'i _____ **I.Xudoyberdiev**

Fan / modul kodi O'TNA30118	O'quv yili 2022-2023	Semestr 5-6	ECTS- Kreditlar 4/4
Fan / modul turi Majburiy	Ta'lim tili Ingliz tili		Haftadagi dars soatlari 4/4
Fanning nomi	Auditoriya mashg'ulotlari (soat)	Mustaqil ta'lim (soat)	Jami yuklama (soat)
O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari	120	120	240

I. Fanning mazmuni

Fanni o'qitishdan maqsad – talabalarga o'rganilayotgan tilning asosiy nazariy tushunchalari, chet tilini o'rganishning uslub va yondashuvlari, tilning ilmiy bilimlar tizimida tutgan o'rni va ahamiyati bilan tanishtirish, ularga til sathlarining nutqiy muloqot jarayonida kuzatiladigan asosiy qonuniyatlarini o'rgatishdan iborat.

Fanning vazifasi – talabalarga til nazariy aspektlarining bir-biri bilan o'zaro munosabatlari to'g'risidagi ilmiy-nazariy tushunchalarni o'rgatish, ularning tabiiy til mohiyati to'g'risidagi bilimlarini kengaytirish, tilning ichki tuzilmasi, til qatlamlari va birliklarini ilmiy asosda tadqiq etish ko'nikmalarini rivojlantirishdir.

II. Asosiy nazariy qism (ma'ruza mashg'ulotlari)

“O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari” fani tarkibida 5 ta modul –“Leksikologiya”, “Nazariy fonetika”, “Nazariy grammatika”, “Stilistika” va “O'rganilayotgan til tarixi” o'qitiladi.

II.I. Fan tarkibiga quyidagi mavzular kiradi:

1. LEKSIKOLOGIYA

1-mavzu. “Leksikologiya faniga kirish”

Fanning mazmuni. Leksikologiya fan sifatida. Leksikologiya terminining paydo bo'lishi va rivojlanishi. Leksikologiyaning boshqa fanlar bilan bog'liqligi. Fanning predmeti va objekti, fanning metodi va ishlatish yo'llari. Leksikologiya fanining bo'limlari va uning boshqa qismlari bilan bog'liqligi.

2-mavzu. Leksikografiya

Leksikografiyaning fan sifatida rivojlanishi. Lug'atlarning asosiy turlari: entsiklopedik, lingvistik, izohli va tarjima lug'atlari. Lug'at turlari muammosi va ularni yaratish uslublari. Lug'atlar uchun so'z tanlash, lug'at maqolalarining tuzilishi va boshqalar. Ingliz, nemis, frantsuz va ispan tillaridagi lug'atlarning asosiy turlari: izohli va tarjima lug'atlari, sinonimlar lug'ati, frazeologik birliklar lug'ati, etimologik, ideografik, maxsus lug'atlar, neologizmlar lug'atlari va boshqalar.

O'quv lug'atlarining tuzilishi (so'zlarning birikish yo'llari lug'ati, ko'p qo'llaniladigan so'zlar lug'ati). Turli lug'atlarda so'z ma'nolarini ochib berish yo'llari. Tarjima jarayonida lug'at bilan ishlash, So'zning izohli tahlilini o'rganish, boshqa lug'atlardagi izohlari bilan qiyoslash. Til lug'at tarkibining o'zgarishi sotsiolingvistik hodisa ekanligi. Lug'at tarkibining sifat va son jihatdan o'zgarishi. Lug'at tarkibining leksik va stilistik tasnifi. So'zlarni ishlatilishi jihatidan tasnif etish. Umumiste'mol so'zlari va maxsus leksika. Arxaizmlar, istorizmlar, neologizmlar, ularning tarixiy bog'liqligi va o'zaro ta'siri. Asosiy va yordamchi so'z turkumlarining son jihatidan o'zaro farqi. Nomlashning faolligi va lug'at tarkibining boyish yo'llari. So'zning ma'no taraqqiyoti rivoji, boshqa tillardan kirgan so'zlar qatlami.

3-mavzu. Semasiologiya

Soʻz til lugʻat tarkibining asosiy birligi sifatida. Soʻzning morfema, soʻz shakli, soʻz birikmasidan farqli xususiyatlari. Motivatsiya tushunchasi. Idiomatika va motivatsiya turlari: fonetik, morfologik, semantik. Maʼno va soʻz maʼnosining tuzilishi. Oʻrganilayotgan til, ona tili va boshqa tillardagi soʻzlarning semantik tuzilishi. Soʻz maʼnosining tuzilishini oʻrganishda paradigmatika va sintagmatikaning roli. Kontekst va uning turlari. Sodda, tub, yasama va qoʻshma soʻzlarning oʻziga xos maʼnolari. Soʻz maʼnosi va uning tuzilishi. Frazeologik birliklar maʼnolarining xususiyatlari, maʼno turlari tasnifi. Soʻzning leksik- semantik variantlari.

