

ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ
ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС ТАЪЛИМ ВАЗИРЛИГИ

«Рўйхатга олинди»

№ _____
« ____ » _____ 2006 й.

«Тасдиқланди»
Ўз.Р.ОЎМТВ

_____ 2006 й.
« ____ » _____ 2006 й.

ИНГЛИЗ ТИЛИ ЛЕКСИКОЛОГИЯСИ
фани дастури

Билим соҳаси: 100000 – Таълим

Таълим соҳаси: 140000 - Ў=итувчилар тайёрлаш ва педагогика фани

Бакалавриат
йўналиши: 5141400 – Хорижий тиллар ва адабиёти (инглиз тили)

Инглиз тили лексикологияси фани - бакалаврият талабаларида ўрта умумтаълим мактаблари, академик лицей ва касб-хунар коллежларида амалий машғулотлар олиб бориш кўникма ва малакаларини шакллантириш учун хизмат қилади. Фан дастурига асосан инглиз тили лексикологиясининг назарий масалалари, сўз ясаши, сўзнинг семантик структураси, сўз маъноларининг турлари, омоним ва синоним сўзлар, замонавий инглиз тилининг луғат системаси, луғат турлари ва фразеологик бирикмалар ва шу каби мавзулар киритилган.

Тузувчилар: профессор Ж.Ж.Жалолов,
катта ўқитувчи Ғ.Н.Рахмонов,
З.Қ. Тешабоева

Таъризчилар: профессор Ҳ.М. Мусаев,
доцент О.М. Мўминов

Дастур Низомий номидаги Тошкент давлат педагогика университети қошидаги “Таълим” ўқув-методик бирлашмасида кўриб чиқилган ва тавсия қилинган.

2006 «__» _____даги __ -сонли мажлис баёни

Олий ва ўрта махсус, касб-хунар таълим ўқув-методик бирлашмалар фаолиятини мувофиқлаштирувчи кенгашнинг 2006 йилдаги «___» ___-сонли қайдномаси билан тасдиққа тавсия этилган.

Кириш

1.1. Инглиз тили лексикологияси фанининг маъсад ва вазифалари

Инглиз тили лексикологияси фани - бакалаврият талабаларида ўрта умумтаълим мактаблари, академик лицей ва касб-хунар коллежларида амалий машғулотлар олиб бориш кўникма ва малакаларини шакллантириш учун хизмат этади.

Бу фан бўйича таълимдаги маъсад ва вазифалар кўзда тутилади.

- Бакалаврларни келгуси касбий фаолиятлари учун пухта назарий асос яратиш.
- Бўлажак бакалаврларни инглиз тили лексикологиясининг мазмуни, илмий – тадқиқот методлари, замонавий инглиз тили луғат системаси, сўз ясаши ва б. мавзулар билан таништириш.
- Келгуси касбий фаолиятларида инглиз тили лексикологиясига оид билимлардан фойдаланиш кўникма ва малакаларини шакллантириш.
- Олган назарий билимларини ўрта умумтаълим мактабларида, академик лицей ва касб – хунар коллежларида татбиқ этишни ўргатиш.

1.2. Талабалар билимига таъйинладиган талаблар

«Инглиз тили лексикологияси» фани бўйича талабалар таълимдаги билимлар билан таъролланган бўлиши зарур.

- Лексикология–замонавий инглиз тили луғат системасини таърганувчи фан эканлиги таъида.
- Инглиз тили сўзларининг морфологик тузилиши ва сўз ясаши.
- Инглиз тили сўзларининг семантик тузилиши ва ундаги ўзгаришлар.
- Замонавий инглиз тилидаги синоним, омоним ва антоним сўзлар таъида.
- Инглиз тилида сўз бирикмалари ва уларнинг таълланиши.
- Инглизтабон мамлакатлар инглиз тилисининг ўзига хос хусусиятлари.
- Инглиз тили луғат системаси ва уларнинг ривожланиши таъидаги билимлар билан.

1.3 «Инглиз тили лексикологиясининг» бошта фанлар билан алоата

Бу фан тилшунослик, назарий фонетика, назарий грамматика, инглиз тили тарихи, матн шарҳи, инглиз тили стилистикаси, таржима назарияси ва амалиёти, инглиз тили амалий курси фанларининг назарий ва амалий хулосаларига таънади.

1.4. «Инглиз тили лексикологиясида» фан бўйича нашр этилган дарслик, таълланма (уларнинг айримлари фойдаланилган адабиётлар таъсмида кўрсатилган), луғат ва бошта кўргазмалар таъроллардан фойдаланилади.

Асосий қисм

1. Лекция машғулотларининг мазмуни

№	Лекция мазмуни
1.	Introduction. Lexicology as a science. The subject – matter of Lexicology. Types of Lexicology. The connection of Lexicology with other aspects of the

	languages.
2.	General characteristic features of Modern English vocabulary system. Problems of classification of vocabulary system of the English language.
3.	The Etymology of Modern English vocabulary. Etymological bases of English dictionary. The main features of native English words.
4.	Morphological structure of the English words and word formation. Words and morphemes. Simple, derived, compound and compound – derived words.
5.	Semantic structure of the English word . Changes in semantic structure. The definition of the term “meaning of the word” . Types of meanings.
6.	Homonyms. The sources of homonyms. The classification of homonyms.
7.	The relations between synonyms and antonyms in Modern English. Synonyms and their classification. Antonyms and their classification.
8.	Word combination in Modern English. The main types of word – combinations.
9.	Phraseology in Modern English. The main types of phraseological units in Modern English.
10.	The stylistic differentiation of the vocabulary system of Modern English.
11.	The main peculiarities of the vocabulary system of the English speaking countries
12.	Lexicography of the English language. The aim and tasks of compiling dictionaries. English dictionaries and their development.

2. Семинар машғулотларининг мазмуни

1.	Introduction. Lexicology as a science.
2.	General characteristic features of Modern English vocabulary system.
3.	The Etymology of Modern English vocabulary
4.	Morphological structure of the English words and word formation
5.	Semantic structure of the English word . Changes in semantic structure
6.	Homonyms. The sources of homonyms. The classification of homonyms
7.	The relations between synonyms and antonyms in Modern English
8.	Word combination in Modern English
9.	Phraseology in Modern English
10.	The stylistic differentiation of the vocabulary system of Modern English
11.	The main peculiarities of the vocabulary system of the English speaking countries
12.	Lexicography of the English language . English dictionaries and their development.

4. Курс иши

Инглиз тили лексикологияси фанидан талабалар курс иши ёзишлари мумкин. Курс иши мавзулари маъруза, семинар ёки амалий Машғулотлар мазмунидан танланади. Машғулотларда кўрсатилган йирик мавзулар таркибидан алоҳида кичик мавзулар олиниши мумкин.

Курс ишнинг ҳажми 15 саҳифа (0,5 б.т.) дан кам бўлмаслиги талаб қилинади.

Талаба тайёрлаган курс иши академик гуруҳда ҳимоя қилинади ва 100 баллик рейтинг усули билан баҳоланади.

5. АДАБИЁТЛАР

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6. Қўшимча адабиётлар

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O'ZBEKISTON
RESPUBLIKASI OLIY VA O'RTA MAXSUS TA'LIM VAZIRLIGI
NAMANGAN DAVLAT UNIVERSITETI

«TASDIQLAYMAN»
O'quv ishlari bo'yicha prorektor,
_____ dots. S. H Abdullayev
« ___ » _____ 2008 yil

LEKSIKOLOGIYA

FANI BO'YICHA

Bilim sohasi: 200000 Gumanitar fanlar va san'at
Ta'lim yo'nalishi: 220000 Gumanitar fanlar
Bakalavriat yo'nalishi: 5220100-Horijiy Filologiya (ingliz tili)
kunduzgi yo'nalishi III- bosqichi uchun

ISHCHI O'QUV DASTURI

Umumiy o'quv soati: 66 soat
Shu jumladan: Ma`ruza: 14 soat
Seminar: 16 soat.
Mustaqil ta`lim: 36 soat.



NAMANGAN – 2008

Ushbu ishchi dastur 2006 yil Davlat ta'lim standarti va O'R OO'MTV tomonidan №BD 5220100/-4.01 raqami bilan 18 iul 2006 yilda ro'yhatga olinib tasdiqlangan namunaviy dastur hamda «5220100 – Filologiya (ingliz tili)» ta'lim yo'nalishi o'quv dasturi va o'quv rejasiga muvofiq ishlab chiqildi.

Fanning ishchi o'quv dasturi Namangan davlat universitetining Filologiya fakulteti Ilmiy kengashining 2008 yil «28»avgust 1-son majlisida muhokama etildi va maqullandi.

Ilmiy kengash raisi, f.f.d., prof:

R.Karimov

Bayonnoma № 1 «28» avgust 2008 yil

Tuzuvchi:

M.Umarova

Ingliz tili kafedrası katta o'qituvchisi

Taqrizchilar:

Leksika- stilistika kafedrası mudiri : _____ prof. N.Otajonov

Ingliz tili kafedrası katta o'qituvchisi: _____ Yo.Soliyev

Fanning ishchi o'quv dasturi Filologiya fakulteti Ingliz tili kafedrasining 2008 yil «27»avgustdagi «1»-sonli qarori bilan tasdiqlandi.

Ingliz tili kafedrası mudiri :

f.f.n.: D.Hoshimova

«27» avgust 2008 yil

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1.KIRISH

So'z tilning eng asosiy birligidir. Tildagi barcha so'zlarning yig'indisi uning Lug'at tarkibi yoki leksikasi deb atalib, ularni leksikologiya o'rganadi. Lekcikologiya

tilshunoslik asosiy kursining uzviy qismi bo'lib, tilshunoslik sohasidagi yo'nalishlarda muhim o'rin tutadi. Tilning leksikasini o'rganish juda keng soha bo'lib, u so'zlarni xosil qilish, lug'at sostavining boyishi va nutqda ishlatilishi, ma'nolarning o'zgarishi va kengayishi turli terminlarning qo'llanilishi kabi bir qator masalalarni qamrab oladi. Shu tufayli, leksikologiyaning ma'no tomonlarini q'rganuvchi aloxida-aloxida sohalari mavjud bo'lib, ular so'zni ilmiy tadqiq etish bilan belgilanadi

O'quv faninig maqsad va vazifalari

Xozirgi zamon ingliz tili leksikologiyasi kursining maqsadi talabalarga hozirgi zamon ingliz tili lug'atining tuzilishi, so'zlar va ularning kelib chiqish ma'nolari, so'zning leksik-semantik xususiyatlari haqida ilmiy-nazariy ma'lumotlarni berishdan iborat. Kurs hozirgi zamon tilshunos olimlarining ilmiy-nazariy yutuqlariga tayangan holda olib boriladi. Bundan tashqari yosh mutaxassislarni mustaqil pedagog iilmiy faoliyatga tayorlash uchun chet el tilshunoslarining metodik va nazariy ishlariga tanqidiy yondashishga ham e'tiborni jalb qilishga o'rgatib boradi. Mazkur kurs 32 soatga mo'ljallangan bo'lib, 16 soat ma'ruza va 16 soat amaliy mashg'ulotga mo'ljallangan.

Leksikologiya fanini oqitish uchun belgilangan vazifalar :

- Talabalarning butun kurs davomida o'rganiladigan materiallar haqida mustaqil fikrlarini shakllantirish va talabalarga o'tilgan materiallarga tanqidiy yondashuv ko'nikmasini rivojlantirish
- Badiiy adabiyot uslublari tushunchasini ochib berish ;
- Talabalarning lug'at ustida to'g'ri ishlay bilish ko'nikma va qobiliyatlarini shakllantirish; so' va uning tarkibi ,turli ma'nolarda ishlata olish malakalarini oshirib borish.

.Fanning o'rganadigan muammolari

Ma'ruza darslarida tilshunos olimlarning monographiya va qo'llanmalaridan o'rinni foydalanib, talabalarni lingvistik analiziningturli uslublari bilan tanishtirish, hozirgi zmon ingliz tili lug'at tuzilishining synxronik va diyaxronik ta'rifini tushuntirish, lug'atlar ustida ishlash malakasini oshirish xamda notanish tekstlarni o'qib turli xil lug'atlar yordamida analiz qilishga o'rgatishdan iborat.O'g'zaki va yozma nutqning semantik va ekspressiv, stilistik, leksik va sintaktik farqlari.Og'zaki va yozma nutqning aralash shakllari sifatida monologik va dialogik nutq.Ijtimoiy aloqa muammosida dialog eng ko'p ishlatiladigan shakl ekanligi.Mualliflar uslubining yagonalik muammolarini o'rganadi.

Fan bo'yicha bilim, malaka va ko'nikmaga qo'yiladigan talablar,
"Ingliz tili leksikologiyasi" o'quv fanini o'zlashtirish jarayonida amalga oshiriladigan masalalar doirasida bakalavr quyidagi malakalarga ega bo'lishlari kerak:

- Leksikologiya–zamonaviy ingliz tili lug'at sistemasini o'rganuvchi fan ekanligi haqida tassavurga ega bo'lish.
- Ingliz tili so'zlarining morfologik tuzilishi va so'z yasalishi.
- so'z yasash usullari va ularning ishlatilish o'rni;

- Ingliz tili so'zlarining semantik tuzilishi va undagi o'zgarishlar.
- Zamonaviy ingliz tilidagi sinonim, omonim va antonim so'zlar haqida.
- Ingliz tilida so'z birikmalari va ularning qo'llanishi.
- Ingliz tili frazeologizmlari va ularning asosiy xususiyatlari; iboralar, so'birikmalari va ularning ma'nosiga putur etkizmay tarjimada aks ettira olish ;
- fraseologizmlarning stilistik usulda ishlata olish;
- Amerika va Britaniya ingliz tilisi o'rtasidagi farqni ajrata olish;
- Inglizabon mamlakatlar ingliz tilisining o'ziga xos xususiyatlari.
- Ingliz tili lug`at sistemasi va ularning rivojlanishi
- Lug`at turlari va ulardan to'g'ri foydalanish

Boshqa fanlar bilan aloqasi

Leksikologiya fani Stilistika, Til

tarixi, Adabiyotshunoslik, Grammatika, Leksika, Fonetika fanlari bilan uzviy bog'liqdir

O'quv jarayonida talabalarga mavzularning mazmunini kengroq yoritib berish, ish uslublarini to'g'ri bajarish maqsadida texnik vositalar qo'llaniladi. Bular epidpaskov, kinoproektor, turli xil video-kino materiallar, slaydlar va shu kabilardan foydalanish maqsadga muvofiqdir. Talabalarning o'zlashtirish mezonini kompyuter orqali, test va reyting usulida aniqlanadi.

