MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND SECONDARY SPECIALIZED EDUCATION OF REPUBLIC OF UZBEKISTAN

Andizhan State University named after Z.M.Bobur

Department of Grammar and Practical Course of the English Language

DadahanovaNilufar

(Group 401)

Comparative typology of synonyms in Modern English and Russian and problems of linguodidactics

5111400 – The English language and literature

Graduation paper

Scientific supervisor: G.M.Hoshimov, doctor of philology, professor

Andizhan – 2015

Contents

Introduction

After achieving the independence, there have been many changes in the Republic of Uzbekistan in different spheres of country life, as well as in educational system. Our country is trying to find its suitable position in world's social and economic life and in this case, great attention is being paid to younger generation.

We should always keep in mind that only those people, who comprehend the necessity of harmony of the national and universal human values, who possess modern knowledge, intellectual potential and advanced technologies can achieve the set of strategic goals of development of the country. So upbringing of an educated and intellectually advanced generation is the most important value and decisive power in achieving the goals of democratic development, modernization and renewal. [1,11]

Our President IslamAbduganiyevichKarimov is a great leader to us who's made Uzbekistan known to the world as one of the developed countries where spiritual, economic, cultural, social and educational fields of life are advancing at a high speed. His wonderful words about our country:

"The world is vast, there are many countries, but our Uzbekistan is unique. This wonderful and scared land was created for us. This thought should inspire all our hearts and provide the reason for our lives."[1, 40]

So one of the most important tasks of our country is to train a qualified specialist in the fields of diplomacy, international law, external economic activities, banking and other new realms of endeavors expending study and training opportunities for students and specialists at leading foreign educational and research centers, foreign firms, banks and companies. In order to fulfill these tasks, we should think about methods and ways of teaching English to our specialists.

A special attention has been attached to the 5 main principles of the building of the sovereign state advanced by our President I.A.Karimov, which have been recognized not only in our country, but also abroad.

These principles are the following:

1) economy should be a priority task over politics;

2) the state should act as the main reformer;

3) leadership of law should be established in all spheres of life;

4) strong social politics should be implemented in all spheres of life;

5) transition to market economy should be evolutionary, i.e. step by step.

These 5 principles are at the basis of development of our state and branches of economy. [1, 67]

"We should remember that only that country, that nation can advice great future, prosperity and well-being which would be able to train knowledgeable, professional and energetic persons, true patriots of their country, the country which would provide them with huge spiritual legacy of the great national culture and give them access to the world treasure of science and culture".[1,34]

There is possibility to radically reform the education system, to bring its contents, forms and methods close to the real need of the society.Educational establishment of a new type, such as professional colleges, academic lyceums, gymnasiums and business schools are intensively being created.

On December 10, 2012, President of the Republic ofUzbekistan Islam Karimov signed a decree "On measures for further improving foreign language learning system".

It is noted that in the framework of the Law of the Republic of Uzbekistan "On education" and the National Programme for Personnel Training in the country, a comprehensive foreign languages' teaching system, aimed at creating harmoniously developed, highly educated, modern-thinking young generation, further integration of the country in the world community, has been created. During the years of independence, over 51.7 thousand teachers of foreign languages have graduated from universities, English, German and French multimedia tutorials and textbooks for 5-9 grades of secondary schools, electronic resources for learning English in primary schools have been created, more than

5000 secondary schools, professional colleges and academic lyceums have been equipped with language laboratories.

However, analysis of the current system of organizing language learning shows that learning standards, curricula and textbooks do not fully meet the current requirements, particularly in the use of advanced information and media technologies. Education is mainly conducted in traditional methods. Further development of a continuum of foreign languages learning at all levels of education; improving skills of teachers and provision of modern teaching materials are required.

According to the decree, starting from 2013/2014 school year foreign languages, mainly English, gradually throughout the country will be taught from the first year of schooling in the form of lesson-games and speaking games, continuing to learning the alphabet, reading and spelling in the second year (grade).

Also it is envisaged that university modules, especially in technical and international areas, will be offered in English and other foreign languages at higher educational institutions.

The State Testing Centre, along with other relevant agencies, is tasked with preparing draft proposals on introducing foreign languages testing to the entrance examinations for all higher educational institutions.

In order to increase teaching standards in distant rural areas, the higher educational institutions are allowed targeted admission of people living in distant areas to foreign language programs on the condition that they will oblige themselves to work in the acquired specialty at their residence area for at least 5 years after graduation. The decree also envisages 30% salary increase for foreign language teachers in rural areas, 15% increase for those in other areas.

Education provides creative inspiration for the spirituality of the people of Uzbekistan. It helps us discover the best abilities of the up and coming generation, while continuously improving the skills of professionals. Young people, with their

budding talents and thirst for knowledge, are understanding spirituality through education.

An important event in the life of Republic was the starting of the public movement of the young people of Uzbekistan "Kamolot" on the initiative of the young people in Uzbekistan. The movement aims to train the young generation in the healthy way of life, patriotism, to support them in society, to defend their interests and create all necessary conditions for the full utilization of the intellectual potential and creativeness.[11,147]

Our President is always mentioning that without foreign languages no organization, no person can develop fast. During his visits to all regions of our country our leader Islam Karimov insisted that all teachers should know foreign languages and computer technologies.

Present situation is one of the Newly Independent States – the Republic of Uzbekistan requires new responses from teachers because of co – temporary diplomatic and political relations, economic and cultural ties of the state. Under existing conditions, the younger generation of foreign language teachers needs innovative, contemporary methodological concepts to enrich their experience.

In order to be one of the worthy specialists in the market of education I've made up my mind to carry out my own tiny research work on a very interesting and not yet deeply investigated theme. I believe that the results to be achieved in this research will be very helpful in working out effective and useful strategies and methodologies for teaching English in the future.

By this point, the theme which we have tried to investigate **"Comparative typology of synonyms in Modern English and Russian and problems of linguodidactics"** is considered one of the challenging subjects in linguistics.

Actuality of the topic of the graduation paper: The actuality of this work is explained by several important points. The subject matter of this theme has been learned by a number of linguists and they presented some ideas, opinions on it. We should say that the problem of synonyms is one of the difficult ones for the English language learners. It can be most clearly seen in the colloquial layer of a language, which, in its turn at high degree is supported by the development of modern informational technologies and simplification of great number of new meaning of one and the same word appear in the vocabulary.

Aim of the research: The aim of the research is to come up with comparative analysis of synonyms in English and Russian languages and create an effective methodology for teaching synonyms in English at Russian schools, solving problems of linguodidactics.

Tasks of the research: In order to demonstrate the significance of the research, we had to mark the following tasks:

1) discovering the main features of the word by realizing the research theory in modern linguistics;

2) to inquire the principles of distinguishing types of words;

3) to investigate the features of synonyms in English and Russian comparatively;

4) to work on the proficient methods for teaching English synonyms at Russian schools;

5) to create specific system of exercises on synonyms in order to improve the student's knowledge.

Object of the research: "Synonyms" in the Russian and English languages.

Subject of the research: Comparative linguistic theory of synonyms, their types and usage in a language in general.

Methods of the research: Comparative method, distributional method, oppositional method, method of modeling, transformational method, componential method, inductive method, deductive method and the method of contextual

analysis as well as interactive methods of teaching have been used in preparing this graduation paper.

Scientific novelty of the research: This topic became really interesting for us, as in working on this topic we have found a lot of interesting and important materials which are useful for students. Besides it was really important for us to know how English is rich in expressing ideas by using the different kind of word expression styles reinforcing ideas. In this research paper we tried to review the sense of the given topic, to study the features of synonyms by comparing them in English and Russian, to work on the effective strategies for teaching synonyms at Russian schools and to produce particular system of exercises on synonyms.

Materials of the research: Synonyms from fiction and non − fiction works by Russian and English writers.

Methodology of research: Phenomenon of synonymy and synonymous relations having attracted all great attention of the well − known English, Russian and other linguists such as:Antrushina G. B.[2], Arnold I. V.[28], Arakin V. D.[4],Jackendoff R.[43], Palmer F. R. [56], Reformatsky A. A.[21],Vinogradov V. V.[11], etc.

Theoretical value of the research: Theoretical value of the work lies in that the main results of the comparative study of the phenomena of synonymy, in particular the synonyms in Russian and English, increase and enrich scientifically − theoretical base for the further studies in the field of researches of the synonymy, as well as a whole set of problems of the semantics, typology of synonymous materials in languages.

Practical value of the research: Practical value of the research lies in that the results of the investigation can be used in giving general and special courses in English and Russian Lexicology, Comparative typological linguistics, Sociolinguistics and Theory of Nomination as well as in Practice of translation, especially of the literary texts.

Field of application: The qualification paper can be applied in teaching English and Russian synonyms at Russian schools, lyceums, colleges, and universities and may be extensively used in the theory and practice of translation.