4-mavzu. Soʻz maʼnosining oʻzgarishi va natijalari

Maʼno tuzilishida sinxronik va diaxronik qarashlar va uning rivojlanish qonuniyatlari. Lugʻat birligini semantik guruhlarga ajratish.

5-mavzu. Semantik maydon tushunchasi

Monosemiya, polisemiya, omonimlar-til birliklari sifatida. Giperonimiya va giponimiya muammolari. Sinonim, antonim va masalalari, va ularning manbalari, tasnifi, tilni boyitishi va til rivojlanishidagi ahamiyati.

6-mavzu. Soʻzlarning semantik klassifikatsiyasi

Ingliz tilida soʻzlarning semantik qatlami, kitobiy uslub, soʻzlashuv uslubida soʻzlar, soʻzlarning turli semantik va noseantik guruhlari.

7-mavzu. Soʻzning morfologik tuzilishi

Bir va koʻp morfemali soʻzlar. Morfemaning leksik birlik ekanligi. Morfemalar turlari va sinflari. Soʻz negizi va uning turlari. Hozirgi zamon ingliz tilida soʻz tuzilishining turlari. Soʻz tuzilishiga diaxronik va sinxronik qarash. Morfemalar yasash. Morfema va allomorfemalar. Soʻz tuzilishini morfemik tahlil qilish asoslari va ularning soʻz yasash tahlilidan farqi.

8-mavzu. Soʻz yasash

Soʻz yasash usullari. Soʻzning asosiy tarkibiy qismlari. Soʻz negizi. Oʻzakning tuzilishi va semantikasi. Keng va kam tarqalgan usullar bilan soʻz yasash. Leksik nomlashda soʻz yasashning roli va oʻrni. Soʻz yasash qatorlari zanjiri. Old qoʻshimchalar va ularning turlari. Har xil mezonlarga asoslanib old qoʻshimchalarni tasnif etish. Oʻzak old qoʻshimchalarning semantikasi. Yarim old qoʻshimchalar yordamida soʻz yasash. Qoʻshma soʻzlarning soʻz yasashning keng tarqalgan yoʻllaridan biri ekanligi. Anʼanaviy va zamonaviy tilshunoslikda qoʻshma soʻzlarni tasnif qilish asoslari. Qoʻshma soʻz yasashning har xil turlari, ularning keng tarqalganligi. Qoʻshma soʻzlarni ona tiliga tarjima qilish yoʻllari. Konversiya, uning kelib chiqishi va asoslari. Soʻz yasash yoʻlini aniqlashda konversiyadagi semantik aloqalarning asosiy mezon ekanligi.

Konversiyaning keng tarqalganligini belgilovchi asosiy omillar. Konversiyani tarjima qilish muammolari. Qisqartma soʻzlar (abbreviatsiya). Qisqartma soʻzlarning turlari. Klippinglar. Qisqartma soʻzlarni tarjima qilishdagi qiyinchiliklar. Soʻz yasashning kichik usullari: maʼno kengayishi, tovush va urgʻu koʻchishi, tovushga taqlid qilish va reduplikatsiya, grammatik shakllarning leksikalizatsiyalashuvi va soʻz yasashda har xil turlarning birikuvi.

9-mavzu. Frazeologiya

Frazeologiyaning maqsad va vazifalari. Turgʻun va erkin birikmalarni farqlash muammosi, ularni farqlovchi belgilar. Leksik birikish. Turgʻun birikmalar va ularning har xil mezonlarga asosan tasnifi. Frazeologik birliklarning yuzaga kelish yoʻllari. Soʻz va soʻz birikmasining oʻxshashligi va farqi. Frazeologik birliklar va ularni tarjima qilish muammolari. Frazeologik birliklarning lingvokulturoliya va pragmatika jihatdan xususiyatlari.

10-mavzu. Etimologiya

Til lugʻat tarkibining etimologik jihatdan tasnifi. Oʻrganilayotgan tilda keyin paydo boʻlgan va boshqa tillardan kirib kelgan soʻzlar. Xorijiy tillardan kirib kelgan soʻzlarning turlari, oʻzlashtirilishi, assimilyatsiyasi, lugʻat tarkibi va soʻz yasash tizimiga taʼsiri. Baynalminal soʻzlar. Etimologik lugʻatlar.

11-mavzu. Tilning lug‘at sostavidan foydalanish metodlari

Til lug‘at birliklaridan foydalanish. Leksik tadqiq qilish jarayoni, bosqichlari va metodlari.