2. SEMESTRLAR BO'YICHA MASHG'ULOT TURLARIGA AJRATILGAN SOATLARNING TAQSIMOTI.

Semestrlar	Yuklama	Auditoriya mashg'ulotlari turi bo'yicha o'quv yuklamasi taqsimoti (soat)			Mustaqil ish
		Jami	Ma'ruza	Seminar mashg'uloti	
5	66	30	14	16	36
-	-	-	-	-	-
Jami	66	30	14	16	36

3. MUSTAQIL ISHLARNI TASHKIL ETISHNING SHAKLI VA MAZMUNI.

-Darslik va o'quv qo'llanmalarining boblari va mavzularini o'rganish. Tarqatma matiriallar bo'yicha ma'ruza qismlarini o'zalshtirish. Fanning boblari va mavzulari ustida ishlash.

-Ingliz tili stilistikasi fanidan nazariy va amaliy mashg'ulotlar o'tish davomida talabalarni ijodiy jarayonga yo'naltirish va ularni tahlil qilish, mustaqil ishlashga o'rgatish, mashqlar bajarish. Badiiy asarlar misolida stilistika muammolarini

o'rganish, bilimlarni mustahkamlash. Talabalarning ilmiy-tadqiqot ishlarini bajarish bilan bog'liq xolda fanning muayyan boblari va mavzularini chuqur o'rganish.

INFORMATSION-USLUBIY TA'MINOTI.

Yangi pedagogik texnologiyalardan foydalanish

Leksikologiya fani boyicha o'tiladigan ma'ruza va amaliy mashg'ulotlar talabalarda ilmiy-ijodiy yondashuv, tanqidiy tahlil, muammoli munozara, sintez, o'zi va o'zgalar qarashlarini to'g'ri baholash, olingan axborotni to'g'ri yetkaza bilish, axborotni ixchamlashtirish va kehgaytirish malakalarini egallashga qaratilgan noanaviy usullarda ;

Nutqiy modullarni chuqur o'rganish va mashq qilish hamda vaziyatli va rolli o'yinlar (baxs-munozara, debatlar, loyihalash usuli, taqdimot, kichik himoya va b.) asosida o'tkaziladi.

Ta'lim jarayonida quyidagi yangi pedagogik texnologiyalardan foydalanish maqsadga muvofiq :

- Aqliy hujum ;
- Guruhlarga bo'lish ;
- « Skorobey» texnologiyasi ;
- « Veyer» texnologiyasi ;
- loyihalash usulini qo'llab ta'lim berish ;
- o'yinlar orqali o'rgatish texnologiyasi ;
- ta'limda axborot va telekommunikatsiya vositalarini qo'llash texnologiyasi ;

4.1. Ko'rgazmali qurollar.

Plakatlar ;
Tablitsalar ;
Slay;
Tarqatmalar ;
Talabalarning ishlaridan namunalar

4.2. O'qitishning texnik vositalari.

O'quv kompyuterlari.
Aydio-video
Player

5.O'zlashtirish nazorati.

5.1. Ingliz tili leksikologiyasi bo'yicha talabalar bilimini baholash mezonlari.

Joriy Baholash (Regular Control (RC))	uchun	max. 35 ball
Oraliq Baholsh (Internal Control (IC))	uchun	max. 40 ball
Mustaqil ish (Independent work (IW))	uchun	max. 10 ball

Yakuniy Baholash (Final Control (FC)) uchun max. 15 ball

Ballar taqsimoti quyidagicha bo'ladi:

JB (RC)	OB(IC)	M.Ish (IW)	YaB
(FC)			
35-30 = "a'lo"	40-35="a'lo"	10-9="a'lo"	15-
12="a'lo"			
29-24 = "yahshi"	34-29="yahshi"	8-7="yahshi"	11-10
= "yahshi"	23-19 = "qoniqarli "	28-22="qoniqarli "	6-
5="qoniqarli "	9-8="qoniqarli "		
18 = "qoniqarsiz"	21= "qoniqarsiz"	4= "qoniqarsiz"	7=
"qoniqarsiz"			

Joriy baholash (JB).

Talaba seminar mashg'ulotlarida 3 marta joriy baholanadi..

Joriy baholash **jami 45 ball**. Bundan **10 ball mustaqil** ish uchun ajratilgan. Shunda

45-10=35 qoladi va talaba **I, II JB** lar uchun maksimal **12 ball** va **III JB** uchun esa **11 ball** to'plashi kerak

I- JB o'tilgan mavzular bo'yicha tuzilgan savolnomalar asosida o'tkaziladi.

II- JB texnologik xaritanı yaratish, yani o'tilgan mavzular bo'yicha 1 donadan muammoli mavzu –ko'rgazma, topishmoq yoki ilmiy-nazariy boshqotirma tuzish

III- JB O'tilgan barcha mavzular bo'yicha prezentatsiya tayorlash. Bunda talabalar o'zlari tanlagan mavzu bo'yicha ilmiy-ijodiy-amaliy faoliyatlarini namoyish etadilar

Har bir **Joriy Baholash** quyidagi mezoniga ko'ra amalga oshiriladi.

I va II JB uchun ajratilgan **12 ball** mezonı quyidagicha bo'ladi:

10-12 ball 86- 100 "a'lo"

9-11 ball 71-85 "yahshi"

7-8 ball 55-70 "qoniqarli"

7 balldan kam bo'lsa "qoniqarsiz" deb topiladi

III JB uchun ajratilgan **11 ball** mezonı esa quyidagicha bo'ladi:

9-11 ball 86- 100 "a'lo"

7-8 ball 71-85 "yahshi"

6 ball 55-70 "qoniqarli"

5 balldan kam bo'lsa "qoniqarsiz" deb topiladi.

Talabalar kurs ohirida quyidagi malakalari asosida baholanadilar.

72- 85 "a'lo" 1) Hulosa va qaror qilish. Ijodiy fikrlay olish.

Mustaqil

Mohiyatini		mushohada yuritish..Amalda qollay olish.
bo'lish		Tushunish.Bilib aytib berish.Tassavurga ega
60- 71	“yahshi”	2) Mustaqil mushohada yuritish..Amalda qollay olish.
Tassavurga ega		Mohiyatini tushunish.Bilib aytib berish.
47- 59	“qoniqarli”	b.o'lish. 3) Mohiyatini tushunish.Bilib aytib berish.
Tassavurga ega		bo'lish.
47 dan kam	“qonoqarsiz ”	4) Aniq tasavvurga ega bo'lmaslik.Bilmaslik

JB har 2 (3)juftlikdan so'ng talaba ballari umumlashtirilib, qaydnomaga qo'yiladi.

(JB uchun seminar savollari va tavsiya etilgan adabiyotlar ilova qilinadi)

Jami JB mezonni 35 ball quydagicha belgilanadi:

86 %-100 %	30-35 ball
71 %-85 %	25 b- 29 ball
55 %-70 %	18 b-24 ball

«Ingliz tili leksikologiyasi » fanidan mustaqil ishni bajarish bo'yicha uslubiy ko'rsatma va baholash mezonni

1. Fanni o'rganish jarayonida talaba o'zicha mustaqil ish uchun mavzu tanlaydi.
2. Raxbaridan mavzuning aktualligi, dolzarbligi va maqsadini aniqlaydi.
3. Mustaqil ishni yoritish rejasini tuzib chiqadi.
4. O'qituvchi rejani ko'rib chiqib – maslaxat va foydalanish uchun adabiyotlar ruyxatini beradi.
5. Talaba darsdan tashqari paytda kutubxonalarda, o'quv zallarida o'tirib mustaqil ishini yozadi.
6. Mustaqil ish – referat, plakat, tablitsa yoki tarqatma material shaklida xam bo'lishi mumkin.
7. 3-4 ta talaba birgalikda 1 ta mavzuni «Multimedia» asosida dars o'tib berib xam ko'rsatish mumkin. (Juda yaxshi natija beradi).

Baholash mezonni - maksimal ball - 10 ball

- | | |
|--|-----------------|
| 1. Mavzuning dolzarbligi va chuqur yoritilishi | - 5 ball |
|--|-----------------|

2. Adabiyotlarda foydalan-
ganligi - 3 ball

3. Kompyuterda chiroyli qilib
yozgan va orfografik,
punktatsiion to`g`riligi - 2 ball

Oraliq baholash (OB)

Ma`ruza mashg`ulotlari asosida 2 marta **OB** o`tkaziladi. Har bir **OB** uchun eng yuqori ball 20 ball.

Birinci **OB** tayanch so`zlar yordamida yozma bayon ;

Ikkinchi **OB** o`tilgan mavzular bo`yicha test tuzish yoki test savollariga javob berish orqali o`tkaziladi .

(OB uchun tayanch so`zlar va testlar ilova qilinadi.)

2 marta o`tkaziladigan 20 balli OB mezonini quyidagi shartlar bo`yicha belgilanadi:

- a) mavzuni to`laqonli yoritilishi: 10 ball
- b) mavzular bo`yicha adabiyotlardan foydalanishi va taxlil uslubiga ko`ra: 6 ball
- c) mavzu bo`yicha amaliy faoliyati: 4 ball

Jami OB (40 ball) mezonini quyidagicha belgilanadi:

86 %-100 %	36 b-40 ball
71 %-85 %	28 b- 35 ball
55 %-70 %	22 b-27 ball

Yakuniy baholash (YaB)

Ingliz tili leksikologiyasi bo`yicha o`tkaziladigan Yakuniy Baholash 30

variantli savollardan iborat bo`lgan yozma ish asosida bo`ladi. Har bir variant 4 tadan savolni o`z ichiga olgan.. Eng yuqori ball 15.

15 balli Yakuniy Baholash mezonini quyidagi shatlarga ko`ra belgilanadi:

- a) Huloa va qaror qilish; ijodiy fikrlay olish – 8 ball
- b) Mustaqil mushohada yuritish 4 ball
- c) Mohiyatini tushunish – 3 ball

(YaB uchun tayanch savollari ilova qilinadi.)

Jami YB mezonini quyidagicha belgilanadi:

86 %-100 %	13 b-15 ball
71 %-85 %	11 b-12 ball

55 %-70 %

8 b-10 ball

6.1. SEMESTRLAR BO'YICHA TALABALAR BILIMINI NAZORAT QILISH TURLARI.

Semestr	Nazorat turi	Soat hajmi	Maksimal ball (100 %)	O'tish bali (55%)
5	Joriy N1	4	9	5 (4.9)
	Joriy N2	6	18	10(9.9)
	Joriy 3	6	18	10(9.9)
	Jami	16	45	25
	Oraliq N1	6	20	11
	Oraliq N2	8	20	11
	Jami	14	40	22
Jami (joriy va oraliq)		30	85	47
Jami (yakuniy)			15	8
Jami			100	55

6.2.. Talaba bilimni baholash.

Qoniqarsiz (55% dan kam)		Qoniqarli (56-70%)		Yaxshi (71-85%)		A'lo (86-100%)	
Ballar							
Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max
0	55,0	56,0	70,0	71,0	85,0	86,0	100

7. O'QUV-USLUBIY (TEKNOLOGIK) XARITA. MAVZULAR VA ULAR BO'YICHA AJRATILGAN SOATLAR TAQSIMOTI.

7.1. MA'RUZALAR UCHUN O'QUV-USLUBIY (TEKNOLOGIK) XARITA.

N	Mavzular	Soat	Ko'rgaz mali qurol	Mustaqil ish	Nazorat turi	O'tish mud.	O'til-di
	V - SEMESTR						
1	Introuction.Lexicolog	2	Cards blackboa	Répititio n		Sep. I	

	y as a science		rd			week	
2	Semasiology	2	Tables blackboard	Répitition		Sep. II w	
3	Morphological structure of the word	2	tables	Répitition		Nov. I w	
4	Word formation.	2	Tables, images	Répitition	OB	Nov. II w	
5	Phraseology	2	tables	Répitition		Nov. III w	
6	General classification of vocabulary of the English language	2	Tables, images	Répitition		Nov. IY w	
7	Lexicography as a science	2	cards	Répitition	O.B	Dec. I W	
	Jami	14			85		

7.2. SEMINAR MASHG'ULOTLARI UCHUN O'QUV-USLUBIY (TEXNOLOGIK) XARITA.

N	Mavzular	Soat	Ko'rgaz mali qurol	Mustaqil ish	Nazorat turi	O'tish mud.	O'tildi	ball
	VI - SEMESTR							
1	Lexicology as a science	2	Cards, tables	Tezis shaklida yozish		Nov. II w		4
2	The structure of the word and comparative study of polisemantic words	2	Cards, tables	Tezis shaklida yozish		Nov. III w		5
3	Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of morphemes	2	cards	Tezis shaklida yozish	JB I	Nov. IY w		6
4	The ways and types of	2	Tables, images	Tezis shaklida		Dec. I w		6

	wordformation			yo'zish				
5	Phraseological units and their classification	2	Cards tables	Tezis shaklida yo'zish		Dec. II w		6
6	American English and British-English and their differences	2	Tables, cards	Tezis shaklida yo'zish	JB II	Dec. III w		6
7	The ways of revealing the meanings of words in different dictionaries	2	cards	Tezis shaklida yo'zish		Dec. IY w		6
8	Actual problems of Modern English Lexicology	2	Tables, images	Tezis shaklida yo'zish	JB III	Jav. I w		6
	Jami	16						45

8. TALABALAR MUSTAQIL TA'LIMINING MAZMUNI VA HAJMI.

Ishchi o'quv dasturining mustaqil ta'limga oid bo'lim va mavzulari	Mustaqil ta'limga oid topshiriq va tavsiyalar	Bajarish muddati	Hajmi (soatda)
Modern lexicology and its types	Write course paper O'.Bo'ronov Leksikologiya kursidan amaliy mashg'ulot 1990	Noyabr	6
Synchronic approach to the study of the structure of the word	Analyses of some words according diachronic approach	Noyabr	6
The vocabulary of a language. American English and British English	Write a thesis. Working on different types of vocabularies	Dekabr	6

Some differences between them			
Semasiology, the polysemantic words and their usage in speech	Write a thesis. Working on different types of vocabularies	Dekabr	6
The problems of the types of dictionary	Write a thesis. Working on different types of dictionaries	Dekabr	6
Creating the dictionary	Make up the vocabulary putting in order	Yanvar	6
Jami			36