Structure of the graduation paper: This graduation paper consists of the following sections: introduction, three chapters, conclusion and list of used literature.

The introductory part of the graduation paper is devoted to actuality of the topic, aim and tasks, practical and theoretical values, methodology, methods, and materials, field of application and structure of the graduation paper.

The first chapter of the graduation paper is called "Theory of semantics of language units and the synonymy in Modern Linguistics" gives the clear information about the theory of synonyms and their types in Modern linguistics.

The second chapter of the graduation paper –"Comparative study of synonyms in Modern English and Russian" presents a wide range of information about synonyms in the compared languages. The observation and analysis of the problems of isomorphic and allomorphic features of the synonyms in Modern English and Russian has been done in this chapter.

The third chapter of the graduation paper is called "Linguodidactic problems of teaching English synonyms at Russian schools" and this part presents useful strategies for teaching synonyms.

In the final part of the diploma work we have given conclusion on the whole theme and the list of the used literature in the graduation paper.

CHAPTER 1. THEORY OF SEMANTICS OF LANGUAGE UNITS AND THE PROBLEM OF SYNONYMY IN MODERN LINGUISTICS

1.1 Different approaches to the semantic structure of language units

Having analyzed several dissertations we have found out that semantic structure of the word the branch of the study of language concerned with the meaning of words is called *semasiology.* The name comes from the Greek *semasia* 'signification' (from *sema* 'sign' and *semantikos* 'significant'). As semasiology deals not with every kind of linguistic meaning but with lexical meaning only, it may be regarded as a branch of lexicology. This does not mean that the semasiologistneedn't pay attention to grammatical meaning. On the contrary, grammatical meaning must be taken into consideration in so far as it bears a specific influence upon lexical meaning. This influence is manifold and will be discussed at length later. At this stage it will suffice to point out that a certain basic component of the word meaning is described when one identifies the word morphologically, i. e. states to what grammatical word class it belongs. If treated diachronically, semasiology studies the change in meaning, which words undergo. Descriptive synchronic approach demands a study not of individual words but of semantic structures typical of the language studied, and of its general semantic system.

We will have noticed that two terms, "semasiology" and "semantics", have so far been used indiscriminately as if synonymous.

In fact, they are synonyms but not equally appropriate for our purpose. The first term is preferable because it is less ambiguous. The term "semantics" on the other hand, is used to cover several different meanings. It is also used to denote the phenomena studiedi. e. the meaning of words and phrases. Had this been all, it might have been tolerated, because the same double purpose is served by the terms "phonetics" and "grammar". In the case of "semantics", however, there are other meanings, not sufficiently divorced from linguistics and apt to create confusion.

These famous lines reflect one of the fundamental problems of linguistic research: what is in a name, in a word? Is there any direct connection between a

word and the object it represents? Could rose have been called by "any other name" as Juliet says? These and similar questions are answered by lexicological research. Lexicology, a branch of linguistics, is the study of words. For some people studying words may seem uninteresting. But if studied properly, it may well prove just as exciting and novel as unearthing the mysteries of Outer Space.

It is significant that many scholars have attempted to define the word as a linguistic phenomenon. Yet none of the definitions can be considered totally satisfactory in all aspects. It is equally surprising that, despite all the achievements of modern science, certain essential aspects of the nature of the word still escape us. Nor do we fully understand the phenomenon called "language", of which the word is a fundamental unit. We know nothing- or almost nothing – about the mechanism by which a speaker's mental process is converted into sound groups called " words", nor about the reverse process whereby a listener's brain converts the acoustic phenomena into concepts and ideas, thus establishing a two - way process of communication. We know very little about the nature of relations between the word and the referent (i.e. object, phenomenon, quality, action, etc. denoted by the word). If we assume that there is a direct relation between the word and the referent - which seems logical- it gives rise to another question: how should we explain the fact that the same referent is designated by quite different sound groups in different languages.

We *do* know by now - though with vague uncertainty- that there is nothing accidental about the vocabulary of the language; that each word is a small unit within a vast, efficient and perfectly balanced system. But we do not know why it possesses these qualities, nor do we know much about the processes by which it has acquired them. The list of unknowns could be extended, but it is probably high time to look at the brighter side and register some of the things we *do* know about the nature of the word. [2, 10]

First, we do know that a word is a unit of speech, which, as such, serves the purposes of human communication. Thus, the word can be defined as a unit of communication.

Secondly, the word can be perceived as the total of the sounds, which comprise it.

Third, the word, viewed structurally, possesses several characteristics.

The modern approach to word studies is based on distinguishing between the external and internal structures of the word. [2, 8]

By external structure of the word we mean its morphological structure. For example, in the word *post-impressionists* the following morphemes can be distinguished: the prefixes *post-, im-,* the root *press,* the noun- forming suffixes – *ion, -ist,* and the grammatical suffix of plurality *–s*. All these morphemes constitute the external structure of the word *post-impressionists*.[13, 35]

The internal structure of the word, or its *meaning*, is nowadays commonly referred to as the word's *semantic structure*. This is certainly the word's main aspect. Words can serve the purposes the human communication solely due to their meanings, and it is most unfortunate when this fact is ignored by some contemporary scholars who, in their obsession with the fetish of structure tend eludes mathematical analysis. And this is exactly what meaning, with its subtle variations and shifts are apt to do. [13, 35]

Conceptual semantics is a framework for semantic analysis developed mainly by Ray Jackendoff. Its aim is to provide a characterization of the conceptual elements by which a person understands words and sentences, and thus to provide *an explanatory semantic representation*. [42, 283]

Explanatory in this sense refers to the ability of a given linguistic theory to describe how a component of language is acquired by a child.

Recently, conceptual semantics in particular and <u>lexical semantics</u> in general, have taken on increasing importance in linguistics and psycholinguistics. Many contemporary theories of <u>syntax</u> (how sentences are constructed from individual words) rely on elements that are idiosyncratic to words themselves. As a result, a sound theory accounting for the properties of the meanings of words is required.

Like many semantic theories, Jackendoff claims that a decompositional method is necessary to explore conceptualization. Just as one of the ways a

physical scientist tries to understand matter is by breaking it down into progressively smaller parts, so a scientific study of conceptualization proceeds by breaking down, or decomposing, meanings into smaller parts. Clearly, however, this decomposition cannot go on forever: we must 'reach bottom' at some stage. This is the level of conceptual structure, the level of mental representations which encode the human understanding of the world, containing the primitive conceptual elements out of which meanings are built, plus their rules of combination. Just as generative syntax posits a finite set of syntactic categories and rules for combining them, so Conceptual Semantics posits 'a finite set of mental primitives and a finite set of principles of mental combination' governing their interaction.[42, 284]

Jackendoff refers to this set of primitives and the rules governing them as the 'grammar of sentential concepts'. His starting point is a close analysis of the meanings of lexemes dedicated to bringing out parallelisms and contrasts which reveal the nature of the conceptual structures underlying them. What his method shows, he says, is that the psychological organization on which meaning rests 'lies a very short distance below the surface of everyday lexical items – and that progress can be made in exploring it'. Jackendoff claims that a decompositional method is necessary to explore conceptual structure, in which the concepts underlying word meaning are broken down into their smallest elements: conceptual primitives envisaged as the semantic equivalents of phonological features. Conceptual Semantics posits 'a finite set of mental primitives and a finite set of principles of mental combination' governing their interaction. The conceptual structure of a lexical item is an element with zero or more open argument slots, which are filled by the syntactic complements of the lexical item. Jackendoff's system permits interesting connections to be made between apparently unrelated meanings, but can be criticized for the apparently somewhat arbitrary nature of the conceptual constituents it recognizes.

Semantic investigation operates at two levels: word level and sentence level. The first explores the relationships words have with each other within a language

system, their *sense* that can be defined in terms of *synonymy, antonymy, polysemy, homonymy and hyponymy.*

As we remember from Saussure's theory, since the relationship between words and their *referents* is merely symbolic – they are *signs* – each word derives a meaning not from the real world but from its existence within a *semantic field* of related signs.

At the <u>word level</u>, *Componential analysis* breaks down the meaning of a word into components. For example the components of the word *man* would be: +*human + adult + male*. Using these components semanticists build grids which define the words of a particular field according to the presence or absence of a particular component.

Of course, grammatical words such as *and, but, for* do not lend themselves to this analysis. But, above all, the components mentioned could be endlessly broken down into smaller ones. So this method can be useful as a means of classification but not as a theory of meaning.

At the <u>sentence level</u>, semanticists are mainly concerned with the *truth value* of linguistic expressions.

They frequently distinguish between *analytic* and *synthetic* truth. A synthetically true statement is true because it is an accurate representation of reality. An analytically true statement is true because it follows from the meaning relations within the sentence.