2. NAZARIY GRAMMATIKA

1-mavzu. Nazariy grammatika faniga kirish

O‘rganilayotgan tilning genetik va morfologik xususiyatlari. Morfologiya va sintaksis. Grammatikaning ta‘rifi. Grammatik shakl va grammatik ma‘no.

2-mavzu. Til va nutq tushunchalarini farqlash

Til va nutq. Aktualizatsiya. Grammatik qurilishning birliklari. Tilni grammatik jihatdan tasvirlashning turlari. Grammatikadagi metod va nazariy yo‘nalishlar.

3-mavzu. Morfologiya

O‘rganilayotgan tilning grammatik vositalari: tilning grammatikqurilishi. ilning morfologik qurilishi. Gapda so‘z tartibi, yordamchi so‘zlar, grammatik o‘shimchalar, urg‘u va intonatsiya, o‘zak tarkibidagi tovushlar o‘zgarishi. Morfema, morf, llomorf va ularning strukturaviy turlari. Morfemanning turlari. Analitik shakl ushunchasi. Til grammatik tizimining xususiyatlari. So‘z turkumi. Asosiy so‘z urkumlari. Mustaqil va yordamchi so‘zlar. O‘rganilayotgan tilda so‘z turkumlarining umumiy xususiyatlari. So‘z turkumlarining shakl va ma‘nolari. Transpozitsiya odisasi.

4-mavzu. Grammatik kategoriyalar

Grammatikadagi asimmetriya hodisasi. Funktsional yondashuv. Grammatik kategoriyalar. Grammatik kategoriyaning mazmun plani. Grammatik kategoriyaning ifoda plani. O‘rganilayotgan til grammatik tuzilishining o‘ziga xos xususiyatlari. Grammatik ma‘noni ifoda etuvchi vositalar. Grammatik kategoriyalar. Grammatik shakl va grammatik ma‘no tushunchalari. So‘zning sintetik va analitik shakllari. So‘z turkumlari va gap bo‘laklari orasidagi munosabat. So‘zning morfologik strukturasi. Morfema va uning turlari. Kombinatorika tushunchasi.

5-mavzu. So‘z turkumlari

So‘z turkumi tushunchasi, so‘z turkumi tushunchasi mezonlari va turli olimlarning so‘z turkumi haqida fikrlari.

6-mavzu. Ot so‘z turkumi

Xorijiy tilda otning distributiv belgilari. Ularning boshqa so‘z turkumlari rdamida qo‘shilishi. Otning so‘z turkumi sifatida morfologik va semantik arakteristikasi. Otlarning asosiy semantik guruhlari. Son kategoriyasi. Otlarda o‘plik kategoriyasining ishlatilishi. Jamlovchi va partitiv otlar. Determinativlar. yetermativlarning so‘z turkumi sifatidagi umumiy xossalari. Determinativlarning yemantikasi. Kelishik kategoriyasi, kelishik kategoriyasi haqida har xil nazariyalar. Egalik kelishigining shakli va uning qo‘llanish xususiyatlari. Aniqlik-noaniqlik kategoriyasini ifodalovchi asosiy vosita. Artiklning umumnazariy muammolari, artiklning funktsiyalari, Rod kategoriyasi

7-mavzu. Sifat va ravish

Sifat so‘z turkumi sifatida. Uning asosiy xususiyatlari. Sifatning semantik tasnifi. Qiyoslash kategoriyasiga oid olmoshlarning semantikasi, sintaktik xossalari, grammatik kategoriyalari va shakllari. Ravishning semantik - grammatik guruhlari. Adverbializatsiya.

8-mavzu. Son, Olmosh

Son-so‘z turkumi sifatida. Conning turlari. Sonning gapdagi vazifalari. Olmosh so‘z turkumi sifatida. Olmoshning kelishik kategoriyasi. Olmoshning semantik va strukturaviy turlari.

9-mavzu. Fe'l

Fe'l - so‘z turkumi sifatida. Uning leksik, morfologik va sintaktik xususiyatlari, umumiy va farq qiluvchi tomonlari. Fe'lning morfologik vazifasiga ko‘ra tasnifi: mustaqil fe'llar, o‘timli va o‘timsiz fe'llar, ma‘no jihatidan tugallangan va tugallanmagan fe'llar. Fe'lning grammatik kategoriyalari: aspekt (tarz) kategoriyasi, nisbat kategoriyasi. Majxul nisbatning keng tarqalish sabablari. Majxul konstruktsiyalarning qo‘llanish xususiyatlari. Fe'l mayllari. Ular to‘g‘risidagi zamonaviy kontseptsiyalar.

Fe'ning semantik - grammatik guruhlari. Fe'l tizimidagi grammatik ma'holarni ifoda qilish vositalari. Fe'ning shaxssiz formalari. Infinitiv, gerundiylar va sifatdosha.