9. O'QUV – USLUBIY ADABIYOTLAR RO'YXATI.

N	Muallif	Adabiyotning nomi	ARM dagi soni	Kafedrada gi soni
		I. Asosiy adabiyotlar		
1	Buranov A.Muminov O.	A practical course in English lexicology		2
2	I.V.Arnold	English word. Moscow. 1986		2
		II. Qo'shimcha adabiyotlar		
1	V.M.SolntsevK	Yasik kak sistemno-strukturnoye obrazovaniye Moskva 1990		1
2	D.N.Shmel'ev	Problemi semanticheskogo analiza leksiki Moskva 1997		2
3	Ginsburg R.S.	A course in modern English lexicology M.1979		1
4	M. Umarova	Leksikologiya fanidan savol va topshiriqlar to'plami Namangan, 2007		2

5	M.Umarova	Lextures on lexicology. Namangan. 2007		
6	V.A. Ilish	The structure of Modern English Moskva, 1995		1
7	A.V.Kunin	Angliyskaya fraseologiya, Moskva, 1989		

MUNDARIJA

№	Mavzular	Sahifa
1	2007-2008 o'quv yili uchun amaliy grammatika fanidanishchi o'quv dasturiga o'zgartirish va qo'shimchalar kiritish to'g'risida	3
2	So'z boshi	3
3	Mustaqil ishlarni tashkil etishning shakli va mazmuni	4
4	Informationuslubiy ta'minoti	4
5	Cemestr bo'yicha mashg'ulot turlariga ajratilgan soatlar taqsimoti	4
6	O'zlashtirish nazorati	4
7	Semestrlar bo'yicha talabalar bilimini nazorat qilishturlari	5
8	Talaba bilimini baholash	5
9	O'quv-uslubiy (tehnologik)xarita.Mavzular va ular bo'yicha ajratilgan coatlar taqsimoti	5
10	Talabalar mustaqil ta'limining mazmun va xajmi	6
11	O'quv-uslubiy adabiyotlar ro'yxati	10

O'ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI OLIY VA O'RTA MAXSUS TA'LIM
VAZIRLIGI
NAMANGAN DAVLAT UNIVERSITETI

«TASDIQLAYMAN»

O'quv ishlari bo'yicha prorektor,
dots. S. H Abdullayev

«__» _____ 2008 yil

LEKSIKOLOGIYA

FANI BO'YICHA

Bilim sohasi:	200000 Gumanitar fanlar va san'at
Ta'lim yo'nalishi:	220000 Gumanitar fanlar
Bakalavriat yo'nalishi:	5220100 Horijiy Filologiya (ingliz tili) yo'nalishi III bosqich

Mustaqil ish uchun uslubiy ko'rsatma va travsiyalar

Mustaqil ta'lim: 36



NAMANGAN – 2008

Ushbu mustaqil ish uchun uslubiy ko'rsatma va tavsiyalar O'zbekiston Respublikasi Vazirlar Mahkamasining 2001 yil 16 avgustdagi "Oliy ta'limning davlat ta'lim standartlarini tasdiqlash to'g'risida"gi 343-son qarori hamda Oliy va o'rta maxsus ta'lim vazirligining 2005 yil 21 fevraldagi 34-sonli buyrug'I bilan tasdiqlangan "Talaba mustaqil ishini tashkil etish, nazorat qiliush va baholash tartibi to'g'risida" Namunaviy nizom asosida tayyorlandi.

Tuzuvchi: M.Umarova, Ingliz tili kafedrasida
katta o'qituvchisi

Taqrizchi:

N.Otajonov leksika-stilistika kafedrasida mudiri, professor

Ushbu mustaqil ish uchun uslubiy ko'rsatma va tavsiyalar Xorijiy filologiya fakulteti Ilmiy kengashining 2008 yil "26"avgustdagi "1"-son qarori bilan tasdiqlandi.

Ilmiy kengash raisi, f.f.n., dots: R.Karimov

Bayonnoma № 1 «26» avgust 2008 yil

Kelishildi: Ingliz tili kafedrasida mudiri,

f.f.n.: D.Hoshimova.

«25» avgust 2008 yil

(professor-o'qituvchining I.F.O.)

(imzosi)

Mustaqil ish uchun uslubiy ko'rsatma va tavsiyalar Xorijiy filologiya fakulteti Ilmiy kengashida muhokama etildi va ma`qullandi (2008 yil "___" _____dagi "___"-sonli bayonnoma).

Ilmiy kengash raisi: _____
(imzo)

dots.R.Karimov
(F.I.O.)

Mustaqil ta'limning tashkil etishning shakli va mazmuni

Talaba mustaqil ishni tayyorlashda muayyan fanning xususiyatlarini hisobga olgan holda, quyidagi shakllardan foydalanish tavsiya etiladi:

- darslik va o'quv qo'llanmalar bo'yicha fan boblari va mavzularini o'rganish;
- tarqatma materiallar bo'yicha ma'ruza qismini o'zlashtirish;
- maxsus adabiyotlar bo'yicha fan bo'limlari yoki mavzulari ustida ishlash;
- talabaning o'quv, ilmiy-tadqiqot ishlarini bajarish bilan bog'liq bo'lgan fan bo'limlari va mavzularni chuqur o'rganish;
- faol va muammoli o'qitish uslubidan foydalaniladigan o'quv mashg'ulotlari

Mustaqil ta'lim uchun quyidagi topshiriqlarni bajarish tavsiya etiladi:

№	Mavzu	Soat	O'tish muddati	Ko'rgazm ali qurollar	Auditoriyada n tashqarida ta'lim	Baholash turi
1	Modern lexicology and its types	6	1 hafta	Ko'rgazmali qurollar	Kutubxonada, qiroatxonada, internet kafeda va uyda	O'g'zaki so'rov
2	Synchronic approach to the study of the structure of the word	6	2 hafta	Ko'rgazmali qurollar	Kutubxonada, qiroatxonada, internet kafeda va uyda	O'g'zaki so'rov
3	The vocabulary of a language. American English and British English Some differences between them	6	3 hafta	Ko'rgazmali qurollar	Kutubxonada, qiroatxonada	O'g'zaki so'rov
4	Semasiology, the polysemantic words and their usage in speech	6	4 hafta	Ma'ruza matni	Kutubxonada, qiroatxonada, internet kafeda	O'g'zaki so'rov

					va uyda	
5	The problems of the types of dictionary	6	5 hafta	Ko'rgazma li qurollar	Kutubxonada, qiroatxonada, internet kafeda va uyda	O'g'zaki so'rov
6	Creating the dictionary	6	6 hafta	Ma'ruza matni	Kutubxonada, qiroatxonada, internet kafeda va uyda	O'g'zaki so'rov
	Jami:	36				

Mustaqil ishlarni nazorat qilish bo'yicha topshiriqlarni qabul qilish shakllari:

- ◆ referat
- ◆ plakatlar
- ◆ slaydlar
- ◆ tarqatma materiallar
- ◆ presentatsiya
- ◆ savolnoma
- ◆ test savollari
- ◆ mavzuni tahlil qilish

Mustaqil ishlash uchun asosiy adabiyotlar va o'quv qo'llanmalar ro'yhati.

№	Muallif	Adabiyotning nomi
I	Asosiy adabiyotlar	
1.	I. V. Arnold.. M., 1973	I.. The English Word.
2.	E. M. Mednikova. M., 1978	. Seminars in English Lexicology.
3.	1. А.И.Смирницкий... М., 1956.	Лексикология английского языка.
4	. О. Д. Мешков М., Наука, 1976	А.И.Смирницкий. Лексикология английского языка. М., 1956.

Пова I

O'ZLASHTIRISH NAZORATI:

Leksikologiya faning mustaqil ish bo'yicha talabalar bilimni baholash mezonlari

Mustaqil ishni bayolash (MB)

Talabalarni mustaqil ishlarini baholash har bir mustaqil ish mavzusini yakunlab topshirilgandan keyin amalga oshiriladi. Mustaqil ta'lim jarayonida ajratilgan topshiriq ishlarni Universitet, fakultet kutubxonalari yoki internetdan topib o'qiydi va qisqacha mazmunini qayd etib boradi hamda ko'rsatilgan shakllarda tayyorlab topshiriladi. Bunda har bir mavzu bo'yicha bajarib, o'qituvchiga ko'rsatilgan mustaqil ish uchun ball beriladi. Qaydnomaga umumlashtirib ballar yig'indisi qo'yiladi (maksimum 30 ball). Shu tariqa, talaba har bir mustaqil ishini baholashda quyidagicha ball to'plashi mumkin:

№	Mustaqil ishni baholashga qo'yiladigan talablar	Ball
1	Mavzuning yoritilishi: a) mavzuning keng yoritilishi- b) kutubxona va internet ma'lumotlaridan foydalanganligi- c) berilgan	10
2	Leksik va Grammatik savodxonlik: a) talabaning so'z boyligi b) gaplarning Grammatik jihatdan to'g'ri talqin etilganligi c) imloviy va uslubiy xatolar	10
3	Savollarga og'zaki javob: a) berilgan barcha savollarga javob berish b) qisman xatoga yo'l qo'yish c) qisman to'g'ri javob berish	10
	Jami:	30

№	Mustaqil ishni baholashga qo'yiladigan talablar	Ball
1	Mavzuning yoritilishi: d) mavzuning keng yoritilishi-	9

	e) kutubxona va internet ma'lumotlaridan foydalanganligi- f) berilgan	
2	Leksik va Grammatik savodxonlik: d) talabning so'z boyligi e) gaplarning Grammatik jihatdan to'g'ri talqin etilganligi f) imloviy va uslubiy xatolar	9
3	Savollarga og'zaki javob: d) berilgan barcha savollarga javob berish e) qisman xatoga yo'l qo'yish f) qisman to'g'ri javob berish	7
	Jami:	25

Semestrlar bo'yicha mustaqil ish uchun talabalar bilimni nazorat qilish turlari

<i>Semestr</i>	Nazorat turi	Soat hajmi	Maksimal ball(85%)	O'tish bali (55%)
7	Mustaqil N1	12	30	16
	Mustaqil N2	12	30	16
	Mustaqil N3	12	25	13
	Jami	36	85	45

Mustaqil ish uchun talaba bilimni baholash

Qoniqarsiz (45% dan kam)		Qoniqarli (56-70%)		Yaxshi (71-85%)		A'lo (86-100%)	
B a l l a r							
Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max
0	45,0	46,0	60,0	61,0	72,0	73,0	85

Namangan davlat universiteti
Ingliz tili kafedrasining
№ 1 sonli yig'ilish bayonnomasidan
ko'chirma

Namangan shahri

25.08.2008 yil

Yig'ilish raisi: f.f.n.D.Hoshimova
Kotiba: kat. o'qit Yo.Nazarova

Qatnashdilar: Kafedraning barcha professor-o'qituvchilari

Turli masalalar: Ingliz tili kafedrasida o'qitiladigan Leksikologiya fanidan mustaqil ish uchun baholash mezonlari haqida

Tinglandi:

Ingliz tili kafedrasida o'qitiladigan Leksikologiya fanidan mustaqil ish uchun baholash mezonlari haqida fan o'qituvchisi M.Umarova so'zga chiqib o'z fikrlarini bayon etdi:

Mustaqil ish bo'yicha talabning to'plagan bali uning umumiy balliga qo'shiladi va ikkiga bo'linadi o'rtacha ball joriy ball uchun olinadi. Leksikologiya fani bo'yicha uch marta, har oyning oxirida baholanadi va mustaqil ish jurnaliga qatd etib boriladi.

Quyidagi mezon asosida baholanadi:

№	Mustaqil ishni baholashga qo'yiladigan talablar	Ball
1	Mavzuning yoritilishi: g) mavzuning keng yoritilishi- h) kutubxona va internet ma'lumotlaridan foydalanganligi- i) berilgan	10
2	Leksik va Grammatik savodxonlik: g) talabning so'z boyligi h) gaplarning Grammatik jihatdan to'g'i talqin etilganligi i) imloviy va uslubiy xatolar	10
3	Savollarga og'zaki javob: g) berilgan barcha savollarga javob berish h) qisman xatoga yo'l qo'yish i) qisman to'g'ri javob berish	10

	Jami:	30
№	Mustaqil ishni baholashga qo'yiladigan talablar	Ball
1	Mavzuning yoritilishi: j) mavzuning keng yoritilishi- k) kutubxona va internet ma'lumotlaridan foydalanganligi- l) berilgan	9
2	Leksik va Grammatik savodxonlik: j) talabaning so'z boyligi k) gaplarning Grammatik jihatdan to'g'ri talqin etilganligi l) imloviy va uslubiy xatolar	9
3	Savollarga og'zaki javob: j) berilgan barcha savollarga javob berish k) qisman xatoga yo'l qo'yish l) qisman to'g'ri javob berish	7
	Jami:	25

Kafedra a'zolari tomonidan bir ovozdan maqullandi.