Logical semantics or *Truth conditional semantics* draws mainly on propositional logic and is interested above all in the *logical connectives* of English.

This kind of analysis implies a *correspondence* between language and reality, but some semanticists do not believe in this correspondence and argue that language *creates* reality.

1.2 Problem of synonymy of language units and its correlation to homonymy and antonymy

A characteristic feature of a vocabulary of any language is the existence of synonyms, which is closely connected with the problem of meaning of the word.

Having analyzed a great number of dissertations we can say that the problem of synonymy in Modern English is very actual nowadays. A number of modern linguists dealt with the problem of synonymy in Modern English and Russian. We can give as example such linguists as Apresyan U. D., Talalakina E. V., Barannikova T. B., Neverova T. A.

The most complicated problem is the definition of the term "synonyms". There are a great many definitions of the term, but there is no universally accepted one. Traditionally the synonyms are defined as words different in sound-form, but identical or similar in meaning. But this definition has been severely criticized on many points.

The problem of synonymy is treated differently by Russian and foreign scientists. There are a lot of other definitions, for example, I V Arnold:*"Synonyms - are two or more words of the same meaning, belonging to the same part of speech, possessing one or more identical meaning, interchangeable at least in some contexts without any considerable alteration in denotational meaning, but differing in morphemic composition, phonemic shape, shades of meaning, connotation, affective value, style, emotional coloring and valence peculiar to one of the elements in a synonymic group."*

This definition describes the notion "synonymy", gives some criteria of synonymy (identity of meaning, interchangeability), shows some difference in connotation, emotive coloring, style, etc. But this descriptive definition as well as many others has the main drawbacks - there are no objective criteria of "identity" or "similarity" or sameness of meaning. They all are based on the linguistic intuitions of the scholars.

Webster's new dictionary of synonyms discusses the concept at length and provides the following definition: *"A synonym, in this dictionary, will always*

mean one of two or more words in the English language which have the same or very nearly the same essential meaning... Synonyms, therefore, are only such words as may be defined wholly, or almost wholly, in the same terms. Usually they are distinguished from one another by an added implication or connotation, or they may differ in their idiomatic use or in their application."

In *Word Net* the following definition of the English synonymsis given: *"Synonymy, synonymity, synonymousness- the semantic relation that holds between two words that can (in a given context) express the same meaning".*

E M Dubenets gives such definition of the Russian synonyms: *"Synonyms are words different in their outer aspects, but identical or similar in their inner aspects."*

Another definition was given by Palmer in his book "Semantics": *"Synonymy is used to mean 'sameness of meaning'. It is obvious that for the dictionary – maker many sets of words have the same meaning; they are synonymous, or are synonyms of one another."*

Among numerous definitions of the term in our linguistics the most comprehensive and full one for me is suggested by professor, doctor of philology G.M.Hoshimov: *"Synonyms are language units which have the same or nearly the same meaning, but differentiating in stylistic characteristics"*

("Синонимы – это языковые единицы, которые близки или одинаковы по значению, но различающиеся по стилистическим характеристикам")

Synonyms, therefore, are only such words as may be defined wholly or almost wholly in the same terms. Usually, they are distinguished from one another by an added implication or connotation, or may differ in their idiomatic use or in their implication. They usually are interchangeable within limits, but interchangeability is not the final test, since idiomatic usage is often a preventive of that. The only satisfactory test of synonyms is their agreement in connotation.

There are about 8000 synonymic groups in English. A synonymic group is a group of all synonyms (chief – principal – main – important). In a synonymic

group we can see "synonymic dominant", mostly general, neutral word, usually belonging to the basic stock of words.

The Synonymic Dominant

Each synonymic group has a dominant element. The synonymic dominant is the most general term potentially containing the specific features rendered by all other members of the group:

1) to look - to stare - to gaze - to glance - to peep;

2) to leave - to depart - to retire - to clear out;

3) to ask - to inquire - to question - to interrogate.

The synonymic dominant is characterized by the following features:

- high frequency of usage;

- broad combinability, i.e. ability to be used in combinations with various classes of words;

- broad general meaning;

- lack of connotations.

The synonymic dominant should not be confused with a generic term. It is relative and serves as the name for the notion of the genus as distinguished from the names of the kinds, e.g.: the *-word furniture* is a generic term for a table, a chair, a stool, a bookcase, a wardrobe, etc.

Synonymic Patterns

The English word-stock is extremely rich in synonyms, which can be largely accounted for by abundant borrowing. The synonymic resources of a language tend to form certain characteristic and fairly consistent patterns. Synonyms in English are organized according to 2 basic principles. One of them involves double, the other a triple scale. In English there are countless pairs of synonyms where a native term is opposed to one borrowed from French, Latin, and Greek. In most cases the native word is more spontaneous, more informal and unpretentious whereas the foreign one often has a learned, abstract air. They may also have emotive differences: the Saxon word is apt to be wanner and homelier than its foreign

counterpart. The native words are usually colloquial. We quote a few examples of synonymic patterns double scale.

Adjectives: bodily - corporal, brotherly - fraternal, heavenly - celestial, inner - internal, learned - erudite, sharp - acute.

Nouns: fiddle - violin, friendship - amity, help - aid, wire - telegram, world universe.

Verbs: answer - reply, read - peruse, buy - purchase.

Side-by-side with this main pattern there exists in English a pattern based on a triple scale of synonyms:

Native	From French	From Latin
to ask	to question	to interrogate
belly	stomach	abdomen
to end	finish	complete
to gather	to assemble	collect
to rise	to mount	to ascent
teaching	guidance	instruction

The infiltration of British English by Americanisms also results in the formation of synonyms pairs, one being a traditional Briticism and the other - a new American loan: Leader - editorial; autumn - fall; government - administration; luggage - baggage; wireless -radio; lorry - truck; tin - can; long distance (telephone) call - trunk call; stone - rock; team -squad.

As a rule the Americanisms have a lower frequency index than the British counterparts. Thus, tin is more common than can, team - than squad. But luggage - baggage, lorry - truck, leader -editorial are used sometimes interchangeably.

In a few cases the American synonym has a higher frequency than its British counterpart as in the pair: commuter - a season ticket holder (Br.). Very often 2 synonyms differ stylistically. Br. Synonym is stylistically neutral while the Americanism is stylistically marked (usually as colloquial or slang): intellectual - egghead excuse - alibi angry - mad averse - allergic.

English also used many pairs of synonymous derivatives, the one Hellenic and the other Romance: hypotheses - supposition periphery - circumference sympathy - compassion synthesis - composition.

The asymmetric dualism of linguistic sign

Karsevskiy's notion of the dual asymmetry of the linguistic sign has its roots in romantic philosophy and philology and is the basis for Hegel's definition of a symbol as an essentially ambiguous sign. According to Hegel, the form of symbol contains its meaning within it, but the same time the form is not fully adequate to that meaning. Humboldt's treatment of language as energeia is also linked to the Karsevskiy's dual asymmetry. Energeia is a creative language process in which speech sounds are continually matched to ideas in a new fashion. The notion of Humboldt's influenced a great many nineteenth-century linguists (Potebnja in Russian, Martin in Prague) who sought to isolate the elusive category of the "inner form of language" which created the linkage between sound and meaning.

Unlike his predecessors, who tried to explain language change through the human psyche, Karsevskiy focused his attention on the semiotic preconditions of this process. All the dialectic antinomies pervading language that destabilizes its sign-general/individual, systemic/accidental, abstract/concrete, logical/psychological – Karsevskiy considered merely the implementations of a fundamental semiotic antinomy between homonymity and synonymity. It'sthis homonymic/synonymic extention of the linguistic sign-unique in each case-that causes it's continuous slippage between the poles on the above antinomies and renders language such a versatile tool of thought and communication.