10-mavzu. Yordamchi so'z turkumlari

Artikl, ko'makchi, bog'lovchi, yuklama va modal so'zlar.

11-mavzu. Sintaksis va uning o'rganadigan ob'ekti

Morfologiya va Sintaksis. Sintaktik strukturalar. Sintaksisda modellashtirish tushunchasi. Gapni tahlil qilish metodlari. Grammatikaning turlari: an'anaviy grammatika, mantiqiy grammatika, strukturaviy grammatika, bevosita tashkil etuvchilarga ajratish grammatikasi, transformatsion grammatika, generativ grammatika, kelishik grammatikasi, kognitiv grammatika. O'rganilayotgan tilda til birliklari orasida kuzatiladigan sintaktik aloqalar turlari; Koordinatsiya, Subordinatsiya, Predikatsiya, Birlamchi va ikkilamchi predikatsiya tushunchalari. Murakkab tarkibli strukturalar. Polipredikativ qurilmalarning strukturaviy-funksional tahlili.

12-mavzu. Gap

Gap tushunchasini aniqlash haqidagi asosiy fikrlar. Gapni aniqlashda klassik yondashuv. Gap tasnifi. Gapning maqsadga ko'ra turlari: bir bosh bo'lakli va ikki bosh bo'lakli gaplar. Gapda ellipsis tushunchasi. Bir bosh bo'lakli va ikki bosh bo'lakli gaplarning farqi.

13-mavzu. Gapning muloqot maqsadiga ko'ra va tuzilishiga ko'ra turlari

Gap – kommunikatsiya birligi sifatida, gapning vazifasi, tuzilishi. Asosiy va ikkinchi darajali bo'laklar. Ega. Eganing ifoda vositalari. Kesim - gapning asosiy belgisi sifatida. Modallik tushunchasi. Kesimning asosiy xususiyati. Modallik kategoriyasining ifoda usullari. So'z birikmasi. Birikma xosil bo'lish omillari. So'z birikmasining strukturaviy - funksional tipologiyasi. So'z birikmasining komponentlari o'rtasidagi semantik munosabatlar. Gap bo'laklarining strukturaviy tiplari. Gap bo'laklari va so'z turkumlari o'rtasidagi munosabat. Predikativlik munosabatlarning o'ziga xos shakllariga ega bo'lgan gaplar. Qisqartirilgan sintaktik strukturaga ega bo'lgan gaplar. To'liqsiz gaplar. Atov gaplar. Polipredikativlik va murakkablashgan gaplar. Qo'shma gaplar. Bog'langan qo'shma gaplar. Ergashgan qo'shma gaplar.

Fandan o'tiladigan ma'ruza mavzular va ular bo'yicha mashg'ulot turlariga ajratilgan soatlarning taqsimoti

5-semestr

№	Fanning bo'limi va mavzusi, ma'ruza mazmuni	Soat
1	Lexicology as a science. Lexicology and its object .	2
2	English Lexicography . Types of dictionaries.	2
3	Semasiology. Word-meaning.	2
4	Types of meaning.	2
5	Change of meaning and its result	2
6	Semantic systems in English . Polysemy, Homonyms.	2
7	Synonyms, Antonyms.	2
8	Classification of semantic words.	2
9	Morphological structure of the word.	2
10	Word formation.	2
11	Conversion.	2
12	Secondary ways of word formation.	2
13	Phraseology.	2
14	Etymology.	2
15	Methods of using vocabulary units.	2

	Jami	30
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6-semestr

№	Fanning bo'limi va mavzusi, ma'ruza mazmuni	Soat
1	Theoretical grammar as a science.	2
2	Language and Speech levels.	2
3	Morphemic Structure of the English Language	2
4	Problem of Grammatical Categories	2
5	Problem of Parts of Speech	2
6	Nouns.	2
7	Adjectives	2
8	Adverbs.	2
9	Numerals.	2
10	Pronouns.	2
11	Verbs.	2
12	Determiners.	2
13	Syntax and its object .	2
14	Sentence and its types.	2
15	Types of speech according to the purpose of communication and structure	2
	Jami	30

III. Seminar mashg'ulotlari bo'yicha ko'rsatma va tavsiyalar

Seminar mashg'ulotlari uchun quyidagi mavzular tavsiya etiladi:

1. Leksikologiya

1- mavzu. Leksikologiyaning maqsadi va vazifalari.