YIG'ILISH QAROR QILDI:

1. M.Umarovanning fikrlari axborot uchun qabul qilinsin.
2. Leksikologiya fanidan mustaqil ishni baholash mezoni yuqorida ko'rsatilgandek tasdiqlansin,

Yig'ilish raisi:

f.f.n.D.Hoshimova

Yig'ilish kotibasi:

kat.o'qit.Yo.Nazarova

O'ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI OLIY VA O'RTA MAXSUS TA'LIM
VAZIRLIGI
NAMANGAN DAVLAT UNIVERSITETI

«TASDIQLAYMAN»
O'quv ishlari bo'yicha prorektor,
_____ dots. S. H Abdullayev
«___» _____ 2008 yil

Leksikologiya III kurs
FANI BO'YICHA

Bilim sohasi: 200000 Gumanitar fanlar va san'at

Ta'lim yo'nalishi: 220000 Gumanitar fanlar

Bakalavriat yo'nalishi: 5220100-Horijiy Filologiya (ingliz tili)

kunduzgi

yo'nalishi III bosqichlari uchun

Tuzuvchi: Katta o'qituvchi M.Umarova

TAQVIM -TEMATIK REJA



NAMANGAN – 2008

Fan: Lexicology
Guruh 301a,b; 302a,b; 303a, ; 304a,b
Ma'ruza 14 soat
Mustaqil: 36 soat

T	T H E M E S	Hours	The date of having classes	The date of been done	Note
	V - SEMESTR				
1	Introuction.Lexicology as a science	2	Sep. 1 w		
2	Semasiology	2	Nov. 3 w		
3	Morphological structure of the word	2	Nov. 4 w		
4	Word formation.	2	Dec. 1 w		
5	Phraseology	2	Dec. 2 w		
6	General classification of vocabulary of the English language	2	Dec. 3 w		
7	Lexicography as a science	2	Dec. 4 w		
8	Jami	14			

Fan: Lexicology
Guruh 301a -301b
Amaliy: 16 soat
Mustaqil: 36 soat

T	T H E M E S	Hours	The date of having classes	The date of been done	Note
	VI - SEMESTR				
1	Lexicology as a science	2	Sep. 1 w		
2	The structure of the word and comparative study of polisemantic words	2	Nov. 3 w		
3	Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of morphemes	2	Nov. 4 w		
4	The ways and types of wordformation	2	Dec. 1 w		
5	Phraseological units and their classification	2	Dec. 2 w		
6	American English and British-English and their differences	2	Dec. 3 w		
7	The ways of revealing the meanings of words in different dictionaries	2	Dec. 4 w		
8	Actual problems of Modern English Lexicology	2	Yanv.I w		
	Jami :	16			

Fan: Lexicology
Guruh 302a- 302 b
Amaliy: 16 soat
Mustaqil: 36 soat

T	T H E M E S	Hours	The date of having classes	The date of been done	Note
	VI - SEMESTR				
1	Lexicology as a science	2	Sep. 1 w		
2	The structure of the word and	2	Nov. 3 w		

	comparative study of polisemantic words				
3	Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of morphemes	2	Nov. 4 w		
4	The ways and types of wordformation	2	Dec. 1 w		
5	Phraseological units and their classification	2	Dec. 2 w		
6	American English and British-English and their differences	2	Dec. 3 w		
7	The ways of revealing the meanings of words in different dictionaries	2	Dec. 4 w		
8	Actual problems of Modern English Lexicology	2	Yanv.I w		
	Jami :	16			

Fan: Lexicology
Guruh 303a -303b
Amaliy: 16 soat
Mustaqil: 36 soat

T	T H E M E S	Hours	The date of having classes	The date of been done	Note
	VI - SEMESTR				
1	Lexicology as a science	2	Sep. 1 w		
2	The structure of the word and comparative study of polisemantic words	2	Nov. 3 w		
3	Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of morphemes	2	Nov. 4 w		
4	The ways and types of wordformation	2	Dec. 1 w		
5	Phraseological units and their classification	2	Dec. 2 w		
6	American English and British-	2	Dec. 3 w		

	English and their differences				
7	The ways of revealing the meanings of words in different dictionaries	2	Dec. 4 w		
8	Actual problems of Modern English Lexicology	2	Yanv.I w		
	Jami :	16			

Fan: Lexicology
Guruh 304a -304b
Amaliy: 16 soat
Mustaqil: 36 soat

T	T H E M E S	Hours	The date of having classes	The date of been done	Note
	VI - SEMESTR				
1	Lexicology as a science	2	Sep. 1 w		
2	The structure of the word and comparative study of polisemantic words	2	Nov. 3 w		
3	Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of morphemes	2	Nov. 4 w		
4	The ways and types of wordformation	2	Dec. 1 w		
5	Phraseological units and their classification	2	Dec. 2 w		
6	American English and British-English and their differences	2	Dec. 3 w		
7	The ways of revealing the meanings of words in different dictionaries	2	Dec. 4 w		
8	Actual problems of Modern English Lexicology	2	Yanv.I w		
	Jami :	16			

Tuzuvchi: M.Umarova, ingliz tili kafedrasining katta o'qituvchisi

Kafedra mudiri: f.f.n. D.Hoshimova

O'zlashtirish nazorati.

5.1. Ingliz tili leksikologiyasi bo'yicha talabalar bilimini baholash mezonlari.

Joriy Baholash (Regular Control (RC)) uchun max. 30 ball

Oraliq Baholash (Internal Control (IC)) uchun max. 40 ball

Mustaqil ish (Independent work (IW)) uchun max. 15 ball

Yakuniy Baholash (Final Control (FC)) uchun max. 15 ball

Ballar taqsimoti quyidagicha bo'ladi:

JB (RC)	OB(IC)	M.Ish (IW)	YaB
(FC)			
35-30 = "a'lo"	40-35="a'lo"	10-9="a'lo"	15-
12="a'lo"			
29-24 = "yahshi"	34-29="yahshi"	8-7="yahshi"	11-10
= "yahshi"	23-19 = "qoniqarli "	28-22="qoniqarli "	6-
5="qoniqarli "	9-8="qoniqarli "		
18 = "qoniqarsiz"	21= "qoniqarsiz"	4= "qoniqarsiz"	7=
"qoniqarsiz"			

Joriy baholash (JB).

Talaba seminar mashg'ulotlarida 3 marta joriy baholanadi..

Joriy baholash **jami 45 ball**. Bundan **10 ball mustaqil** ish uchun ajratilgan.

Shunda

45-10=35 qoladi va talaba **I, II JB** lar uchun maksimal **12 ball** va **III JB** uchun esa **11 ball** to'plashi kerak

I- JB o'tilgan mavzular bo'yicha tuzilgan savolnomalar asosida o'tkaziladi.

II- JB texnologik xaritanı yaratısh,yanı o'tılğan mavzular bo'yıca 1 donadan muammoli mavzu –ko'rgazma, topıshmoq yoki ilmiy-nazariy boshqotırma tuzısh

III- JB O'tılğan barcha mavzular bo'yıca prezentatsiya tayorlash.Bunda talabalar o'zları tanlagan mavzu bo'yıca ilmiy-ıjodiy-amaliy faoliyatlarını namoyısh etadılar

Har bir **Joriy Baholash** quyidagi mezonga ko'ra amalga oshiriladi.

I va II JB uchun ajratılğan **12 ball** mezoni quyidagıcha bo'ladi:

10-12 ball	86- 100	“a'lo”
9-11 ball	71-85	“yahshi”
7-8 ball	55-70	“qoniqarli
7 balldan kam bo'lsa		“qoniqarsız” deb topiladi

III JB uchun ajratılğan **11 ball** mezoni esa quyidagıcha bo'ladi:

9-11 ball	86- 100	“a'lo”
7-8 ball	71-85	“yahshi”
6 ball	55-70	“qoniqarli”
5 balldan kam bo'lsa		“qoniqarsız” deb topiladi.

JB har 2 (3)juftlikdan so'ng talaba ballari umumlashtirilib, qaydnomaga qo'yiladi.

(*JB uchun seminar savollari va tavsiya etilgan adabiyotlar ilova qilinadi*)

Jami JB mezoni 35 ball quydagıcha belgilanadi:

86 %-100 %	30-35 ball
71 %-85 %	25 b- 29 ball
55 %-70 %	18 b-24 ball

Oraliq baholash (OB)

Ma'ruza mashg'ulotları asosida 2 marta **OB** o'tkaziladi. Har bir **OB** uchun eng yuqori ball 20 ball, jami 40 ball. Har bir **OB** uchun o'tılğan mavzular bo'yıca tayanch so'z va iboralar tavsiya etiladi.. **OB** natıjalari qaydnomaga yozib boriladi. Yozma ishlar quyidagi shartlar asosida baxolanadi.

Matn mazmuni uchun : 7 ball

So'z boyligi: 6 ball

Yozish uslybi : 5 ball

Orfografik va Grammatik savodhonligi : 2 ball

O.B quyidagi mezonga asosan belgilanadi:

18 -- 20 ball	86- 100	“a'lo”
14 – 17 ball	71-85	“yahshi”
11 -13 ball	55-70	“qoniqarli
10 balldan kam bo'lsa		“qoniqarsız” deb topiladi

Talabalar kurs ohirida quyidagi malakalari asosida baholanadilar.

72- 85	“a’lo”	1) Hulosa va qaror qilish.Ijodiy fikrlay olish.
Mustaqil		mushohada yuritish..Amalda qollay olish.
Mohiyatini		Tushunish.Bilib aytib berish.Tassavurga ega
bo’lish		
60- 71	“yahshi”	2) Mustaqil mushohada yuritish..Amalda qollay olish.
		Mohiyatini tushunish.Bilib aytib berish.
Tassavurga ega		b.o’lish.
47- 59	“qoniqarli”	3) Mohiyatini tushunish.Bilib aytib berish.
Tassavurga ega		bo’lish.
47	dan kam	
	“qonoqarsiz ”	4) Aniq tasavvurga ega bo’lmaslik.Bilmaslik

«Ingliz tili leksikologiyasi » fanidan mustaqil ishni bajarish bo`yicha uslubiy ko`rsatma va baholash mezonlari

1. Fanni o`rganish jarayonida talaba o`zicha mustaqil ish uchun mavzu tanlaydi.
2. Raxbaridan mavzuning aktualligi, dolzarbligi va maqsadini aniqlaydi.
3. Mustaqil ishni yoritish rejasini tuzib chiqadi.
4. O`qituvchi rejani ko`rib chiqib – maslaxat va foydalanish uchun adabiyotlar ruyxatini beradi.
5. Talaba darsdan tashqari paytda kutubxonalarda, o`quv zallarida o`tirib mustaqil ishini yozadi.
6. Mustaqil ish – referat, plakat, tablitsa yoki tarqatma material shaklida xam bo`lishi mumkin.
7. 3-4 ta talaba birgalikda 1 ta mavzuni «Multimedia» asosida dars o`tib berib xam ko`rsatish mumkin. (Juda yaxshi natija beradi).

Baholash mezonlari - maksimal ball - **10 ball**

- | | |
|---|-----------------|
| 1. Mavzuning dolzarbligi va chuqur yoritilishi | - 5 ball |
| 2. Adabiyotlarda foydalanilganligi | - 3 ball |
| 3. Kompyuterda chiroyli qilib yozgan va orfografik, | - 2 ball |

punktatsiion to`g`riligi

Oraliq baholash (OB)

Ma`ruza mashg`ulotlari asosida 2 marta **OB** o`tkaziladi. Har bir **OB** uchun eng yuqori ball 20 ball.

Birinci **OB** tayanch so`zlar yordamida yozma bayon ;

Ikkinchi **OB** o`tilgan mavzular bo`yicha test tuzish yoki test savollariga javob berih orqali o`tkaziladi .

(OB uchun tayanch so`zlar va testlar ilova qilinadi.)

2 marta o`tkaziladigan 20 balli OB mezoni quydagi shartlar bo`yicha belgilanadi:

- a) mavzuni to`laqonli yoritilishi: 10 ball
- b) mavzular bo`yicha aabiyotlardan foydalanishi va taxlil uslubiga ko`ra: 6 ball
- c) mavzu bo`yicha amaliy faoliyati: 4 ball

Jami OB (40 ball) mezoni quydagicha belgilanadi:

86 %-100 %	36 b-40 bal
71 %-85 %	28 b- 35 ball
55 %-70 %	22 b-27 ball

Yakuniy baholash (YaB)

Ingliz tili leksikologiyasi bo`yicha o`tkaziladigan Yakuniy Baholash 30 variantli savollardan iborat bo`lgan yozma ish asosida bo`ladi. Har bir variant 4 tadan savolni o`z ichiga olgan.. Eng yuqori ball 15.

15 balli Yakuniy Baholash mezoni quyidagi shatlarga ko`ra belgilanadi:

- a) Hulosa va qaror qilish; ijodiy fikrlay olish – 8 ball
- b) Mustaqil mushohada yuritish 4 ball
- c) Mohiyatini tushunish – 3 ball

(YaB uchun tayanch savollari ilova qilinadi.)

Jami YB mezoni quydagicha belgilanadi:

86 %-100 %	13 b-15 ball
71 %-85 %	11 b-12 ball
55 %-70 %	8 b-10 ball

«Ingliz tili leksikologiyasi » fanidan mustaqil ishni bajarish bo`yicha uslubiy ko`rsatma va baholash mezoni

1. Fanni o`rganish jarayonida talaba o`zicha mustaqil ish uchun mavzu tanlaydi.
2. Raxbaridan mavzuning aktualligi, dolzarbligi va maqsadini aniqlaydi.
3. Mustaqil ishni yoritish rejasini tuzib chiqadi.
4. O`qituvchi rejani ko`rib chiqib – maslaxat va foydalanish uchun adabiyotlar ruyxatini beradi.
5. Talaba darsdan tashqari paytda kutubxonalarda, o`quv zallarida o`tirib mustaqil ishini yozadi.
6. Mustaqil ish – referat, plakat, tablitsa yoki tarqatma material shaklida xam bo`lishi mumkin.
7. 3-4 ta talaba birgalikda 1 ta mavzuni «Multimedia» asosida dars o`tib berib xam ko`rsatish mumkin. (Juda yaxshi natija beradi).

Baholash mezonni - maksimal ball - 10 ball

- | | |
|--|----------|
| 1. Mavzuning dolzarbligi va chuqur yoritilishi | - 5 ball |
| 2. Adabiyotlarda foydalanilganligi | - 3 ball |
| 3. Kompyuterda chiroyli qilib yozgan va orfografik, punktatsiion to`g`riligi | - 2 ball |

Shunga ko`ra 10 balli mezon quyidagicha bo`ladi:

86 %-100 %	8,6-10 ball
71 %-85 %	7,1-8,5 ball
55 %-70 %	5,5 -7 ball

The technology lesson map of Lexicology

M.Umarova

Senior teacher

Ac. Year 2008-2009

Theme:№1	Introduction.Lexicology as a science	
The aims and tasks	For teacher: To explain the aims and tasks of science. Types of Lexicology.	For student: To have basic experience about lexicology of English and it's object
The content of studying material	Lexicology and its subject. Types and aspects of lexicology . Their main tasks.	
Technology of the lesson	Introduction will be given with the methods of “Brain storm” What does “lexicology” mean?. Students will use their primary skill about lexicology, they will learn as a comparative study of a foreign language through the English lexicology. They will be informed about the types of lexicology which fields they relate.	
Results	For a teacher: Teacher makes sure for herself what level of students' knowledge, checks students understanding. Focus on giving examples in both and in target language.	For students: To have information about the lexicology. With the basement of practical course of English they'll have to improve their knowledge in lexicology subject, brush up their English vocabularies. Give examples.

Theme:№2	Semasiology. Semantic changes of words	
The aims and tasks	For a teacher: To explain the Semantic structure of the English word and the changes of meaning of a word.	For student: Learn educational material the Semantic structure of the English word and the changes of meaning of a word.
Content of the subject (lesson)	Semantization, the semantic meaning of a word, semantics of affixes, generalized meaning, semantic structures, meaning which holds kind of dominance, their phenomenon.	
Technology of the lesson	It will be used as a comparative – typological method. Students learn all about the general characteristic features of Modern English vocabulary system from the lexicological point of view.	
Results	For a teacher: The vocabulary system of a language and their features	For students: They will have to improve their vocabulary and analyze them using as a comparative learning.

Theme:№3	Morphological structure of the word	
Aims and tasks:	For a teacher: Explain the etymological definition of words, functions, their pronunciations	For student: They will have to know the origin of words.
Content of lesson	t Morphological structure of the English words and word formation and their relations with other aspects of language.	
Technology of the lesson	Materials will be explained with the help of some tables and diagrams. Many examples with teaching aids.	
Results	For a teacher: Put problems before students, observe their searching skill ideologically right or not further give the right versions.	For students: Wait a result to the given problems from students. Help them in finding the originated words from other languages.