One might resort to the following scheme to illustrate asymmetric character of the sign:
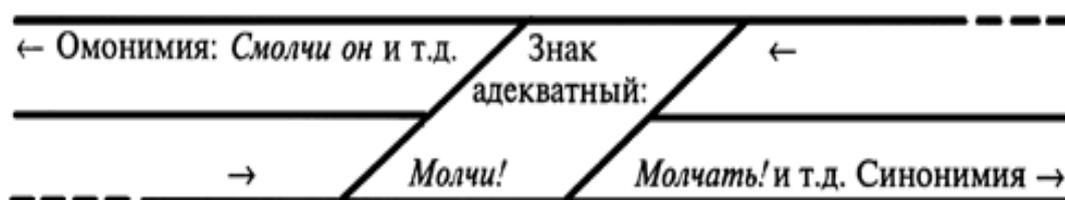
The signifier (sound) and the signified (function) slide continually on the "slope of reality". Each "overflowes" the boundaries assigned to it by the other: the signifier tries to have functions other than its own; the signified tries to be expressed by means other than its sign. They are asymmetrical; coupled, they exist in a state of unstable equilibrium. It is because of this asymmetric dualism in the structure of its sign that a linguistic system can evolve: the adequate position of sign is continually displaced as a result of its adaptation to the exigencies of the concrete situation. [16, 85]

The correlation between synonymy, antonymy and homonymy we can understand by this scheme:
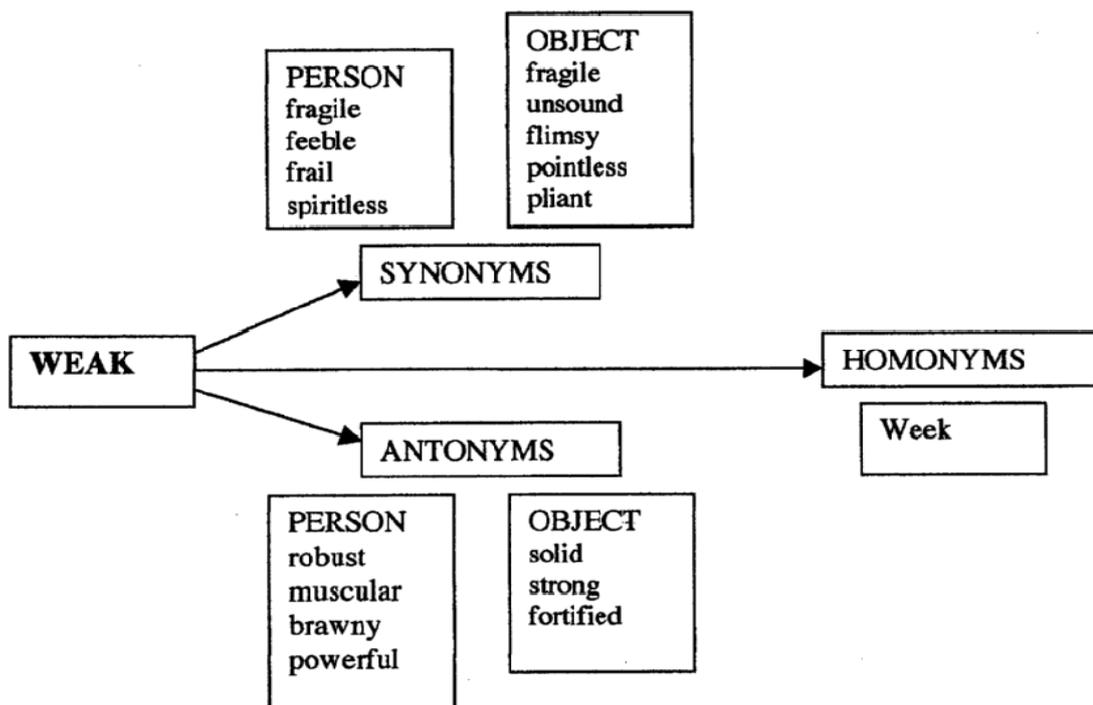
Problem of classification of synonyms

There are several classification systems for synonyms which were established by different scientists, such as: Academician V.V Vinogradov, the famous Russian scholar or Russian philologist A.I. Smirnitsky. In Vinogradov's classification system there are three types of synonyms: ideographic (which he defined as words conveying the same concept but differing in shades of meaning), stylistic (differing in stylistic characteristics) and absolute (coinciding in all their shades of meaning and in all their stylistic characteristics).

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

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

There seems to be right no rigid demarcation line between synonyms differing in their shades of meaning and in stylistic characteristics. There are numerous synonyms which are distinguished by both shades of meaning and stylistic coloring. Therefore, even the subdivision of synonyms into ideographic and stylistic is open question.

According to the criterion of interchangeability in context synonyms are classified into total, relative and contextual.

Total synonyms are those members of synonymic group which can replace each other in any given context, without the slightest alteration in denoting meaning or emotional meaning and connotation. They are very rare. Examples can be found mostly in special literature among technical terms and others:

Fatherland - motherland;

Suslik - gopher;

Noun - substantive;

Functional affix - flection, inflection;

Scarlet fever - scarlatina.

Cruse claims that a scale of synonymity can be established. The scale which he has set up consists of absolute synonymy, cognitive synonymy and near-synonymy. For Cruse, synonyms are "certain pairs of groups of lexical items" that "bear a special sort of semantic resemblance to one another". At the same time, Cruse suggests that some synonyms are more synonymous than the other: settee

and sofa are more synonymous than die and kick the bucket. It leads him to establish a scale of synonymy.[35,265]

At one end of his scale of synonymy there is absolute synonymy which means practically the same thing to Cruse as to Lyons: "two lexical units would be absolute synonyms (i.e. would have identical meanings) if and only if all their contextual relations were identical". But Cruse doubts the existence of absolute synonyms. He says that "natural languages abhor absolute synonyms just as nature abhors vacuum". [36, 270]

At the opposite end of the scale, there is zero synonymy, which undoubtedly exists in languages of the world but it is not a coherent concept, and not interesting either. What comes in between the both ends is more interesting. Another stage after absolute synonymy is cognitive synonymy. It occurs when the synonyms substituted in a sentence preserve the truth-conditions of the sentence. The cognitive synonyms typically differ in their expressive meanings. For Cruse, fiddle and violin are cognitive synonyms. Foggy and misty belong to another type of synonymy. Cruse calls them **plesionyms** because they yield sentences with distinct truth-conditions. This theory closely resembles Lyons's view on synonymy, but Cruse attempted to define his types more rigorously.

As there are no two lexemes with absolutely the same meaning and no real synonyms, cognitive synonymy is what most semanticists would regard as synonymy. Lyons claims that many theories of semantics would restrict the notion of synonymy to what he calls descriptive or cognitive synonymy, which is the identity of descriptive meaning. [49, 63]

Near-synonyms are lexemes whose meaning is relatively close or more or less similar (mist/fog, stream/brook, dive/plunge). However, the given definition of near-synonymy is vague, because there isn't a precise correlation between synonymy and semantic similarity. Near-synonymy is associated with overlapping of meaning and senses. The senses of near-synonyms overlap to a great degree, but not completely. [52,155]

Moreover, unlike cognitive synonyms, near-synonyms can contrast in certain contexts: He was killed, but I can assure you he was NOT murdered, madam. [36, 159]

Near-synonymy is regularly found in dictionaries of synonyms or thesauri where most of the terms listed under a single dictionary entry are not considered to be cognitive synonyms (e.g. govern - direct, control, determine, require).

The scale presented by Cruse is the most general. There also are other views. Lyons claims that there are absolute synonymy, complete synonymy, descriptive synonymy and near-synonymy. According to him, complete synonyms have identical descriptive, expressive and social meaning in the range of the given contexts. [48,148]

Since most lexemes are polysemous (have different senses in different contexts), Murphy introduces logical synonyms (which include full synonyms and sense synonyms) and near-synonyms. Denotationally equivalent words whose all senses are identical (toilet/john) are called full synonyms, whereas sense synonyms share one or more senses, but differ in others, i.e. they have at least one identical sense (sofa/couch). Near-synonyms, as words with similar senses, are context-dependent. Cognitive synonyms are arguably what Murphy regards as sense synonyms. [52,146]

Cruse draws the conclusion that the border between cognitive synonymy and near-synonymy is in principle clear, even though difficult cases may arise, but it is much harder to draw a distinction between near-synonymy and non-synonymy. There are two possible solutions. Firstly, since speakers of a language can judge synonymy as language users, they should intuitively know whether or not certain lexemes are synonymous. Secondly, in order to consider lexemes as synonymous, they shouldn't stand in contrast with one another, i.e. it is necessary for the level of their contrastiveness to be explicitly low. [36,159]

Some authors class groups like ask - beg - implore, or like - love - adore, gift - talent - genius, famous - celebrate - eminent as relative synonyms, as they denote different degree of the same notion or different degree of the same notion or

different shades of meanings and can be substituted only in some contexts. Contextual or context-dependent synonyms are similar in meaning only under some specific distributional conditions. It may happen that the difference between the meanings of two words is contextually neutralized, e.g. buy and get would not generally be taken as synonymous, but they are synonyms in the following examples: I'll go to the shop and buy some bread. I'll go to the shop and get some bread.

The verbs bear, suffer, stand are *semantically* different and not interchangeable except when used in the negative form: I can't stand it, I can't bear it. According to weather the difference is in denotational or connotational component synonyms are classified into ideographic and stylistic.

Ideographic synonyms denote different shades of meaning or different degrees of a giving quality. They are nearly identical in one or more denotational meanings and interchangeable at least in some contexts, e.g. beautiful - fine - handsome - pretty. Beautiful conveys, for instance, the strongest meaning; it marks the possession of that quality in its fullest extent, while the other terms denote the possession of it in part only. Fineness, handsomeness and prettiness are to beauty as parts to a whole.