2- mavzu. Leksikografiya: o'rganilayotgan til lug'at tarkibining umumiy tasnifi. Lug'atlarning asosiy turlari: entsiklopedik, lingvistik, izohli va tarjima lug'atlari. Lug'at turlari muammosi va ularni yaratish uslublari. Lug'atlar uchun so'z tanlash, lug'at maqolalarining tuzilishi va boshqalar. Ingliz, nemis, frantsuz va ispan tillaridagi lug'atlarning asosiy turlari: izohli va tarjima lug'atlari, sinonimlar lug'ati, frazeologik birliklar lug'ati, etimologik, ideografik, maxsus lug'atlar, neologizmlar lug'atlari va boshqalar. O'quv lug'atlarining tuzilishi (so'zlarning birikish yo'llari lug'ati, ko'p qo'llaniladigan so'zlar lug'ati). Turli lug'atlarda so'z ma'nolarini ochib berish yo'llari. Tarjima jarayonida lug'at bilan ishlash, So'zning izohli tahlilini o'rganish, boshqa lug'atlardagi izohlari bilan qiyoslash. Til lug'at tarkibining o'zgarishi sotsiolingvistik hodisa ekanligi. Lug'at tarkibining sifat va son jihatdan o'zgarishi. Lug'at tarkibining leksik va stilistik tasnifi. So'zlarni ishlatilishi jihatidan tasnif etish. Umumiste'mol so'zlari va maxsus leksika. Arxaizmlar, istorizmlar, neologizmlar, ularning tarixiy bog'liqligi va o'zaro ta'siri. Asosiy va yordamchi so'z turkumlarining son jihatidan o'zaro farqi. Nomlashning faolligi va lug'at tarkibining boyish yo'llari. So'zning ma'no taraqqiyoti rivoji, boshqa tillardan kirgan so'zlar qatlami.

3-mavzu. Semasiologiya: So'zlarning fonetik va semantik aspektlari. Kontekst turlari, ma'noning turlari va so'zning leksik-semantik variantlari, semantik

maydon. Monosemiya, polisemiya, giper-giponimiya muammolari. Sinonim, antonim va omonimlar va ularning tasnifi.

4-mavzu. Soʻzning morfologik qurilishi: morfemalar tiplari va sinflari. Soʻz tuzilishidagi diaxronik va sinxronik qarash. Morfema va allomorfemalar.

5-mavzu. Soʻz yasash: leksik nom berishda soʻz yasashning roli va oʻrni. Konversiya, uning kelib chiqishi va asoslari. Qoʻshma soʻzlarni ona tiliga tarjima qilishning yoʻllari. Qisqartma soʻzlar.

6-mavzu. Frazeologiya: turgʻun va erkin birikmalarni farqlash muammosi. Ularni farqlovchi belgilar. Frazeologik birliklar va ularni tarjima qilish muammolari.

7-mavzu. Etimologiya: Oʻrganilayotgan tilda paydo boʻlgan soʻzlar va boshqa tillardan kirib kelgan soʻzlar va ularning turlari, oʻzlashtirilishi, assimilyatsiya, internatsional soʻzlar va etimologik dubletlar.

8-mavzu. Matnlarni leksik tahlil qilish jarayoni, matndagi soʻzlarning morfologik qurilishiga koʻra tahlil, soʻz yasalish uslubiga koʻra tahlil, soʻzlarning semantik va polisemantik xususiyatlariga koʻra tahlil, soʻzlarning matndagi asl va frazeologik maʼnosiga koʻra tahlili, soʻzlarning etimologik xususiyatlariga koʻra tahlili.

2. Nazariy grammatika

1-mavzu. Nazariy grammatika fanining maqsadi va predmeti.

2-mavzu. Til va nutq. Grammatikada metod va nazariy yoʻnalishlari. Grammatik tahlil usullari.

3-mavzu. Soʻzning morfologik qurilishi: morfemalar tiplari va sinflari. Soʻz tuzilishidagi diaxronik va sinxronik qarash. Morfema va allomorfemalar.

4-mavzu. Morfologiya. Grammatik shakl va grammatik maʼno. Grammatik maʼnoni ifodalash usullari.

5-mavzu. Oʻrganilayotgan tildagi soʻzlarni turkumlarga ajratishning asosiy tamoyillari.

6-mavzu. Oʻrganilayotgan til morfologiyasi. Oʻrganilayotgan tilda ot soʻz turkumi va uning grammatik kategoriyalari.

7-mavzu. Oʻrganilayotgan tilda feʼl soʻz turkumi. Feʼlning strukturasi va grammatik kategoriyalari.

8-mavzu. Oʻrganilayotgan tilda feʼlning semantik xususiyatlari

9-mavzu. Oʻrganilayotgan tilda Sintaksis. Soʻz birikmasi va sodda gap.

10-mavzu. Sintaksis. Sintaktik birliklar. Sintaktik aloqalar turlari. Soʻz birikmalarining asosiy belgi va xossalari.