Theme: №4	Word formation. Shortened words	
The aims and tasks:	For a teacher: To explain the Morphological structure of the English words and word formation.	For student: To get more information about subject.
Content of the studying material	Inform about the types of word formation. Conversion and its classification; shortened words and their classification	
Technology of the lesson	The materials will be given first by the “Brain storm” method, then students use comparative – typological method in order to differ them in two or more languages.	
Results	For a teacher: Makes conclusion asks some questions to know how the students understand the new material with the help of cards.	For students: Easily find the difference between the the aspects of word formation. Classify them in comparison with two or ,more languages.

Theme:№5	Phraseology	
The aims and tasks:	For a teacher: To explain the aims and tasks of the subject.	For student: To have an impressions on positional changes, their meaning in bellar-style.
Content of studying material	Phraseology. Phraseological units of English language. Their position in stories and literature. The exaggerating in use, proverbs.	
Technology of the lesson	It will be used methods of “Klaster” and “Brain Storm”. Students will compare the meaning of words in Uzbek and in Russian.	
Results	For a teacher: The teacher will check students understanding with the help of some questions and makes conclusion.	For students: Classify them in comparison with two or more languages.

Theme:№6	General classification of vocabulary of the English language	
The aims and tasks:	For a teacher: To explain the aims and tasks of the subject.	For student: To have impressions on the topic.
Content of subject	The stylistic differentiation of the vocabulary system of Modern English. Semantic fields, obsolete and archaic words. Emotionally colored words. Evaluator words. Stylistic difference of words. The correlation of words.	
Technology of the lesson	Topic will be given with the methods of “cluster” or “Veer”. Students will speak about what they know about the subject and its difference between theoretical and practical value.	
Results	For a teacher: To check students knowledge on the topic	For students: They can differ the stylistic difference between theoretical and practical value. They have a knowledge on types, aspects and methods of learning.

Theme:№7	Lexicography as a science	
The aims and tasks:	For a teacher: To explain the aims and tasks of the topic	For student: Students should know and improve their vocabularies, compare in foreign language.
Content of the subject	Criteria of lexicography. Classification of dictionaries, the source of dictionaries .The difference between dictionaries .	
Technology of the lesson	The teacher can use the method of “Brain Storm”. The he (she) gives some cards where the students should put stresses and explain them.	
Results	For a teacher: He makes conclusion to the lesson. He’ll analyze students answers and mark them	For students: Answer the questions. They can give their conclusions too.

O'ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI OLIY VA O'RTA MAXSUS TA'LIM
VAZIRLIGI
NAMANGAN DAVLAT UNIVERSITETI

«TASDIQLAYMAN»
O'quv ishlari bo'yicha prorektor,
_____ dots. S. H Abdullayev

«__» _____ 2008 yil

LEKSIKOLOGIYA

FANI BO'YICHA

Bilim sohasi: 200000 Gumanitar fanlar va san'at
Ta'lim yo'nalishi: 220000 Gumanitar fanlar
Bakalavriat yo'nalishi: 5220100-Horijiy Filologiya (ingliz tili)
kunduzgi yo'nalishi III- bosqichi uchun

MA'RUZALAR

MATNI

Umumiy o'quv soati: 66 soat
Shu jumladan: Ma`ruza: 14 soat
Seminar: 16 soat.
Mustaqil ta`lim: 36 soat.

NAMANGAN – 2008

LECTURE 1

Introduction, Lexicology as a science.

Plan for the lecture

1. Subject matter of the 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.

Lexicology is a branch of linguistics which studies the vocabulary of a language. Its basic task is to study the origin, the different properties of the vocabulary of a language. In other words, lexicology is concerned with words and set phrases which function in speech. Lexicology also studies all kinds of semantic relations (synonyms, antonyms etc) and semantic grouping (semantic fields). Etymologically the word «lexicology» is a Greek word: «Lexic» means «word» and «logos» — learning.

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 lexicology¹, Russian lexicology³, Uzbek lexicology³ 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. *Ex.* 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 lexicology¹ 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. *Ex.* 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.² *For*

example. When the verb «go» in the continuous tenses is followed by «to» and an infinitive, it expresses a future action. *Ex.* He is not going to read this book. Participle II of the verb «go» following the link verb «be» denotes the negative meaning. *Ex.* 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. *Ex.* 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 interchangeable because they have different stylistic references.

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. *Ex.* take tea (чОЙ 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. *Ex.* 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 *-do?*, *-hood*, *-ship* were independent words but synchronically they are derived words because «dom» and «hood» became suffixes.

In the 19th century and at the beginning of the 20 th century lexicology was mainly based on historical principles. At the present time the following method of linguistic research are widely used by lexicologists: distributional, transformational, analysis into immediate constituents, statistical, componential, comparative etc.

Lexicology has some subdivisions such as:

- 1) **Semasiology** (deals with the meaning of the word);
- 2) **Word formation** (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).

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.

KEY WORDS :

Subject matter of lexicology.

Special and general lexicology: the difference between them

Descriptive and historical lexicology

The difference between comparative and non-comparative lexicology

The connection of lexicology with other aspects of the language

The main relationships between the words

The methods of linguistic analyses used in Modern lexicology

Correlated words and their components

Answer the following questions

1. What is the subject-matter of lexicology? 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?

RECOMMENDED LITERATURE

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LECTURE 2

Semasiology. The semantic structure of the word

Plan for the lecture

1. The definition of the «meaning of the word»
2. Referential and functional approaches to the study of meaning.
3. Types of meanings. Motivation and its different types.

4. The paradigmatic and syntagmatic approach to meaning. (2 hours).

5. Similarity of the words based on descriptive character

Main lit.: [10], 37-39

Ad. lit.: [6]45-47; [1],86-88

SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF THE WORD

It is generally known that most words convey several concepts and thus possess the corresponding number of meanings. Most English words have many meanings. It should be noted that the wealth of expressive resources of a language largely depends on the degree to which polysemy has developed in the language. Sometimes people who are not very well informed in linguistic matters claim that a language is lacking in words if the need arises for the same word to be applied to several different phenomena. In actual fact, it is exactly the opposite.

When analysing the semantic structure of a polysemantic word, it is necessary to distinguish between two levels of analysis.

On the first level, the semantic structure of a word is treated as a system of meanings. For example, the semantic structure of the noun "fire" may be described in the following way:

1. ОГОНЬ - ОЛОВ
2. ПОЖАР - ЁТ
3. ВОДУШЕВЛЕНИЕ, ПЫЛ - ТАШАББУС, ЭНТУЗИЯЗМ
4. СВЕЧЕНИЕ - ЁКИШ
5. ЖАР, ЛИХОРАДКА - ИССИКЛИК

meaning (I) holds a kind of dominance over the other meanings conveying the concept in the most general way whereas meanings (II)—(V) are associated with special circumstances, aspects and instances of the same phenomenon.

Meaning (I) (generally referred to as the main meaning) presents the centre of the semantic structure of the word holding it together. It is mainly through meaning (I) that meanings (II)—(V) (they are called secondary meanings) can be associated with one another, some of them exclusively through meaning (I) - the main meaning, as, for instance, meanings (IV) and (V).

It would hardly be possible to establish any logical associations between some of the meanings of the noun "bar" except through the main meaning[1]:

It is not in every polysemantic word that such a centre can be found.

Some semantic structures are arranged on a different principle. In the following list of meanings of the adjective "dull" one can hardly hope to find a generalized meaning covering and holding together the rest of the semantic structure.

Dull, adj.

1. A dull book, a dull film - uninteresting, monotonous, boring.
2. A dull student - slow in understanding, stupid.
3. Dull weather, a dull day, a dull colour - not clear or bright.
4. A dull sound - not loud or distinct.

5. A dull knife - not sharp.
6. Trade is dull - not active.
7. Dull eyes (arch.) - seeing badly.
8. Dull ears (arch.) - hearing badly.

There is something that all these seemingly miscellaneous meanings have in common, and that is the implication of deficiency, be it of colour (m. III), wits (m. 11), interest (m. 1), sharpness (m. V), etc. The implication of insufficient quality, of something lacking, can be clearly distinguished in each separate meaning.

Dull, adj.

1. Uninteresting - deficient in interest or excitement.
2. ... Stupid - deficient in intellect.
3. Not bright- deficient in light or colour.
4. Not loud - deficient in sound.
5. Not sharp - deficient in sharpness.
6. Not active - deficient in activity.
7. Seeing badly - deficient in eyesight.
8. Hearing badly - deficient in hearing.

-The transformed scheme of the semantic structure of "dull" clearly shows that the centre holding together the complex semantic structure of this word is not one of the meanings but a certain component that can be easily singled out within each separate meaning.

On the second level of analysis of the semantic structure of a word: each separate meaning is a subject to structural analysis in which it may be represented as sets of semantic components.

The scheme of the semantic structure of "dull" shows that the semantic structure of a word is not a mere system of meanings, for each separate meaning is subject to further subdivision and possesses an inner structure of its own.

Therefore, the semantic structure of a word should be investigated at both these levels: 1) of different meanings, 2) of semantic components within each separate meaning. For a monosemantic word (i. e. a word with one meaning) the first level is naturally excluded.

Meaning and Context

It's important that there is sometimes a chance of misunderstanding when a word is used in a certain meaning but accepted by a listener or reader in another.

It is common knowledge that context prevents from any misunderstanding of meanings. For instance, the adjective "dull", if used out of context, would mean different things to different people or nothing at all. It is only in combination with other words that it reveals its actual meaning; "a dull pupil", "a dull play¹", "dull weather", etc. Sometimes, however, such a minimum context fails to reveal the meaning of the word, and it may be correctly interpreted only through a second-degree context as in the following example: "The man was large, but his wife was even fatter". The word "fatter" here serves as a kind of indicator pointing that "large" describes a stout man and not a big one.

Current research in semantics is largely based on the assumption that one of the more promising methods of investigating the semantic structure of a word is by studying the word's linear relationships with other words in typical contexts, i. e. its combinability or collocability.

The scientists have established that the semantics of words which regularly appear in common contexts are correlated and, therefore, one of the words within such a pair can be studied through the other.

They are so intimately correlated that each of them casts, as it were, a kind of permanent reflection on the meaning of its neighbour. If the verb "to compose" is frequently used with the object "music", so it is natural to expect that certain musical associations linger in the meaning of the verb "to composed".

Note, also, how closely the negative evaluative connotation of the adjective "notorious" is linked with the negative connotation of the nouns with which it is regularly associated: "a notorious criminal", "thief", "gangster", "gambler", "-gossip", "liar", "miser", etc.

All this leads us to the conclusion that context is a good and reliable key to the meaning of the word.

It's a common error to see a different meaning in every new set of combinations. For instance: "an angry man", "an angry letter". Is the adjective "angry" used in the same meaning in both these contexts or in two different meanings? Some people will say "two" and argue that, on the one hand, the combinability is different ("man" —name of person; "letter" -name of object) and, on the other hand, a letter cannot experience anger. True, it cannot; but it can very well convey the anger of the person who wrote it. As to the combinability, the main point is that a word can realize the same meaning in different sets of combinability. For instance, in the pairs "merry children", "merry laughter", "merry faces", "merry songs" the adjective "merry" conveys the same concept of high spirits.

The task of distinguishing between the different meanings of a word and the different variations of combinability is actually a question of singling out the different denotations within the semantic structure of the word.

- 1) a sad woman,
- 2) a sad voice,
- 3) a sad story,
- 4) a sad scoundrel (- an incorrigible scoundrel)
- 5) a sad night (= a dark, black night, arch, poet.)

Obviously the first three contexts have the common denotation of sorrow whereas in the fourth and fifth contexts the denotations are different. So, in these five contexts we can identify three meanings of "sad".

CHANGE OF MEANING OF WORDS

The meaning of a word is a changeable category. The causes of semantic changes may be either linguistic or extra-linguistic. Extra-linguistic causes are different changes in the life of the people speaking the language, the coming into-existence of

new notions and objects, changes in economic and social life, changes of ideas and etc.

Ex. the word «mill» originally meant ручная мельница (кўл тегирами). The development of industry gave use to the meaning «mill»

Ex. a cotton **mill**, a steel **mill**. The word «**atom**» meant indivisible substance. Now the scientists discovered that atom can be divided and this changes our concept of atomic indivisibility. A change in the meaning may be brought about by different linguistic developments in the lexical system as a whole.

"The word may change its meaning by the shortening of a word group. *Ex.* The old meaning of the verb «to starve» was «**to die**» and it was often used in the word group «to starve of hunger». The modern meaning of the verb «to starve» is the result of the shortening of the word group, «to starve of hungers».

The meaning of the word «week!» a newspaper published weekly is the shortened form of the word group «weekly newspapers», «a musicals is the shortened form of the word group «a musical comedy» etc.

The appearance of a new word which is synonymous to the word already existing in the language may cause a change in the meanings of words. *Ex.* the old meaning of the word «deer» was an animal. It was used for all kinds of animals. When the Latin word «**animal**» came into the English language the meaning of the word «deer» was changed. Now it is used to name only one kind of animal (deer—олень, буф).

The words may change their meaning when they are used transferentially, i. e. metaphorically or metonymically. A metaphor is a shift of meanings caused by the likeness (se-milarity of some property of two objects). Metaphor is based on the similarities of objects.

Ex. the words «warm» and «cold» may be used to denote the certain qualities of human voices because of some kind of similarity between these qualities and warm and cold temperature.

warm temperature cold temperature

The similarity may be based on several shapes.

1) similarity of form. *Ex.* eye of a needle, a head of a pin; 2) similarity of function. *Ex.* the head of the state, the head of the demonstration; 3) similarity of position. *Ex.* the foot of the mountain, a foot of the page, the top of the table, the leg of the table.

The usage of proper names for common nouns may cause a metaphor too. Some scientists use widely some characters. *Ex.* He is a pushkin of our days (he is a very strong poet).

Ex. warm voice cold voice

She is a Pushkin. Sometimes the names of animals are used to denote the human qualities.

Ex. She is a fox (she is very cunning). She is a parrot (She is talkative).

We must differ a metaphor from a simile. In simile we use before the words «as» and «like». *Ex.* She is a monkey (metaphor). She is like a monkey (similar).