We have already commented on some of the causes of the appearance of synonyms. Among them the logical reasons of the development of language as a means of human intercourse, the development of abstract thinking, of a finer differentiation between various sides of one and the same concept should be considered predominant. Any extra touch of emotional coloring may create a synonym. The change in words is often a change in style and the effect is quite different.

CHAPTER 2. COMPARATIVE STUDY OF SYNONYMS IN MODERN ENGLISH AND RUSSIAN

2.1 Comparative study of the synonymy of lexical units in Modern English and Russian (structural classification)

Synonymy is the relation that holds between bound morphemes, lexemes, lexical units, phrases, clauses, sentences and propositions. Thus, synonymy can be classified either into lexical and propositional synonymy.

In both languages lexical synonyms have to do with bound morphemes, lexemes, lexical units and phrases in both languages. Lexical synonymy is a sense relation that holds between two or more lexical units with the same sense in the given contexts in which they are interchangeable. For example: *finish – to complete – to conclude;* in Russian: *завершать–заканчивать–кончать*

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

Having analyzed a great number of dissertations, the central conclusion we reached is that there are not full amount of works in English where we can find such a concept as structural classification of synonyms. But in Russian we have structural classification of synonyms. Structurally synonyms are divided into:

a) monoroot synonyms (general root and different affixes):*ругать, обругать, выругать; мыслить, думать, размышлять, раздумывать, помышлять.*

b) polyroot synonyms : *парадный, пышный, помпезный, торжественный; красивый, обаятельный, очаровательный, неотразимый.*

The modern approach to word studies is based on distinguishing between the external and internal structures of the word.

The internal structure of the word, or its *meaning*, is nowadays commonly referred to as the word's *semantic structure*. This is certainly the word's main

aspect. Words can serve the purposes the human communication solely due to their meanings, and it is most unfortunate when this fact is ignored by some contemporary scholars who, in their obsession with the fetish of structure tend eludes mathematical analysis. And this is exactly what meaning, with its subtle variations and shifts is apt to do.

By external structure of the word we mean its morphological structure. For example, in the word *post-impressionists* the following morphemes can be distinguished: the prefixes *post-, im-,* the root *press,* the noun- forming suffixes –*ion, -ist,* and the grammatical suffix of plurality –*s*. All these morphemes constitute the external structure of the word *post-impressionists*.

In English and Russian the word can be:

- simple

- derivative

- composite

On such classification we can give the following structural classification of synonyms in English and Russian:

English		Russian	
Control	1. Arrest	**Контроль**	1.задержание
	2. Check		2.проверка
	3. Circumscribe		3.ограничивать
	4. Confine		4.граница
	5. Constrain		5.заставлять
	6. Curb		6.сдержание
	7. Detain		7.арестовать
	8. Gag		8.затычка
	9. Govern		9.править
	10. Hinder		10.---

	11. Impede		11.мешать
	12. Inhibit		12.---
	13. Limit		13.предел
	14. Measure		14.мера
	15. Obstruct		15.заграждать
	16. Quell		16. контролирование
	17. Regulate		17.регулировать
	18. Restrain		18.сдерживать
	19. Restrict		19.ограничивать
	20. Rule		20.править
	21. Stop		21.задержка
	22.Supervision		22.наблюдение
	23. Tame		23.приручать
	24.Inspection		24.инспектирование
Old	1. Aged	**Старый**	1.пожилой
	2. Aging		2.старение
	3. Ancient		3.древний
	4. Anile		4.старушечий
	5. Archaic		5.архаичный
	6. Decrepit		6.дряхлый
	7. Long-lived		7.долголетний

	8. Medieval		8.средневековый
	9. Overage		9.устарелый
	10.Prehistoric		10.древний
	11.Retro		11.ретро
	12. Rusty		12.ржавый
	13. Senescent		13.застарелый
	14. Senile		14.старческий
	15. Senior		15.старший
	16. Superannuated		16. престарелый
	17. Tottery		17. потрепанный
	18.Obsolete		18.отживший
	19.Battered		19.потрепанный
	20.Staled		20.зачерствелый
Leader	1. Administrator	**Лидер**	1. администратор
	2. Archon		2.архонт
	3. Autocrat		3.деспот
	4. Boss		4.шеф
	5. Captain		5.капитан
	6. Coach		6.тренер
	7. Chairman		7.председатель
	8. Chief		8.правитель
	9. Chieftain		9.вождь

10. Commandant		10.командир
11. Commander		11. начальник
12. Commanding officer		12.военноначальник
13. Commissioner		13.комиссар
14. Conductor		14.кондуктор
15. Dean		15.декан
16. Demagogue		16.демагог
17. Director		17.директор
18. Dictator		18.диктатор
19. Doyen		19.старейшина
20. Figurehead		20.глава
21. General		21.полководец
22. Generalissimo		22.генералиссимус
23. Governor		23.управленец
24. Guide		24.гид
25. Headman		25.руководитель
26. Manager		26.менеджер
27. Master		27.хозяин
28. Mentor		28.наставник
29. Minister		29.министер
30. Moderator		30. арбитр
31. Officer		31. офицер

	32. Potentate		32.властелин
	33. President		33.президент
	34. Principal		34.патрон
	35. Prolocutor		35.председатель
	36. Rector		36.ректор
	37. Ringleader		37.главарь
	38. Ruler		38.владыка
	39. Shepherd		39.пастух
	40. Skipper		40.шкипер
	41. Spearhead		41.---
	42. Standard-bearer		42.знаменосец
	43. Superintendent		43.глава
	44. Supervisor		44.надзиратель
	45. Tyrant		45.тиран
	46. Conductor		46.дирижер
Different	1. Alternate	**Различный**	1.вариант
	2. Alternative		2.альтернатива
	3. Assorted		3.разнородный
	4. Differing		4.отличающийся
	5. Discernible		5.различимый
	6. Discrete		6.---
	7. Disparate		7.другой

	8. Dissimilar		8.различающиеся
	9. Distant		9.дальний
	10. Distinct		10.отдельный
	11. Divergent		11.расходящийся
	12. Divers		12.разный
	13. Diverse		13.неодинаковый
	14. Eclectic		14.электичный
	15. Heterogeneous		15.неодродный
	16. Idiosyncratic		16.разнотипный
	17. Indiscriminate		17.разноликий
	18. Individual		18.индивудуальный
	19. Manifold		19.разнообразный
	20. Miscellaneous		20.смешанный
	21. Mixed		21.перемешанный
	22. Motley		22.разноцветный
	23. Multifarious		23.разный
	24. Particular		24.специфический
	25. Peculiar		25.необычный
	26. Piebald		26.различествующий
	27. Promiscuous		27.всякий
	28. Separate		28.отдельный
	29. Variant		29.вариант

	30. Varied		30.разнообразный
Old-Fashioned	1. Antiquated	**Старо модный**	1.несовременный
	2. Dated		2.устарелый
	3. Démodé		3.допотопный
	4. Demoded		4.устарелый
	5. Elderly		5.устаревший
	6. Fossilized		6.отживший
	7. Geriatric		7.гериатрический
	8. Kaput		8.уничтоженный
	9. Neolithic		9.неолитический
	10. Obsolete		10.---
	11. Outmoded		11.---
	12. Outworn		12.изношенный
	13. Quaint		13. чудной
	14. Retrograde		14. ---
Freedom-loving	1.Fond of liberty	**Свободолю бивый**	1.вольнолюбивый

To sum up we want to say that English is very rich in synonyms. Various reasons account for that. Borrowings from various languages account for a great number of cases, for one thing. Also this section was concerned with lexical synonyms. It is focused on lexemes and lexical units.

In the next section we will write about syntactic units of synonyms in Modern English and Russian.

2.1 Comparative study of the synonymy of syntactic units in Modern English and Russian (semantic classification)

Having analyzed several works we came to such a conclusion that both languages have syntactic synonyms. And they are generally identified on the basis of three main criteria:

1) similarity or identity of meaning

2) formal characteristics

3) functional interchangeability of synonyms

Similarity of meaning:

■   initial definitions focused on grammatical meaning

☐   grammatical synonyms - forms "showing full grammatical parallelism and differing only in the elements expressing the given grammatical meaning"

■   denotational meaning

☐   "homogeneous relations and connections of real-life phenomena"

☐   conceptual similarity of sentences and their parts; this depends on the degree to which certain extra linguistic events can serve as indicators of time, cause, condition, etc. of other events and situations.

Complex relationships that extra linguistic phenomena establish are reflected by complex signification.

The meaning of syntactic structures - defined in terms of a 'proposition' and its structural-semantic organization as explained on the basis of predicate-argument approach, each argument characterized by a semantic role in relation to the predicate.

The notion of synonymy in the language is derived from lexicology, where this linguistic phenomenon was studied in detail. However, recently this term has been used in phonetics, grammar and syntax. Though, the term *syntactic synonymy* was accepted in linguistic literature, it is interpreted differently.