11-mavzu. Gap nazariyasi. Gapning taʼrifi va klassifikatsiyasi. Mikro va makrosintaksis. Gapni tahlil qilish metodlari.

12-mavzu. Oʻrganilayotgan tilda gapning tuzilish jihatdan turlari.

13-mavzu. Oʻrganilayotgan tilda qoʻshma gap turlari.

Fandan oʻtiladigan seminar mavzular va ular boʻyicha mashgʻulot turlariga ajratilgan soatlarning taqsimoti

5- semester

№	Fanning boʻlimi va mavzusi, maʼruza mazmuni	Soat
1	Lexicology as a science. Lexicology and its object .	2
2	English Lexicography . Types of dictionaries.	2
3	Semasiology. Word-meaning.	2
4	Types of meaning.	2

5	Change of meaning and its result	2
6	Semantic systems in English . Polysemy, Homonyms.	2
7	Synonyms, Antonyms.	2
8	Classification of semantic words.	2
9	Morphological structure of the word.	2
10	Word formation.	2
11	Conversion.	2
12	Secondary ways of word formation.	2
13	Phraseology.	2
14	Etymology.	2
15	Methods of using vocabulary units.	2
	Jami	30

6- semester

№	Fanning bo'limi va mavzusi, ma'ruza mazmuni	Soat
1	Theoretical grammar as a science.	2
2	Language and Speech levels.	2
3	Morphemic Structure of the English Language	2
4	Problem of Grammatical Categories	2
5	Problem of Parts of Speech	2
6	Nouns.	2
7	Adjectives	2
8	Adverbs.	2
9	Numerals.	2
10	Pronouns.	2
11	Verbs.	2
12	Determiners.	2
13	Syntax and its object .	2
14	Sentence and its types.	2
15	Types of speech according to the purpose of communication and structure	2
	Jami	30

IV. Mustaqil ta'lim va mustaqil ishlar

Mustaqil ta'lim uchun tavsiya etiladigan mavzular:

Leksikologiya

1. Leksikologiya va til.
2. So'zlarning fonetik va morfologik aspektlari.
3. Lug'at tarkibining sifat va son jihatlari.
4. Arxaizmlar va neologizmlar.
5. Leksik nomlanishning faolligi va lug'at tarkibining boyish yo'llari.
6. Til lug'at tarkibining etimologik jihatdan tasnifi.
7. So'z ma'nosining tuzilishini o'rganishda paradigmatika va sintagmatikanin roli.

8. Ma'noning turlari va so'zning leksik - semantik ma'nolari.
9. Sinonim, antonim va omonimlar.
10. So'zning morfologik qurilishi.
11. Turg'un va erkin birikmalar.
12. So'z birikmasining o'xshashligi va farqi.
13. So'zlarning etimologiyasi.
14. Matnlarni leksik tahlil etish

Nazariy grammatika

15. Gapda so'zlarning ma'noli birikish usullari.
16. Ot so'z turkumi va uning grammatik kategoriyalari.
17. Fe'l so'z turkumi va uning grammatik kategoriyalari.
18. Sifat so'z turkumi va uning turlari.
19. Son kategoriyasi.
20. Gapning tuzilishiga ko'ra turlari.
21. Gapning ifoda maqsadiga ko'ra turlari.
22. O'rganilayotgan tildada qo'shma gaplar.(Bog'langan qo'shma gap va ergashgan gapli qo'shma gap)
23. Gapda sintaktik aloqalar turlari.
24. Birlamchi va ikkilamchi predikatsiya tushunchalari.

Mustaqil o'zlashtiriladigan mavzular bo'yicha talabalar tomonidan referatlar tayyorlash va uni taqdimot qilish tavsiya etiladi. Fan bo'yicha kurs ishi.

Talabalar mustaqil ta'limining mazmuni va hajmi

5-semestr

#	Ishchi o'quv dasturining mustaqil ta'limga oid bo'lim va mavzulari	Mustaqil ta'limga oid topshiriq va tavsiyalar	Hajmi (soatda)
1	Lexicology and language.	Power point presentation	4
2	Phonetic and morphological aspects of words.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	4
3	Qualitative and quantitative aspects of vocabulary.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	4
4	Archaisms and neologisms.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	4
5	Activity of lexical naming and ways to enrich vocabulary.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	4
6	Etymological classification of the language vocabulary.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	4
7	Paradigmatics and syntagmatics in studying the structure of word meaning role.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	4
8	Types of meaning and lexical-semantic meanings of the word.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	4
9	Synonyms, antonyms and homonyms.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	6
10	Morphological construction of the word.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	4
11	Stable and free compounds.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	4
12	Similarity and difference of word combination.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	4
13	Etymology of words.	Text Analysis,	4

		Power point presentation	
14	Lexical analysis of texts	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	6
	Jami		60