METAPHOR

It is a transfer of the meaning on the basis of comparison. Herman Paul points out that

metaphor can be based on different types of similarity:

- a) similarity of shape, e.g. head (of a cabbage), bottleneck, teeth (of a saw, a comb);
- b) similarity of position, e.g. foot (of a page, of a mountain), head (of a procession);
- c) similarity of function, behaviour e.g. a whip (an official in the British Parliament whose duty is to see that members were present at the voting);
- d) similarity of colour, e.g. orange, hazel, chestnut etc.

In some cases we have a complex similarity, e.g. the leg of a table has a similarity to a human leg in its shape, position and function.

Many metaphors are based on parts of a human body, e.g. an eye of a needle, arms and mouth of a river, head of an army.

A special type of metaphor is when Proper names become common nouns, e.g. philistine - a mercenary person, vandals - destructive people, a Don Juan - a lover of many women etc.

Metonymy is a shift of meaning or a change of meaning caused by a close, stable, constant connection between two or more objects. Metonymy should not be mixed up with a metaphor. In metonymy a part is used instead of the whole but metaphor is based on the likeness. *Ex.* She has a fox on (metonymy). It means she wears fur-coat made out of the fur of a fox. «Black shirts» was given for fascists in Italy because the fascists wore black shirts, «red - coat» means British soldiers because they wore red uniforms. The kettle is boiling (water is boiling). Sometimes names of human organs may be used metonymically.

Ex. Will you lend me your ear? (listen to me). He has a good hand. (He has a good handwriting.)

The name of a person can be used to denote a thing connected with that person. *Ex.* Do you know Byron? We mean his poems not himself. *Ex.* I like Pushkin means I like his works. Geographical names are also used metonymically. *Ex.* boston — a name of town — material. Champagne — a province in France.

It is a transfer of the meaning on the basis of contiguity. There are different types of metonymy:

- a) the material of which an object is made may become the name of the object, e.g. a glass, boards, iron etc;
- b) the name of the place may become the name of the people or of an object placed there, e.g. the House - members of Parliament, Fleet Street - bourgeois press, the White House - the Administration of the USA etc;
- c) names of musical instruments may become names of musicians, e.g. the violin, the saxophone;
- d) the name of some person may become a common noun, e.g. «boycott» was originally the name of an Irish family who were so much disliked by their neighbours that they did not mix with them, «sandwich» was named after Lord Sandwich who was a gambler. He did not want to interrupt his game and had his food brought to him while he was playing cards between two slices of bread not to soil his fingers.
- e) names of inventors very often become terms to denote things they invented, e.g. «watt»), «oni»), «rentgen)» etc
- f) some geographical names can also become common nouns through metonymy, e.g.

holland (linen fabrics), Brussels (a special kind of carpets), china (porcelain), astrachan ~ (a sheep fur) etc.

The result of semantic change can be observed in: 1) restriction (or narrowing) of meaning. Restriction of meaning is the capacity of a word to narrow its meaning in the course of historical development; 2) extention (or widening) of meaning. It is the expansion of polysemy in the course of its historical development, i.e. it is the widening of meaning. *Ex.* The word «fowl» meant in old English «any bird» but in modern English it denotes «a domestic hen or cock, — old meaning of «affection» was —any feeling, new meaning is a feeling of love. The word «junk» originally meant sailor's word meaning «old rope». Now it means «rubbish, useless stuff». This is an example of extention of meaning. The word «meat» originally meant «food» now it means one special type of food. This is an example of narrowing of meaning. As a result of change of meaning a word may get a new meaning which will be broader or more generalized than the old one. *Ex.* season. The old meaning of the word «season» was «spring». The new meaning is any part of the year. Here is another example. The old meaning of «to bootleg* was to sell alcoholic drinks illegally* New meaning is «to sell anything illegally*.

The meaning of a word may become ameliorated as a result of semantic change. *Ex.* the old meaning of the word «nice» was «foolish», now it means «good», «fine».

The old meaning of «marshal» was a servant who looked after horses. New meaning is a high military rank (Маршал).

The meaning of a word may become deteriorated as a result of semantic change. *Ex.* the old meaning of «villain was «farm labourers, new meaning is ярамац (злодей). The old meaning of «knave» was—бола (мальчик), new meaning is «каллоб» (машенник),

Compare the metaphorical meanings of the correlated words in three languages.

English	Russian	Uzbek
Eagle	орёл (бургут)	бургут
(орёл)		
1. орёл (бургут)	1. хищная птица (ёввойи куш)	1. большая
хищная птица (энг		
2. монета с изображением	2. перен. о гордом, смелом,	катта
йирткич куш)		
орла (бургут расми бор	сильном человеке (кучли;	2. хищный
человек (йирткич,		
танга)	кўркмас одам)	ёвуз)
3. созвездие (юлдузлар)		
туркуми		
4. жарг. курсант, день		
получки (курсант, мояна		
олинадиган кун)		
falcon	сокол	ЛОЧИН
1. сокол (лочин)	1. хищная птица	1. хищная птица
(йирткич куш)		

2. ист. фалкон
стокательный

(йирткич куш)

2. перен.

енгил, чакқон

2. перен. о молодце

человек (кўчма.

(кўчма. эпчил)

Ғоят ғайратли одам)

KEY WORDS :

The goal of semasiology

Semantic structure of the word

Grammatical and Lexical meaning of the word. The differences between them

Differential and functional meaning of the word

The motivation of the word and its types

Changeable category

of the word meaning

The difference between metaphor and metonymy

Miscellaneous meanings of the word

Current research in semantics

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING 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,

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LECTURE 3

The morphemic structure of English words and wordformation

Plan for the lecture

1. The structure of the wordformation
2. Monomorphemic and polymorphemic words
3. Types of morphemes
4. Synchronic and diachronic aspects of the morphological structure of the word
5. Principles of morphemic analysis.
6. Derivational level of analysis. Stems. Types of Stems.
7. Syntactical analyses of the word

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 morphē** "form" + **-erme**. The Greek suffix **-erme** 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 a 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, e.g. (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, e.g., 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 being".

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. The four types (root words, derived words, compound, shortenings) represent the main structural types of Modern English words, and conversion, derivation and composition the most productive ways of word building.

According to the number of morphemes words can be classified into **monomorph** and **polymorph**. **Monomorph** or **root-words** consist of only one root-morpheme, e.g. **small**, **dog**, **make**, **give**, etc. All polymorph 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, e.g. **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.

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. 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+} { 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 four cuts described looks as follows:

1. **un-** / **gentlemanly**
2. **un-** / **gentleman** / **-ly**
3. **un-** / **gentle** / **-man** / **-ly**
4. **un-** / **gentl** / **-e** / **-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, 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 1C 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 **-ness** would give individual speech-sounds which denote nothing by themselves. The 1C 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, e.g. 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 [-tavn] or [-si:v] 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 [-tain] 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.

When we analyse the word we compare the word with other words which have the same morphemes. The word «denationalize» 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 ultimate constituents. The part of the word «denationalize» de-,nation,al-,ize-_r are ultimate constituents because they can not be divided further. They are morphemes. This analysis of word structure is known as the morphemic analysis.

Morphemes are divided into two: free and bound. Free morpheme is a morpheme which is identical with the word-form. 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, -ize, are bound morphemes because they can't be used separately and do not coincide with wordforms.

According to the number of morphemes words are divided into monomorphemic and polymorphemic. Monomorphemic words consist of one root — morpheme. *Ex.* boy, girl, dog, cat. Polymorphemic words consist of more than two morphemes. *Ex.* teach/er, un/reason/able. Morphemes are arranged in the word according to certain rules. The relations within the word and the interrelations between different types and classes of words are called derivational relations. The basic unit at the derivational level is the stem. The stem is a part of the word which remains unchanged throughout its paradigm.

Derivational level of 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 not mere sum totals of morphemes, 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 **derivative or word- formation relations.**

The analysis of derivative 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 derivative 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 derivative 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.

In more complex cases the result of the analysis at the two levels sometimes seems even to contracted one another.

Key words

The morphemic structure of the words in Modern English. Words and morphemes. (2 hours).

Simple, derived, compound and compound-derived words. The principles of morphemic analyses of the word. Degrees of derivation. Problems of productivity of wordforming means. Word-building and its methods of investigation. The notion of word-building pattern.

The different ways of word-building, wordformation and wordcomposition.

1. Affixation (suffixation and prefixation). Affixes, semi-affixes. The classification of affixes and its principles. Polysemantic, homonymic and synonymic affixes. Productivity of affixes.
2. Conversion. Different points of view to the study of conversion. The study of conversion from the diachronic level. The most common types of conversion. The connection of derived and underlying word in converted pairs.
3. Wordcomposition. Compound words and their meanings. The motivation of compounds. The classification of compound words. The types of relations between components in compound words. The difference between the compound words and word groups. Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of compounds.

4. Shortened words and other minor types of wordformation shortening and its characteristic features. Clippings and abbreviations. Clippings and original words. Soundinterchange. Backformation. Blending.

Main lit.: [9], 34-36; [5], 23-26.

Ad. lit.: [6], 70-74

Answer the following questions

1. What is a morpheme? 2. What is the word made up of? 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?

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LECTURE 4

Word formation and its types

I. PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Different points of view to the study of conversion.
2. The study of conversion on the diachronic level and on the synchronic level.
3. The most common types of conversion.
4. The connection of derived and underlying word in converted pairs.

TEXT

Conversion is a very productive way of forming new words in Modern English, (ex. work—to work, pen—to pen, to walk—walk). 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 another². 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 soundinterchange. *Ex.* Sing-song and paper *n*-*pa*-*per 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.

Prof. A. L. Smirnitsky 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. *Ex.* in Uzbek:

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

Ex. lufu — luf — love *n*.
lufian — luf — love *v*
andswarn — andswar — 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.

Ex. 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. Synchronically 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.

Derivations from the stems of other parts of speech are less common. *Ex.* wrong {*adj*} — to wrong, up (*adj*) — to up, down (*adv*)—to down. Nouns may be also formed from verb + postpositive phrases. *Ex.* 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. No verbal formations from prefixed stems are found.

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.

Ex. «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 buss» 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.

Ex. «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. *Ex.* man (n)—man (v), father (n)—father (v), map (n)—map (v), paper (n)—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 (u), — show (n) chat (v) — chat (n) 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. *Ex.* hand(ra)—handed, handful, handy, handless etc. hand (v) — handable. Here the verb «hand» is formed from the noun «hand», because the noun has more derivatives than the verb.

II. SHORTENED WORDS AND OTHER MINOR WAYS OF WORDFORMATION PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Shortening and its characteristic features.
2. Clippings and abbreviations.
3. Clippings and the original words.
4. Soundinterchange.
5. Backformation.
6. Blending.

TEXT

The shortening of words means substituting a part for a whole, part of the word is taken away and used for the whole. *Ex.* **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.

Ex. **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 (CPSU, YCL, 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. *Ex.* **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: *ex.* **ad** (advertisement), **lab** (laboratory), **Jap** (Japanese), **doc** (doctor), **sis** (sister), **vac** (vacuum cleaner) ;2) Words that have been shortened at the beginning: *ex.* **car** (motor-car), **phone** (telephone), **van** (caravan), **cast** (broadcast); 3) Words in which syllables have been omitted from the middle the so called syncope, *ex.* **maths** (mathematics), **specs** (spectacles); 4) Words that have been shortened at the beginning and at the end: *ex.* **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, *ex.* **exams**, **docs**, **cars**, **doc's** they are used with articles: **the USA**, **a lab**, **a vac**, **a doc**, etc. They may take derivational affixes: **YCL-er**, **M. P-ess** hanky (from handkerchief), **unkie** (from uncle).

Clippings do not always coincide in meaning with the original word. *Ex.* **doc** and **doctor** have the meaning **one who practises medicine**, but doctor 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.

Ex. **vac**-vacation; **vac**-vacuum cleaner; **prep**-preparation; **prep**-preparatory school.

In abbreviations we stress each letter.

Ex. **TUC** ['ti/ju/si:] — Trade Union Congress.

If they are pronounced in accordance with the rules of phonetics we stress the first syllable.

Ex. NATO ['neitou], UNO ['ju:nou]

Soundinterchange. Sound interchange is an alternation in the phonetic composition of the root. *Ex.* food (*n*)—feed (*v*), speak (*o*)—speech (*n*), strong (*ad*)—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. *Ex.* 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 advice, use [ju:s] — to use [ju:z], speak—speech, break—breach, defence—defend, offence-offend.

Back-formation. The term «back-formation» has a diachronic relevance (historical meaning).

Ex. 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—speakers and «beg—beggar». But if we study their origin we see **butle** was derived from «**butler**», «**to beg**» was derived from «**beggar**» (begar comes from trench «begard», «begart»). So backformation «denotes the derivation of new words by subtracting a real or supposed affix from existing words through misinterpretation of their structure.

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

Ex. 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.

Ex. clash = clap-crash; flush=flash+blush, slanguage =sl-ang+languague, brunch-=breakfast+lunch, smare=smoke+ha-ze, seadrome=sea+airdrome). There are many blends in the terminological vocabulary. *Ex.* racon=radar+beacon, transceiver = transmitter + receiver.

KEY WORDS :

Conversion-productive way of forming words
Different approaches to the study of conversion
Diachronic approach to the study of conversion
Synchronic approach to the study of conversion

The origin of conversion
 Common types of conversion
 Prof. A. Soboleva's three criteria
 Converted pairs
 Shortening and its features
 Abbreviations and their peculiarities
 Clippings and their peculiarities
 The difference between the clipping and the original word
 The homonymy of abbreviations
 Sound-interchange-a way of forming words diachronically
 The distinction between vowel-interchange and consonant-interchange
 Backformation
 The peculiarities of blending

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 wordbuilding, 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?

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 consonantinterchange? 10. What is understood by the term «backformation?» 11. What is the peculiarity of blending as a means of word-formation?

Discuss the following problems. Give your arguments for this problem.

1. Conversion is a non-affixal word-building. Is that really so?
2. Conversion was born as a result of the disappearance of inflexions in the course of the historical development of the English language. Do you agree?
3. It is difficult to define which of the two words within converted pairs is the derived member. Is this true?

4. There is no conversion in Uzbek. Do you agree with this statement?

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LECTURE 5

Phraseology of Modern English.

Plan of the lecture

The subject-matter of phraseology.

1. The classification of phraseological units.
2. The point of view about stability, idiomaticity and the equivalence of phraseological units to words.
3. The history of phraseological units
4. The synonymy, polysemy of phraseological units.

Functionally and semantically inseparable units are usually called phraseological units. Phraseological units cannot be freely made up in speech but are reproduced as ready made units. The lexical components in phraseological units 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.

Ex. red tape (bureaucratic methods), to get rid of; to take place; to lead the dance; to take care.

A. V. Koonin thinks that phraseology must be an independent linguistic science and not a part of lexicology. His classification of phraseological units is based on the functions of them in speech. They are: nominating, interjectional and communicative.