The investigations were made in the works of such scholars as E.I. Shendels, E.M. Galkina,Fedoruk, G.I. Richter, A.I. Gvozde, I.M. Kovtunova, V.P. Suchotin, V.N. Yartseva and others. Summing up the definitions and view points, it is reasonable to agree with the definition of I.M. Zhilin:*"Syntactic synonyms are the models of such syntactic constructions (sentences, constructions, word-combinations), which have identical or close semantic meaning, possess adequate grammatical meaning, express similar syntactic relations, and are able in certain conditions of the text to replace each other".* [37, 68-69]

Syntactic constructions:

■   active and passive constructions if the same arguments are present

1. "Who was it that invented religion, and sin and all that? And why?"

John laughed. "It was invented by Adam" he said…

Adam invented it...

Active construction with the subject expressed by an indefinite pronoun (they, you, one) and thecorresponding passive construction without a prepositional object.

2. "They tell me there's a man called Freud, an Austrian I believe-"

I'm told there's a man....

3. One never does anything if one does not try.

Nothing is ever done…

4. If you wake a man up, he can't go to sleep again because he is told to.

If a man is woken, he can't go to sleep again because he is told to/ because you tell him to.

Active and passive constructions cannot be considered synonymous if the agent is lost in the passive however clearly it may be identified in the immediate linguistic context.

5. "I tried to tell them, and my father gave me my first thrashing for telling lies... Then everyone was forbidden to listen to me… My father belonged to the old school."

■ sentences with and without introducers *it* and *there*

6. There is a good film on tonight.

   A good film is on tonight.

7. It's her damned virtue that caused the whole trouble.

Her damned virtue caused the whole trouble.

'it + to be + noun + relative clause' it introduces direct or indirect object, adverbials of time, place, etc

Complex or compound sentences and corresponding to simple sentences containing nominalized propositional constructions.

The relationship of synonymy holds between complex sentences and simple sentences containing non-finite clauses on the grounds that they both:

☐ have polipropositional structure as they refer to (nominate) two or more extra linguistic events;

☐ convey temporal, causal, conditional, etc. relations between the events of objective reality;

☐ may be considered as syntactic variants of the same semantic invariant. Simple sentences containing non-finite clauses can be viewed as a marked member of the opposition whereas complex (or compound) sentence is unmarked.

Synonymy of polipropositional constructions:

1. A simple sentence with direct word order and similar sentence with an inverted subject (infinitive or gerund) replaced by expletive *it:*

8. Refusing invitations is not always easy.

   It is not always easy to refuse invitations

2. Complex sentence with a subjective clause and a simple sentence when its subject is expressed by gerundial phrase, accusative + infinitive or accusative + participle

9. His coming here is really desirable.

   It is really desirable that he (should) come.

3. Complex sentence with an objective subordinate clause and simple sentence when its object is expressed by expanded form of infinitive or gerund, for-to infinitive, gerundial phrase, accusative + infinitive or accusative + participle

10. I felt somebody touch my shoulder.

I felt that somebody had touched/was touching my shoulder.

4. Complex sentence with a relative (attributive) clause and a simple sentence when its attribute is expressed by infinitive (after the words *thefirst, the last, the only*, etc and some superlatives), of + gerund or the participle, often postpositional

11. The captain was the last man to leave the ship.

The captain was the last man who left the ship.

5. Complex sentence with an adverbial subordinate clause and a simple sentence when its adverbial modifier is expressed by infinitive or for-to infinitive construction, gerund or its expanded form, present or past participle, absolute participle construction

12. I had to bite my lips in order not to laugh.

I had to bite my lips so that I wouldn't laugh.

6. Main clause of a complex sentence or one of the clauses of a compound sentence is synonymous with a participle functioning as an adverbial modifier of a simple sentence

13. Opening the drawer he took out a revolver.

He opened the drawer and took out a revolver.

■   synonymy between simple sentences with direct and inverted word order

☐   Inversion may be caused by adverbs and prepositional phrases

14. Along this cool avenue my girlfriend led me.

My girlfriend led me along this cool avenue.

☐   inversion of the subject when the sentence initial position is taken by predicate, object, participle construction, part of the compound nominal predicate

15. Playmates I found there...

I found playmates there

Semantic classification of synonyms

Semantic classification of synonyms in English and Russian: *ideographic* (which he defined as words conveying the same concept but differing in shades of meaning), *stylistic* (differing in stylistic characteristics) and *absolute* (coinciding in all their shades of meaning and in all their stylistic characteristics).However, we think that the following aspects of classification system of synonyms in English and Russian are open to question. Firstly, absolute synonyms are rare in the vocabulary and, on the diachronic level; as to professor G. M.Hoshimov:"the phenomenon of absolute synonymy is anomalous and the vocabulary system invariably tends to abolish it either by rejecting one of the absolute synonyms or by developing differentiation characteristics in one or both (or all) of them". Therefore, it does not seem necessary to include absolute synonyms, which are a temporary exception, in the system of classification. The vagueness of the term "shades of meaning" has already been mentioned. Furthermore there seems to be no rigid demarcation line between synonyms differing in their shades of meaning and in stylistic characteristics, as will be shown later on. There are numerous synonyms which are distinguished by both shades of meaning and stylistic colouring. Therefore, even the subdivision of synonyms into ideographic and stylistic is open to question. A more modern and a more effective approach to the classification of synonyms may be based on the definition describing synonyms as words differing in connotations. It seems convenient to classify connotations by which synonyms differ rather than synonyms themselves. It opens up possibilities for tracing much subtler distinctive features within their semantic structures.

In English **ideographic synonyms** are words conveying the same notion but differing in shades of meaning or emotions expressed: *a piece – a lump - a slice; to tremble - to shiver - to shudder; anger –malice- fury; to like- to admire - to love.*

In Russian we have the same **ideographic (semantic) synonyms** which differentiate in shades of meaning: *кусок–ком–ломтик;дрожать–трепетать - вздрагивать;гнев–злость - ярость;нравиться–восхищаться–любить.*

In English **stylistic synonyms** are words conveying the same notion but different in stylistic characteristics: *sky - heaven (poetic);to see - to behold (archaic);horse - steed (poetic);to try - to endeavour (bookish).*

In Russian **stylistic synonyms** are words which have different stylistic characteristics but denote one and the same phenomenon of reality: *небо–небеса (поэтическое); видеть–заметить (устаревшее);лошадь–конь (поэтическое);стараться–пытаться (книжное).*

Stylistic coloring may also be accompanied by a difference in emotional coloring or some other shades of meaning: *angry (neutral), furious (colloquial), enraged (vernacular).* Such synonyms in English we called **ideographic-stylistic**.

In Russian we also have synonyms which differentiate in lexical meaning and stylistic coloring. They are called **ideographic-stylistic**: *сердитый (нейтральное), бешенный (разговорное, то есть сердиться в значительной степени), злой (просторечие, сердиться незначительно).*

In English **contextual synonyms** are similar in meaning only under some specific distributional conditions. Thus, the words *bear, stand, and suffer* are synonyms only when used in the negative form: *Ican't stand it - I can't suffer it –I can't bear it.* Otherwise, all these verbs are semantically different.

In Russian **contextual synonyms** are words which similar in meaning only in certain context but beyond this context they are not synonyms. Contextual synonyms are not name the fact but characterized it. For example in Russian the verb*переносить* is rich in contextual synonyms when used in the negative form: *Я не переношу его. Я терпеть не могу его.*

Thus, having analyzed these excerpts, we can make such a conclusion.

There are a lot of factors, which influence the choice of words and constructions for expression that or another idea, such as: the degree of formality of the situation, the age and the status (social and national) of the speaker and his interlocutor, the setting and time of the conversation, belonging to some specific group (political, religious etc.) and others. Without doubt, they should be always taken into consideration. A writer creating his work is being in the condition of

constant word-selection to make the story readable and interesting. We also should learn to use the most appropriate words in each context in order to be acceptable, unsuspicious, flexible, and interesting people.

2.3 Isomorphic and allomorphic features of the synonymous language units in Modern English and Russian

Before starting this section we should inquire about these two concepts: isomorphism and allomorphism.

Allomorphism has the disjoining or, strictly speaking, classifying basis while isomorphism in typology is performed by the uniting principle. R.Yakobson fairly noted that isomorphism may unite various states of one and the same language or two states of two different languages irrespective of their relationship.

The comparative analysis shows that the units of the two different languages, united into the subsystems, differ in many aspects and terms, but at the same time they may carry more or less features common to both languages. For typology it is very important to establish likenesses or similarities of the systems of the different volume and scale. These similarities or the parallelism of separate links of the language structure, of the constituents of separate micro and macrostructures is called ***isomorphism***. E. Makayev defines isomorphism as "the uniformity of the structure of the constitutive language units on the different levels, in the consequence of which the relations between these units are also uniformed." Isomorphism is always opposed by allomorphism that testifies the diversification of the structure of the language units.