6-semestr

#	Ishchi o'quv dasturining mustaqil ta'limga oid bo'lim va mavzulari	Mustaqil ta'limga oid topshiriq va tavsiyalar	Hajmi (soatda)
1	Ways of combining words in a sentence.	Power point presentation	6
2	Nouns and their grammatical categories.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	6
3	Verbs and their grammatical categories.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	6
4	Adjectives and their types.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	6
5	The category of numerals.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	6
6	Types of sentences according to their structure.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	6
7	Types of sentences based on the purpose of expression.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	6
8	22. Conjunctions and clauses of the English language.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	6
9	Types of syntactical connections in a sentence.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	6
10	Concepts of primary and secondary predication.	Text Analysis, Power point presentation	6
	Jami		60

Kurs ishi fan mavzulariga taalluqli masalalar yuzasidan talabalarga yakka tartibda tegishli topshiriq shaklida beriladi. Kurs ishining hajmi, rasmiylashtirish shakli, baholash mezonlari ishchi fan dasturida va tegishli kafedra tomonidan belgilanadi. Kurs ishini bajarish talabalarda fanga oid bilim, ko'nikma va malakalarni shakllantirishga xizmat qilishi kerak.

Kurs ishi uchun taxminiy mavzular:

Leksikologiya

1. Semasiologiya: So'zlarning fonetik va semantik aspektlari
2. Kontekst turlari, ma'noning turlari va so'zning leksik-semantik variantlari, semantik maydon.
3. Monosemiya, polisemiya, giperonimiya -giponimiya muammolari.
4. Sinonimlar va ularning tasnifi
5. Antonimlar va ularning tasnifi
6. Omonimlar va ularning tasnifi.
7. So'zning morfologik qurilishi: morfemalar tiplari va sinflari.
8. So'z tuzilishi, diaxronik va sinxronik qarashlar.
9. Morfema va allomorfemalar.
10. So'z yasash: leksik nom berishda so'z yasashning roli va o'rni.
11. Konversiya, uning kelib chiqishi va asoslari.

12. Qo'shma so'zlarni ona tiliga tarjima qilishning yo'llari.
13. Qisqartma so'zlar.
14. Frazeologiya: turg'un va erkin birikmalarni farqlash muammosi.
15. Frazeologik birliklar va ularning shakllanish etimologiyasi
16. Etimologiya: O'rganilayotgan tilda paydo bo'lgan so'zlar va boshqa tillardan kirib kelgan so'zlar va ularning turlari, o'zlashtirilishi, assimilyatsiya.
17. Internatsional so'zlar va etimologik dubletlar.
18. Leksikografiya: o'rganilayotgan til lug'at tarkibining umumiy tasnifi.

Nazariy grammatika

19. So'zning morfologik qurilishi: morfemalar tiplari va sinflari.
20. So'z tuzilishidagi diaxronik va sinxronik qarash. Morfema va allomorfemalar.
21. Grammatik kategoriyalar, grammatik shakl va grammatik ma'no.
22. O'rganilayotgan tilda so'zlarning turkumlarga ajratishning asosiy tamoyillari.
23. O'rganilayotgan tilda morfologiyasi. Ot so'z turkumi va uning grammatik kategoriyalari.
24. O'rganilayotgan tilda fe'l so'z turkumi. Fe'lning strukturasi va grammatik kategoriyalari.
25. O'rganilayotgan tilda fe'lning semantik xususiyatlari
26. O'rganilayotgan tilda Sintaksis. So'z birikmasi va sodda gap.
27. Sintaksis. Sintaktik birliklar. Sintaktik aloqalar turlari.
28. So'z birikmalarining asosiy belgi va xossalari.
29. Gap nazariyasi. Gapning ta'rifi va klassifikatsiyasi.
30. Mikro va makrosintaksis.
31. Gapni tahlil qilish metodlari.
32. O'rganilayotgan tilda gapning tuzilish jihatdan turlari

V. Fan o'qitilishining natijalari (shakllanadigan kompetensiyalar)

Fanni o'zlashtirish natijasida talaba:

- o'rganilayotgan xorijiy til fonetik strukturasi, grammatik qurilishi va lug'at tarkibining asosiy tushunchalari va kategoriyalari to'g'risida tasavvur va bilimga ega bo'lishi;
- talaba lisoniy muloqot jarayonlarini tahlil qilish usullarini qo'llash, nutqiy muloqot muammolari bo'yicha to'g'ri qaror qabul qilish ko'nikmalariga ega bo'lishi;
- tilshunoslik nazariyasi asoslarini, lingvistik qonunlar, tushunchalar kategoriyalarini, muloqot jarayonlarining funktsional diskurs xususiyatlarini bilishi va ulardan foydalana olish malakasiga ega bo'lishi kerak.