V. V. Vinogradov classified phraseological units into three groups taking into consideration their motivation. They are:

1) phraseological fusions; they are such units which are completely non motivated word groups; *Ex.* to kick the bucket to get one's goat, to show the white feather.

In these word groups the meaning of the whole expressions is not derived from the meaning of components.

2) 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: *ex.* to show one's teeth, to know the way the wind blows, to stand to one's guns, to take care of;

3) phraseological collocations: They include motivated relatively stable word groups. They have a certain degree of stability; *ex:* to take an interest, to fall in love, to look through one's fingers, meet the demand etc.

At present the term «phraseological unite is usually used not to all set expressions but only to those which are completely or partially non-motivated¹.

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», *ex:* 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».

Ex. dutch courage (courage given by drink), to bring to book (to bring to justice), small years (in the childhood), small beers (weak beer). Stability of phraseological units is seen in its disallowance of the substitution of word groups. *Ex:* «to shrug one's-shoulders* does not allow to substitute either «shrug» or «shoulder».

Idiomaticity of phraseological units is lack of word groups. If a word group does not allow word by word translation it is called idiomatic word groups. *Ex:* to kick the bucket (yjvie-peib) in the soup (B saTpyflHHiejibHOM iKwioxteHHn) under a cloud (B njioxoM HacpoeHHH).

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).

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. *Ex.* He gets rid of it. The problem of equivalency of phraseological units to words demands further investigation.

Among the phraseological units there are the so-called imperative phraseological units¹.

Ex. 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. *Ex.* East or West home is best, a friend in need is a friend indeed. To be or not to be.

The history of many phraseologisms is an interesting record of the nation's past, of its way of life, customs and traditions. Many phraseological units are connected with commerce, *Ex*: 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. Many phraseological units are associated with the sea (the waves). *Ex*; all at sea, to nail one's colours to the mast, to sail under false colours. Many phraseological units were borrowed from the Bible, *Ex*: the root of all evil — корень зла, любовь к деньгам. Daily bread — хлеб насущный, средства к существованию. There is a subject of discussion among the linguists 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 therefore. A. V. Koo-nin calls such units «set phrases* which have no phraseological character. There are synonyms among phraseological units,

KEY WORDS :

Phraseological unit

The most peculiarities of phraseological units

Different approaches to the study of phraseological units

Stability of phraseological units

Idiomaticity of phraseological units

Classification of phraseological units according to their semantic and grammatical inseparability

Proverbs, sayings and quotations

The history of phraseological units

The discussion among the linguistics about the state of combinations, like “give up”

The synonymy of phraseological units

The polysemy of phraseological units

Answer the following 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?

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LECTURE 6

General classification of vocabulary system Modern English language

Plan for the lecture

1. The volume of dictionary and its use.
2. Changeableness of vocabulary system and the influence of extra-linguistic causes in the development of a language.
3. The causes of changeableness of the vocabulary system, owing to linguistic laws. (2 hours).
4. Problems of classification of vocabulary system of the English language, as a definite system of lexical units.
5. Problems of linguistic criteria of distinguishing lexico-semantic groups.
6. The stylistic differentiation of the vocabulary system of Modern English.

Main lit.: [3], 23-26; [5], 5-

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 are words belonging to the same part of speech different in morphemic composition and phonemic shape but identical or similar in meaning and interchangeable at least in some contexts. *Ex.* jump, hop, leap, spring, defend, protect, guard shield; absence, privation, lack, want; error, mistake; go, leave, depart. Complete synonyms do not exist. Bloomfield says each linguistic form has a constant and 1 specific meaning.

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

Each synonymic group contains one word the meaning of which has no additional connotations (it can be used in different styles). This word is called a synonymic dominant. *Ex.* In the group: change, alter, very, modify the word «change» is the synonymic dominant.

Synonyms may be divided into:

1) ideographic synonyms; 2) stylistic synonyms. Synonyms which differ in their denotational meanings are called ideographic synonyms. If the difference lies in their stylistic difference the synonyms are said to be stylistic. *Ex.* beautiful (usually about girls) and handsome (usually about men). These are ideographic synonyms but «to die — to pass away», «to begin — to commence*», «to see — to behold», «to end — to complete»), «horse — steed» are stylistic synonyms.

neutral words

to see
a girl
money

stylistically coloured words

to behold (bookish)
a maiden (poetic)
dough (colloquial)

food	grub (colloquial)
to live	to hand out (colloquial)

Prof. Aznaurova E. S. ¹points out that stylistic synonyms carry emotional evaluative information.

Synonyms are distributionally different words. *Ex.* «too.» «also» «as well» are synonyms. They always occur in different surroundings. The synonyms differ in their collocability. *Ex.* 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

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 + 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: *ex.* 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: *ex:* drunk-merry, ledger-paying guest, to die — to go away, commandment — command.

7) slang, i. e. emotionally coloured words which are the secondary names of objects. Antonyms are words which belong to the same part of speech and have contrary meanings. *Ex.* kind — cruel, good — bad, big — small, little — much.

Antonyms may be divided into: 1) root antonyms: *ex.* good — bad, beautiful — ugly, kind — cruel, old — young.

2) derivational antonyms. These antonyms are formed by affixes. *Ex.* kind — unkind, to like — dislike, possible — impossible, regular, irregular. Antonyms are not always interchangeable in certain contexts. *Ex.* «rich voice» 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 qualitative 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». *Ex.* 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. Ex. when the word «criticism» means «blame» its antonym is «praise», when it means «peueH3HH» it has no antonym.¹

The majority of linguists nowadays agree that the vocabulary should be studied as a system. We must study interrelated systems. For different purposes of study different types of grouping of words may be effective. Words joined together by one common semantic component form **semantic fields**. Ex. the semantic field of time.

The German linguist Jost Trier shows that the significance of each unit in the semantic field is determined by its neighbours. A. Shaikevitch says that semantically related words must occur near one another in the text. If the words often occur in the text together they must be semantically related and they form a semantic field.

Ex. faint, feeble, weary, sick, tedious and healthy form one semantic field.

Face, head, arm, hand, foot etc make up the semantic field with the notion of body.

Neologism is any word which is formed according to the productive structural patterns or borrowed from another language and felt by the speakers as something new. So neologisms are newly coined words or phrase or a new meaning for an existing word or a word borrowed from another language. As a result of the development of science and industry many new words are appeared in the language. *Ex.* isotope, tape-recorder, supermarket, V-day (Victory day). The research of cosmic space by the scientists gave birth to new words: sputnik, lunik, space-rocket, space-ship. Neologisms are mainly formed by; 1) wordformation (mainly productive type).

Ex. -gen, -ogen: **carinogen** (biological term)

-ics: **psycholinguistics, electronics sputnik—to sputnik** (conversion)

—nik: filmnik, folknik.

2) semantic extension: heel — a tractor (old meaning: heel—the back part of

foot); to screen—to classify, to select methodically (old meaning was — to separate coal into different sizes);

3) borrowing: telecast, telestar (Greek), sputnik, lunnik, udarnik (Russian).

Words may drop out as a result of the disappearance of the actual objects they denote. These words are called **obsolete words**.

The disappearance of words may be caused as a result of influence of borrowings.

Ex. the Scandinavian «take» and «die» ousted O. E. ni-man and sweldan.

The French «army» and «place» replaced the O. E. here and steps. Words which are not used generally are called **archaisms**. Archaisms are used in poetic vocabulary.

Ex. steed (horse), slay (kill), welkin (sky)

Archaisms should be distinguished from historical terms or historisms which denote historical reality and commonly used in modern English.

Ex. cannon- ball, chain mail, lance, archer, baldric (belt for a sword).

Speech also expresses the speakers attitude to what he is talking about. The speaker may wish to warn, to influence people, to express his approval or

Neologisms are mainly formed by: 1) wordformation (mainly productive type).
2) semantic extension: heel — a. tractor (old meaning: heel — the back part of foot);
to screen — to classify, to select methodically (old meaning was — to separate coal
into different sizes);

3) borrowing: telecast, telestar (Greek), sputnik, lunnik, udarnik (Russian).

Words may drop out as a result of the disappearance of the actual objects they denote.
These words are called obsolete words.

The disappearance of words may be caused as a result of influence of borrowings.

Ex. the Scandinavian «take» and «die» ousted O. E. *ni-man* and *sweldan*.

The French «army» and «place» replaced the O. E. *here* and *steps*. Words which are
not used generally are called archaisms. Archaisms are used in poetic vocabulary.

Ex. *steed* (horse), *slay* (kill), *welkin* (sky)

Archaisms should be distinguished from historical terms or historisms which denote
historical reality and commonly used in modern English.

Ex. *cannon-ball*, *chain mail*, *lance*, *archer*, *baldrick* (belt for a sword).

Speech also expresses the speakers attitude to what he is talking about. The speaker
may wish to warn, to influence people, to express his approval or disapproval. Words
expressing emotion are called emotionally coloured words. Demi-nutive and
derogatory affixes play an important role in forming emotionally coloured words.

There are some words which indicate the special importance of the thing expressed.
They are called intensifiers.

Ex. *even*, *ever*, *all*, *so*, *awfully*, *tremendously*, *wonderfully*, *terribly*, *awfully glad*,
terribly important . . .

The Uzbek words: ; *оҳ*, *фифон*, *аффон*, *фарёд* are used as the intensifiers.

It should be pointed out that among the emotionally coloured words we can find
words which express evaluation, judgement. They are called evaluatory words.
Mostly names of animals have a strong evaluatory force.

Ex. «Silly ass» said Dick. «He's jealous because he didn't win a prize».

cattwitted — мелочный, *dirty dog* — грязный подлец,

colt — a young male horse used for a young unexperienced person, *pur* — щенок,

They have negative evaluation. But in English we have words which have positive
evaluation, ex. *bunny* — кролик, *bunting* — птичка (ласк). In the English language
we can find a lot of vulgar words which are used in emotional speech: ex. *Damn!*
Alas!

One and the same word may have different evaluation when it is used with words
denoting different sex.

He is a bull (it has a positive evaluation) She is a bull (it has a negative evaluation)

In Uzbek: «*чехра*» has positive evaluation but «*бамара*» has negative;

On different occasions and situations the speaker uses different words, chooses
different words in different spheres of communication. There are some words which
are used in lecture, in a poem or when speaking to a child, an official person etc.
They are very highly frequent words. These words are called stylistically neutral
words.

Ex. *evening*, *man*, *girl*, *table*, *horse*, *read*, *write*, *speak*, *beautiful*, *nice* etc.

But we have a lot of words which cannot be used in any situation or we speak to any person. They are called stylistically marked words.

Ex. the English nouns «horse», «steed», «gee-gee» have the same meaning, they all refer to the same animal but they are stylistically different.

«Horse» is stylistically neutral and may be used in any situation. «Steed» belongs to poetic vocabulary. It has a lofty meaning. «Gee-gee» — is a nursery word neutral in a child's speech. And it is not used in adult conversation. So stylistically coloured words are suitable only on certain definite occasions in specific conditions of communication.

Each stylistically coloured word has a neutral synonym:

Ex. steed — horse, ire — anger, sustain— suffer, obtain— get, accomodation — room, woe — sorrow, fair—beautiful, slay— kill.

Among the stylistically — coloured words we can find:

Slang- words. They are expressive, mostly ironical words. They serve to create fresh names for some things. They sound somewhat vulgar, harsh, mockingly, contemptously.

Ex. The word «money» has the following slang words as: beans, brass, dibs, dough, chink, oof, wads. Each stylistically coloured word has a neutral synonym:

Ex. steed—horse, ire—anger, sustain— suffer, obtain— get, accomodation — room, woe — sorrow, fair — beautiful, slay—kill.

The slang synonyms for word «head» are: attic, brain— — pan, hat, peg, nut, upper storey. The slang synonyms for the adjective «drunk» are: boozy, cock-eyed, high, soaked, tight.

KEY WORDS :

Synonyms and their types

The main sources of synonyms

Antonyms The classification of antonyms

The interchangeability of antonyms

Neologism and its types

The formation of neologism

The difference between neologism and obsolete words

Archaisms

Emotionally coloured words

The difference between stylistically marked words and stylistically neutral words

Answer the following questions

1. What is understood by the term «synonym»? 2. Are there complete synonyms in English? 3. Can polysemantic words have the same synonyms in all their meanings? 4. What is the dominant of a synonymic group? 5. What is the difference between ideographic synonyms and stylistic ones? 6. Do the synonyms occur in the same surroundings? 7. What is the collocability of synonyms? 8. What are the main sources of synonyms? 9. What is understood by the term «antonyms»? 10. What is the classification of antonyms? 11. What is the interchangeability of antonyms in contexts? 12. What are the semantic fields? 13. What is the difference between neologisms and obsolete words? 14. What words are called emotionally coloured words? 15. What is the difference between stylistically marked words and stylistically neutral words?

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LECTURE 7

Lexicography of the English language. English dictionaries and their development.

Plan for the lecture

1. The origin of the lexicography
2. The connection of lexicography with the problems of lexicology
3. Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of lexicography
4. Different types of lexicography
5. Other types of specialized dictionaries
6. Difference between Lingual and bilingual dictionaries
7. The definition of the meaning of words in dictionaries
8. The most important problem of lexicographer

Lexicography is a science of dictionary-compiling. Modern English lexicography appeared in the 15th century. In this period English-Latin dictionaries were in existence. The first dictionary of the English language was published in 1755 by Samuel Johnson, in which he gave the origin of words and examples from the works of the best writers.

Another major milestone is the *New English Dictionary of Oxford English Dictionary*. It was written from 1888 up to 1928. It covers the vocabulary of English with a full historical evidence. It gives the full history of words. It has 13 volumes and a supplement containing neologisms (new words).

The first important dictionary in American lexicography is Webster's *American Dictionary of the English language*. It was published in 1828 in two volumes.

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 border-line between homonymy and polysemy in different dictionaries. Thus in some dictionaries words such as fly — *namia* (Myxa), (a two winged insect) and fly — *пашша* (myxa), (a flap of cloth covering the buttons on a garment) are treated as two different words and in others (*Ex.* the *Concise Oxford Dictionary* and the *Advanced Learners Dictionary of Current English*) — as different meanings of one and the same word.

There are encyclopaedic 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 20th 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. *Ex.* [o:] is given as oh, aw, 6, or, etc.

Translation dictionaries or parallel are word-books containing vocabulary items in one language and their equivalents in another language.

Ex. Russian-English Dictionary under the edition of prof. A. I. Smirnitsky. The English-Russian dictionary by Miller, New English-Russian Dictionary by I. R. Galperin. The Pocket English-Russian Dictionary, by Benrok, 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.