Although the English and Russian languages belong to the same Indo-European language family, they differ in their structure. English is analytical language with the synthetic system while Russian is inflective. Comparing them we have established some dissimilarities, more differences than similarities, indeed. We have shown them in the following table:

Isomorphic features of synonyms in Modern English and Russian:

English	Russian
The existence of semantic classification	The existence of semantic classification

ideographic synonyms: *a piece – a lump - a slice*	ideographic synonyms:*кусок–ком–ломтик*
stylistic synonyms: *sky - heaven (poetic)*	Stylistic synonyms:*небо – небеса (поэтическое)*
ideographic-stylistic :*angry (neutral), furious (colloquial), enraged (vernacular)*	ideographic-stylistic: *сердиться (нейтральное), злиться (разговорное, то есть сердиться в значительной степени), беситься (разговорное, сердиться в очень сильной степени)*
contextual synonyms: the words *bear, stand, and suffer* are synonyms only when used in the negative form: *I can't stand it –I can't suffer it –I can't bear it*.	Contextual synonyms: *Я не переношу его. Я терпеть не могу его.*
The existence of lexical synonyms: *to finish – to complete – to conclude*	The existence of lexical synonyms: *завершать–заканчивать - кончать*
The existence of syntactic synonyms: I came here in order to study. I came here so that to study.	The existence of syntactic synonyms: Я пришел сюда, чтобы учиться. Я пришел сюда для того, чтобы учиться.

There are several allomorphic features of synonyms in Modern English and Russian. As example we can take such dissimilarities as an absence of structural classification of synonyms in Modern English, but in Russian we have such classification: monoroot synonyms (однокоренные) and polyroot synonyms (разнокоренные).

So, taking into account all information mentioned above, we have come to such a conclusion that English is very rich in synonyms. Various reasons account

for that. Borrowings from various languages account for a great number of cases, for one thing. And in the next chapter we will write about methodical recommendations for teaching English synonyms at Russian schools and system of exercises for teaching English synonyms   at Russian schools.

CHAPTER 3. LINGUODIDACTIC PROBLEMS OF TEACHING ENGLISH SYNONYMS AT RUSSIAN SCHOOLS

3.1 Methodical recommendations for teaching English synonyms at Russian schools

Foreign language method comprises the study of and the search for adequate answers to questions concerning the aims, the subject matter, and the methods of instructions in foreign languages. These objects are closely interrelated.

The subject –matter and the methods are conditioned by the aims. For example, in pedagogical institutes different selections of subject matter are used in teaching a foreign language to students of the foreign language faculty-prospective foreign language teachers and to students of all the other faculties whose chief aim is proficiency in reading and understanding special text in the foreign languages, although attention is also paid to speech.

The aims of foreign language teaching are three fold: practical, educational, and cultural.

Its practical aims are consequent on the basic function of language, which is, to serve as a means of communication.

The educational aims of foreign language teaching in schools consist in inculcating on the children through instruction in the foreign language the principles of communication.

A widening of philological outlook of children will result from the unconscious and conscious comparison of the foreign with the native language.

In the early stages comparing the two languages should be discouraged, seeing that before habits of spontaneous use of the foreign language have been formed it may, and if extensively resorted to inevitably will, promote the interference of the native language and the formation of habits of literal translation from the native into the foreign tongue.

But as pupils gain a better command of the language they will begin to understand that every language has its peculiarities, its specific features often taking the form of turns of expression untranslatable literary into other languages.

Communicative approach

The communicative approach is based on the idea that learning language successfully comes through having to communicate real meaning. When learners are involved in real communication, their natural strategies for language acquisition will be used, and this will allow them to learn to use the language.

Example

Practicing question forms by asking learners to find out personal information about their colleagues is an example of the communicative approach, as it involves meaningful communication.

In the classroom

Classroom activities guided by the communicative approach are characterized by trying to produce meaningful and real communication, at all levels. As a result there may be more emphasis on skills than systems, lessons are more learner-centered, and there may be use of authentic materials.

What is communicative language teaching?

Communicative language teaching makes use of real-life situations that necessitate communication. The teacher sets up a situation that students are likely to encounter in real life. Unlike the audio-lingual method of language teaching, which relies on repetition and drills, the communicative approach can leave students in suspense as to the outcome of a class exercise, which will vary according to their reactions and responses. The real-life simulations change from day to day. Students' motivation to learn comes from their desire to communicate in meaningful ways about meaningful topics.

Margie S. Berns, an expert in the field of communicative language teaching, writes in explaining Firth's view that "language is interaction; it is interpersonal activity and has a clear relationship with society. In this light, language study has to look at the use (function) of language in context, both its linguistic context (what

is uttered before and after a given piece of discourse) and its social, or situational, context (who is speaking, what their social roles are, why they have come together to speak)" [28,5]

Where does communicative language teaching come from?

Its origins are many, insofar as one teaching methodology tends to influence the next. The communicative approach could be said to be the product of educators and linguists who had grown dissatisfied with the audio-lingual and grammar-translation methods of foreign language instruction.

They felt that students were not learning enough realistic, whole language. They did not know how to communicate using appropriate social language, gestures, or expressions; in brief, they were at a loss to communicate in the culture of the language studied. Interest in and development of communicative-style teaching mushroomed in the 1970s; authentic language use and classroom exchanges where students engaged in real communication with one another became quite popular.

In the intervening years, the communicative approach has been adapted to the elementary, middle, secondary, and post-secondary levels, and the underlying philosophy has spawned different teaching methods known under a variety of names, including notional-functional, teaching for proficiency, proficiency-based instruction, and communicative language teaching.

What are some examples of communicative exercises?

In a communicative classroom for beginners, the teacher might begin by passing out cards, each with a different name printed on it. The teacher then proceeds to model an exchange of introductions in the target language. Using a combination of the target language and gestures, the teacher conveys the task at hand, and gets the students to introduce themselves and ask their classmates for information. They are responding in Russian to a question in Russian. They do not know the answers beforehand, as they are each holding cards with their new identities written on them; hence, there is an authentic exchange of information.

Later during the class, as a reinforcement listening exercise, the students might hear a recorded exchange between two Russian freshmen meeting each other for the first time at the gymnasium doors. Then the teacher might explain, in English, the differences among Russian greetings in various social situations. Finally, the teacher will explain some of the grammar points and structures used.

The following exercise is taken from a 1987 workshop on communicative foreign language teaching, given for Delaware language teachers by Karen Willets and Lynn Thompson of the Center for Applied Linguistics. The exercise, called "Eavesdropping," is aimed at advanced students.

"Instructions to students" Listen to a conversation somewhere in a public place and be prepared to answer, in the target language, some general questions about what was said.

1. Who was talking?

2. About how old were they?

3. Where were they when you eavesdropped?

4. What were they talking about?

5. What did they say?

6. Did they become aware that you were listening to them?

The exercise puts students in a real-world listening situation where they must report information overheard. Most likely they have an opinion of the topic, and a class discussion could follow, in the target language, about their experiences and viewpoints.

Communicative exercises such as this motivate the students by treating topics of their choice, at an appropriately challenging level.

Gunter Gerngross, an English teacher in Austria, gives an example of how he makes his lessons more communicative. He cites a widely used textbook that shows English children having a pet show. "Even when learners act out this scene creatively and enthusiastically, they do not reach the depth of involvement that is almost tangible when they act out a short text that presents a family conflict

revolving round the question of whether the children should be allowed to have a pet or not" [38,92]

He continues to say that the communicative approach "puts great emphasis on listening, which implies an active will to try to understand others. [This is] one of the hardest tasks to achieve because the children are used to listening to the teacher but not to their peers. There are no quick, set recipes. That the teacher be a patient listener is the basic requirement" [38, 98]

The observation by Gerngross on the role of the teacher as one of listener rather than speaker brings up several points to be discussed in the next portion of this digest.

How do the roles of the teacher and students change in communicative language teaching?

Teachers in communicative classrooms will find themselves talking less and listening more--becoming active facilitators of their students' learning [46,76]. The teacher sets up the exercise, but because the students' performance is the goal, the teacher must step back and observe, sometimes acting as referee or monitor. A classroom during a communicative activity is far from quiet, however. The students do most of the speaking, and frequently the scene of a classroom during a communicative exercise is active, with students leaving their seats to complete a task.

Because of the increased responsibility to participate, students may find they gain confidence in using the target language in general. Students are more responsible managers of their own learning [46, 76].

What is Interactive teaching?

The first thing to realize about interactive teaching is that it is not something new or mysterious. If a teacher asks questions in class, assign and check homework, or hold class or group discussions, then teacher already teaches interactively. Basically then, interactive teaching is just giving students something to do, getting back what they have done, and then assimilating it yourself, so that teacher can decide what would be best to do next.