VI. Ta'lim texnologiyalari va metodlari:

- ma'ruzalar;
- interfaol keys-stadilar;
- seminarlar (mantiqiy fiklash, tezkor savol-javoblar);
- guruhlarda ishlash;
- taqdimotlarni qilish;
- individual loyihalar;
- jamoa bo'lib ishlash va himoya qilish uchun loyihalar.

VII. Kreditlarni olish uchun talablar:

Fanga oid nazariy va uslubiy tushunchalarni to‘la o‘zlashtirish, tahlil natijalarini to‘g‘ri aks ettira olish, o‘rganilayotgan jarayonlar haqida mustaqil mushohada yuritish va joriy, oraliq nazorat shakllarida berilgan vazifa va topshiriqlarni bajarish, yakuniy nazorat bo‘yicha yozma ishni topshirish.

Asosiy adabiyotlar

Ingliz tili

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2. Blokh M.Y. Theoretical Grammar of the English Language. M, 2004
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5. Muminov O.M. Lexicology of the English language. T, 2006.
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Qo‘shimcha adabiyotlar

Ingliz tili

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2. Арсеньева А.А и др. Введение в германскую филологию. Москва. 1983
3. Давлетбаева Д.Н. Lectures on English lexicology Казань-2010
4. Downing A., Locke F. English Grammar. A University Course. Routledge, 2006, 640 p
5. Гинзбург. Р.З., Хидекел С.С., Князева Г.Ю., Санкин А.А. A course in Modern English Lexicology. Москва, 1979

Axborot manbalari

Ingliz tili

1. <http://www.britishcouncil.org>
2. <http://www.bbc>
3. <http://encyclopedia.farlex.com>
4. <http://tpot.ru/index.html>.<http://www.oup.co.uk>
5. www.onestopenglish.com.<http://youreng.narod.ru/teoper.html>
6. Website dedicated to linguistics: www.linguist.org
7. Русский филологический портал: www.philology.ru
8. www.natlib.uz
9. www.dissercat.ru
10. www.nauka.ru
11. www.dissorg.com
12. www.uzscience.uz
13. www.linguist.org

Talaba bilimini baholash

Talaba bilimini baholash kredit-modul tizimiga muvofiq ishlab chiqilgan Nizom asosida amalga oshiriladi.

Nazorat turi	1-OB	YaB
O‘tkazilish vaqti	9- hafta	17- hafta
Nazorat shakli	Yozma*	Yozma

Oraliq baholash: fanning ma'ruza qismiga tegishli teng yarmi o'tib bo'lingandan so'ng so'ng OB olinadi. Bunda o'tilgan mavzularga doir 3 ta nazariy yozma savollari varianti tarqatiladi. Oldindan tuzilgan 3 ta yozma variantlarini to'la echgan talabaga xar bir to'g'ri javob uchun maksimal 5 baho beriladi.

Yakuniy baholash o'tilgan barcha mavzular bo'yicha tuzilgan variantlari asosida o'tkaziladi. Bunda xar bir talabaga semestr davomida o'tilgan mavzular bo'yicha 3 ta nazariy savol variantlari tarqatiladi. Talaba yozma javobning xar biridan maksimal 5 baho to'plash imkoniyatiga ega. Umumiy baxo o'rtacha arifmetika asosida chiqariladi.

****Izoh. Nazoratlardagi har bir savol va topshiriqlar quyidagi baholash mezonlari bo'yicha baholanadi.***

Talabalar bilimini baholash mezonlari

a) **“5” (a'lo)** baho uchun talabaning bilim darajasi quyidagilarga javob berishi lozim:

- Hulosa va qaror qabul qilish;
- Ijodiy fikrlay olish;
- Mustaqil mushohada yurita olish;
- Olgan bilimlarini amalda qo'llay olish;
- Mohiyatini tushunish;
- Bilish, aytib berish;
- Tasavvurga ega bo'lish;

b) **“4” (yaxshi)** baho uchun talabaning bilim darajasi quyidagilarga javob berishi lozim:

- Mustaqil mushohada yurita olish;
- Olgan bilimlarini amalda qo'llay olish;
- Mohiyatini tushunish;
- Bilish, aytib berish;
- Tasavvurga ega bo'lish;

v) **“3” (qoniqarli)** baho uchun talabaning bilim darajasi quyidagilarga javob berishi lozim:

- Mohiyatini tushunish;
- Bilish, aytib berish;
- Tasavvurga ega bo'lish;

g) talabaning bilim darajasi **“2” (qoniqarsiz)** deb quyidagi hollarda baholanadi:

- Aniq tasavvurga ega bo'lmaslik;
- Javoblarda xatoliklarga yo'l qo'yilganlik;
- Bilmaslik.