Ex. 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 (*ex.* 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. Koonin's English 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. Michail West. A General Service List of English Words. Etymological dictionaries; *Ex.* 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 (*ex.* 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.

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.

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. The entry of translation dictionaries presents the meanings of words with the help of other languages.

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. *Ex.* 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.

The shortening of words means substituting a part for a whole, part of the word is taken away and used for the whole. *Ex.* **demo** (demonstration), **dub** (double), **vac** (vacuum cleaner), **doc** (doctor), **fig** (figure), **Mrs** (missis).

Key words

- 1.The origin of the lexicography
- 2.The connection of lexicography with the problems of lexicology
- 3.Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of lexicography
- 4.Different types of lexicography
- 5.Other types of specialized dictionaries
- 6.Difference between Lingual and bilingual dictionaries
7. The definition of the meaning of words in dictionaries
8. The most important problem of lexicographer
9. The structure of the dictionary

10. The difference between diachronic and synchronic dictionaries

Answer the questions

1. What is the task of lexicography?

2. What kind of types of dictionaries do you know? 3. What kind of types of dictionaries presents spelling of the words? 4. What kind of types of dictionaries presents Etymology of the words? 5. What kind of types of dictionaries presents Pronunciation of the words? 6. What kind of types of dictionaries presents meaning of words? 7. What kind of types of dictionaries presents grammatical information? 8. What kind of dictionary is translation dictionary?

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Kurs ishi

Ingliz tili leksikologiyasi fanidan talabalar kurs ishi yozishlari mumkin. Kurs ishi mavzulari ma'ruza, seminar yoki amaliy Mashg'ulotlar mazmunidan tanlanadi. Mashg'ulotlarda ko'rsatilgan yirik mavzular tarkibidan alohida kichik mavzular olinishi mumkin.

Kurs ishning hajmi 15 sahifa (0,5 b.t.) dan kam bo'lmasligi talab qilinadi.

Talaba tayyorlagan kurs ishi akademik guruhda himoya qilinadi va 100 ballik reyting usuli bilan baholanadi.

Ingliz tili kafedrası Leksikologiya fani bo'yicha kurs ishlari

R O ' Y H A T I

2008-2009 o'quv

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T	The themes of course works	
1.	Word and its meanings	
2.	Word meaning in syntagmatic and paradigmatics	
3.	The form of the word	
4.	Referential and functional approaches to the Meaning	
5.	Motivation .Comparative study of motivation	
6.	Scientific approaches to the study of Phonetic and semantic aspects of words	
7.	Semantical formation of words in Uzbek and in English speaking countries	
8.	The role of paradigmatics and in syntagmatics in forming words	
9.	Main meanings of simple, compound and complex words	
10	The ways of identifying and limiting word meanings and their parts	

11	The types of meaning and lexico-semantic variants of words	
12	Synchronic and diachronic approaches of word meaning	
13	Semantic groupings of words	
14	Semantic relations .The problems of monosemy, polisemy and ghiperghiponimiya	
15	Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of synonyms	
16	Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of antonyms	
17	Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of homonyms	
18	Comparative study of synonyms and antonyms in both languages	
19	Word formation is the system of derivative types of words	
20	Principles of morphemic analyses	
21	The types and the classes of morphems	
22	Classifacation of morphemes	
23	Suffixation. The picularities of some suffixes	
24	Word formation as the subject of study	
25	Fre Word-groups. Versus set-phrases	
26	Some problems of the Diachronic approaches to the study of phraseology	
27	Homonymic L synonymic affires	
28	Polysemantic affires	
29	The connection of lexicology with different aspects of homonyms	
30	Morphemic analyses of word segment ability	
31	Main principles of classification of suffixes	
32	Approaches to the study of set expression	
33	Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of homonyms	
34	The Similarity of set expressions	
35	Monomorphemic and polymorphemic words	
36	Types and groups of morphemes	
37	The root of the and its types	
38	The types of morphological wordbuilding in Modern English	
39	Diachronic and synchronic approaches to the study of wordbuilding	
40	The ways of morphemeformation	
41	Comparative study of morthemes and	

	allomorphemes	
42	Scientific analyses of morphemic wordformation	
43	French borrowed words in Modern English	
44	Types of shortening and their functioning in Modern English	
45	Productive suffixes of nouns in the English language	
46	Lexical-semantic features of words denoting Universe in English	
47	The problem of lexical homonymy in Modern English	
48	Semantic features of phraseological units with the names of birds	
49	Prefixation. Some debatable problems of prefixes	
50	Semantic features of negative nomination constructions	
51	The problem of adjectives word formation in English	
52	Abbreviation in scientific texts	
53	Lexicography in Uzbekistan	
54	The problem of similarity of words in translating the words in two languages	
55	Neologisms in Uzbek and in English	
56	The principles of describing derived words in explanatory dictionaries	
57	Synonymous phraseological units	
58	Antonymy of phraseological units	
59	American lexicography: history, problems, solutions	
60	The problem of definition of dictionaries	
61	Functioning of derived units in Modern English	
62	Types of dictionaries	
63	Substantive phraseological units	
64	Affixation. Some debatable problems of affixes	
65	Phraseological units in newspapers and in magazine headline	
66	Phraseological units with the components of "eye", "hand", "hear"	
67	The principles of describing terminological system in the language	
68	Terminology described sport	
69	Terminology described medicine	
70	The problems of definition of American-English	

71	The definition of American-English and British-English	
72	The problems of reflecting B.E and A.E in dictionaries	
73	Stylistic reference of phraseological units	
74	Stylistic reference of the productivity of prefixes in Uzbek and in English	
75	Stylistic reference of the productivity of suffixes in Uzbek and in English	
76	Semantic features of words denoting human activity	
77	Synchronic approaches to the study of homonyms	
78	Diachronic approaches to the study of homonyms	
77	Shortened words and their usage in different purposes	
78	Diachronic and synchronic approaches to the study of phraseological units	
79	The difference of polycymy and synonymy	
80	The prefixial wordformation in Modern English	
81	Semantic features of words denoting the youth hobby	
82	The problem of similarity of words in translating the words in two languages	
83	Borrowins in Mass media	
84	The “A”prefixed words and their semantical features	
84	Prefixes denoting negativeness in English and In Uzbek	
85	American variants of shortened words	
86	Difficulties in translating of shortened words	
87	The problems of reflecting B.E and A.E	
88	The problems of choosing phraseological units and set expressions	
89	The difference between synonymic and polisemantic phraseological units	
90	Lexical motivation of phraseological units	
91	Semantic relations of word formation in conversion	
92	Compounding. The ways of forming compounding	
93	The bases of analyses of compounding in Modern linguistics	
94	General and special lexics	

95	Lexical peculiarities and their historical relations in G.B, in theUSA,and other English speaking countries	
96	Etimological analyses of the word formation of English	
97	Comparative study of borrowed words	
98	International words and their usage in the texts	
99	The ways of Tranlation of word meanings in different languages.	
100	The actual problems of lexicology	

Ushbu kurs ishi loyihasi Ingliz tili kafedrasi yug'ilishida muhokama qilingan va tasdiqlangan.

Bayonnoma №1 _____ 2008 yil

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Ingliz tili leksikologiyasi bo'yicha o'tkaziladigan Yakuniy Baholash 30 variantli savollardan iborat bo'lgan yozma ish asosida bo'ladi. Har bir variant 4 tadan savolni o'z ichiga olgan.

Questions on lexicology for Final control

Variant 1

1. The main types of Lexicology
2. Colloquial words
3. Archaizm
4. Dialectical words

Variant 2

1. Archaic and absolute words
2. Professional Terminology
3. Basic Vocabulary
4. The Etymological Structure of English Vocabulary

Variant 3

1. International Words
2. Etymological doublets
3. Translation –Loans
4. Affixation

Variant 4

1. Semantics of affixes
2. Conversion
3. Word-building
4. Semi affixes

Variant 5

1. Shortening
2. Reduplication

3. Backformation
4. Soundimitation

Variant 6

1. Semantic structure of the word. Polysemy
2. Types of semantic components
3. Meaning and context
4. Word-meaning and motivation

Variant 7

1. The main variants of the English language
2. Some basic features of word groups
3. Classification of word groups
4. Interrelation of lexical and structural meaning in word groups

Variant 8

1. Polysemantic and monosemantic patterns
2. Segmentation of words into morphemes
3. Meaning of word groups
4. Criteria of stability and lack of motivation

Variant 9

1. Phraseological collocations
2. Principles of morphemic analysis
3. Affixation
4. Grammatical valiancy

Variant 10

1. Syntactic structure and patterns of word groups
2. Phraseological units and idioms
3. Classification of morphemes
4. Motivation in word groups

Variant 11

1. The definition of wordformation.
2. Affixation
3. Typical semantic relations through conversion
4. Meaning of compound words

Variant 12

1. Various of forming word
2. Prefixal and suffixal derivatives
3. Synchronic approaches to the study of conversion
4. Verbs converted from nouns

Variant 13

1. Historical changeability of wordstructure
2. Prefixation and some debatable problems
3. Origin of derivational suffixes
4. The meaning and motivation of compounds.

Variant 14

1. Derivational types of words
2. Classification of prefixes
3. Nouns converted from verbs
4. Basic criteria of semantic derivation

Variant 15

1. Wordcomposition
2. Productive suffixes
3. The main principles of classification of suffixes
4. Conversion and soundinterchange

Variant 16

1. Means of wordcomposition
2. Synonymic word in suffixes
3. Suffixation: Peculiarities of some suffixes
4. Diachronic approaches to the study of conversion (origin)

Variant 17

1. Compound words
2. Types of compound words
3. Productivity of traditional and occasional conversion
4. Structure of components of the compound words

Variant 18

1. Classification of compound words
2. Derivational compounds
3. The relations between the components of compound words
4. Correlation between the components of the free word phrases

Variant 19

1. Etymological survey of the English word stock
2. Words of native origin
3. Relations between the components of the compound words
4. Correlation between the components of the free word phrases

Variant 20

1. The difference between British and American English
2. Etymological doublets
3. The result of borrowings
4. Types of dictionaries

Variant 21

1. Correlation between the components of the free word phrases
2. Types of compound words
3. Suffixation: Peculiarities of some suffixes
4. Diachronic approaches to the study of conversion (origin

Variant 22

1. Wordcomposition
2. Origin of derivational suffixes
3. The meaning and motivation of compounds.
4. Words of native origin

Variant23

1. The definition of wordformation.
2. Affixation
3. Origin of derivational suffixes
4. The meaning and motivation of compounds

Variant 24

1. Meaning and context
2. Word-meaning and motivation
3. Nouns converted from verbs
4. Basic criteria of semantic derivation

Variant 25

1. Shortening
2. Reduplication
3. Slang
4. Dialectical words

Variant 26

1. International Words
2. Etymological doublets
3. Semantics of affixes
4. Conversion

Variant 27

1. Semi affixes
2. Suffixation: Peculiarities of some suffixes
3. Diachronic approaches to the study of conversion (origin)

4. Classification of word groups

Variant 28

1. Interrelation of lexical and structural meaning in word groups
2. Means of word composition
3. Synonymic word in suffixes
4. Reduplication

Variant 29

1. Phraseological collocations
2. Principles of morphemic analysis
3. Derivational types of words
4. Classification of prefixes

Variant 30

1. Etymological doublets
2. Semantics of affixes
3. Basic Vocabulary
4. The Etymological Structure of English Vocabulary

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Taqrizchi: katta o'qituvchi B. Bahramov

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Ingliz tili leksikologiyasi bo'yicha o'tkaziladigan Oraliq Baholash 10 variantli 30 ta savollardan iborat bo'lgan yozma ish asosida bo'ladi. Har bir variant 3 tadan savolni o'z ichiga olgan.

I- ORALIQ NAZORAT BO'YICHA TAYANCH SO'Z VA IBORALAR

1. Subject matter of lexicology.
2. Special, descriptive, historical and general lexicology: the difference between them.
3. The difference between comparative and non-comparative lexicology.

4. The connection of lexicology with other aspects of the language
5. The main relationships between the words
6. The methods of linguistic analyses used in Modern lexicology.

7. Correlated words and their components
8. The goal of semasiology
9. Semantic structure of the word.

- 10 Grammatical and Lexical meaning of the word.
The differences between them.
11. Differential and functional meaning of the word.
12. The motivation of the word and its types.

13. Changeable category of the word meaning.
14. The difference between metaphor and metonymy.
15. Miscellaneous meanings of the word.

16. Current research in semantics.
17. The morphemic structure of the words in Modern English.
18. Simple, derived, compound and compound-derived words.

19. The principles of morphemic analyses of the word.
20. Degrees of derivation. Problems of productivity of wordforming means.
21. The different ways of word-building and wordformation.

22. Affixation (suffixation and prefixation). Affixes, semi-affixes. The classification of affixes and its principles. Polysemantic, homonymic and synonymic affixes. Productivity of affixes.
23. Conversion. Different points of view to the study of conversion.
24. The study of conversion from the diachronic level.

25. The most common types of conversion.
26. The connection of derived and underlying word in converted pairs.
27. Shortened words and other minor types of wordformation shortening and its characteristic features.

28. Clippings and abbreviations. Clippings and original words.
29. Soundinterchange and its types
30. Backformation and Blending. The difference between them.

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II- ORALIQ NAZORAT BO'YICHA TAYANCH SO'Z VA IBORALAR

1. Phraseological unit and its most peculiarities.
2. Different approaches to the study of phraseological units.
3. Stability of phraseological units.

4. Idiomaticity of phraseological units.
5. Classification of phraseological units according to their semantic and grammatical inseparability.
6. Proverbs, sayings and quotations.

7. The history of phraseological units.
8. The discussion among the linguistics about the state of combinations, like "give up".
- 9." The synonymy of phraseological units.

10. The polysemy of phraseological units.
11. Synonyms and their types.
12. The main sources of synonyms.

13. Antonyms The classification of antonyms.
14. The interchangeability of antonyms.
15. Neologism and its types.

16. The formation of neologism.
17. The difference between neologism and obsolete words.
18. Archaisms.

19. Emotionally colored words.
20. The difference between stylistically marked words and stylistically neutral words.
21. The origin of the lexicography.

22. The connection of lexicography with the problems of lexicology.

23. Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of lexicography.
24. Different types of lexicography.

25. Other types of specialized dictionaries.
26. Difference between Lingual and bilingual dictionaries.
27. The definition of the meaning of words in dictionaries.

28. The most important problem of lexicographer.
29. The structure of the dictionary.
30. The difference between diachronic and synchronic dictionaries.

Tuzuvchi:

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