But, almost all teachers do these things, so is there more to it? To answer this question, one has to step away from teaching and think about learning. Over the last twenty years, the field of cognitive science has taught us a lot about how people learn. A central principle that has been generally accepted is that everything we learn, we "construct" for ourselves. That is, any outside agent is essentially powerless to have a direct effect on what we learn. If our brain does not do it itself, - that is, take in information, look for connections, interpret and make sense of it, - no outside force will have any effect. This does not mean that the effort has to be expressly voluntary and conscious on our parts. Our brains take-in information and operate continuously on many kinds of levels, only some of which are consciously directed. But, conscious or not, the important thing to understand is that it is our brains that are doing the learning, and that this process is only indirectly related to the teacher and the teaching.

For example, even the most lucid and brilliant exposition of a subject by a teacher in a lecture, may result in limited learning if the students' brains do not do the necessary work to process it. There are several possible causes why students' learning may fall short of expectations in such a situation. They may:

• not understand a crucial concept partway into the lecture and so what follows is unintelligible,

• be missing prior information or not have a good understanding of what went before, so the conceptual structures on which the lecture is based are absent,

• lack the interest, motivation, or desire to expend the mental effort to follow the presentation, understand the arguments, make sense of the positions, and validate the inferences.

However, whatever the cause, without interacting with the students (in the simplest case by asking questions), a teacher has no way to know if his/her efforts to explain the topic were successful.

This brings teacher to the first of three distinct reasons for interactive teaching. It is an attempt to see what actually exists in the brains of students. This is the "summative" aspect. It is the easiest aspect to understand and it is well

described in the literature. But, it is far from being the only perspective! The second reason is "formative", where the teacher aims through the assigned task to direct students' mental processing along an appropriate path in "concept-space". The intent is that, as students think through the issues necessary in traversing the path, the resulting mental construction that is developed in the student's head will possess those properties that the teacher is trying to teach. As Socrates discovered, a good question can accomplish this result better than, just telling the answer.

The third may be termed "motivational". Learning is hard work, and an injection of motivation at the right moment can make all the difference. One motivating factor provided by the interactive teacher is the requirement of a response to a live classroom task. This serves to jolt the student into action, to get his brain off the couch, so to speak. Additional more subtle and pleasant events follow immediately capitalizing on the momentum created by this initial burst. One of these is a result of our human social tendencies. When teachers ask students to work together in small groups to solve a problem, a discussion ensues that not only serves in itself to build more robust knowledge structures, but also to motivate. The anticipation of immediate feedback in the form of reaction from their peers, or from the teacher is a very strong motivator. If it is not embarrassing or threatening, students want to know desperately whether their understanding is progressing or just drifting aimlessly in concept space. Knowing that they are not allowed to drift too far off track provides tremendous energy to continue.

<p style="text-align:center">When to Use Games?</p>

Games are often used as short warm-up activities or when there is some time left at the end of a lesson. Yet, as Lee observes, a game "should not be regarded as a marginal activity filling in odd moments when the teacher and class have nothing better to do". Games ought to be at the heart of teaching foreign languages. Rixon suggests that games be used at all stages of the lesson, provided that they are suitable and carefully chosen. [64, 58]

Games also lend themselves well to revision exercises helping learners recall material in a pleasant, entertaining way. All authors referred to in this article agree

that even if games resulted only in noise and entertained students, they are still worth paying attention to and implementing in the classroom since they motivate learners, promote communicative competence, and generate fluency.

General Benefits of Games

Affective:

- lowers affective filter

- encourages creative and spontaneous use of language

- promotes communicative competence

- motivates

- fun

Cognitive:

- reinforces

- reviews and extends

- focuses on grammar communicatively

Class Dynamics:

- student centered

- teacher acts only as facilitator

- builds class cohesion

- fosters whole class participation

- promotes healthy competition

Adaptability:

- easily adjusted for age, level, and interests

- utilizes all four skills

- requires minimum preparation after development.

What is lesson plan?

A **lesson plan** is a teacher's detailed description of the course of instruction for one class. A daily lesson plan is developed by a teacher to guide class instruction. Details will vary depending on the preference of the teacher, subject being covered, and the need and/or curiosity of students. There may be requirements mandated by the school system regarding the plan. A lesson plan is

the teacher's guide for running a particular lesson, and it includes the goal (what the students are supposed to learn), how the goal will be reached (the method, procedure) and a way of measuring how well the goal was reached (test, worksheet, homework etc).

Specifying concrete objectives for student learning will help you determine the kinds of teaching and learning activities you will use in class, while those activities will define how you will check whether the learning objectives have been accomplished (see Fig. 1).
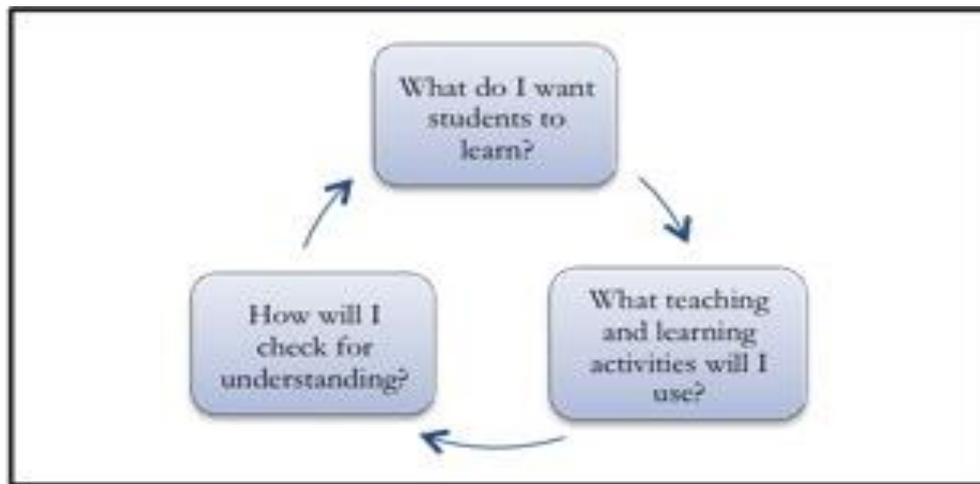
Developing a lesson plan

While there are many formats for a lesson plan, most lesson plans contain some or all of these elements, typically in this order:

- *Title* ofthelesson
- *Time* required to complete the lesson
- Listofrequired *materials*
- List of *objectives*, which may be *behavioral objectives* (what the student can *do* at lesson completion) or *knowledgeobjectives* (what the student *know*s at lesson completion)
- The *set* (or lead-in, or bridge-in) that focuses students on the lesson's skills or concepts—these include showing picturesor models, asking leading questions, or reviewing previous lessons

- An *instructional component* that describes the sequence of events that make up the lesson, including the teacher's instructional input and guided practice the students use to try new skills or work with new ideas

- *Independent practice* that allows students to extend skills or knowledge on their own

- A *summary*, where the teacher wraps up the discussion and answers questions

- An *evaluation* component, a test for mastery of the instructed skills or concepts—such as a set of questions to answer or a set of instructions to follow

- A risk assessment where the lesson's risks and the steps taken to minimize them are documented.

- *Analysis* component the teacher uses to reflect on the lesson itself —such as what worked, what needs improving

- A *continuity* component reviews and reflects on content from the previous lesson.

<center>A well-developed lesson plan</center>

A well-developed lesson plan reflects the interests and needs of students. It incorporates best practices for the educational field. The lesson plan correlates with the teacher's philosophy of education, which is what the teacher feels is the purpose of educating the students.

Secondary English program lesson plans, for example, usually center around four topics. They are literary theme, elements of language and composition, literary history, and literary genre. A broad, thematic lesson plan is preferable, because it allows a teacher to create various research, writing, speaking, and reading assignments. It helps an instructor teach different literature genres and incorporate videotapes, films, and television programs. Also, it facilitates teaching literature and English together. Similarly, history lesson plans focus on content (historical accuracy and background information), analytic thinking, scaffolding, and the practicality of lesson structure and meeting of

educational goals. School requirements and a teacher's personal tastes, in that order; determine the exact requirements for a lesson plan.

Unit plans follow much the same format as a lesson plan, but cover an entire unit of work, which may span several days or weeks. Modern constructivist teaching styles may not require individual lesson plans. The unit plan may include specific objectives and timelines, but lesson plans can be more fluid as they adapt to student needs and learning styles.

Selecting lesson plan material

A lesson plan must correlate with the textbook the class uses. The school usually selects the text books or provides teachers with a limited textbook choice for a particular unit. The teacher must take great care and select the most appropriate book for the students.

Types of Assignments

The instructor must decide whether class assignments are whole-class, small groups, workshops, independent work, peer learning, or contractual:

- Whole-class—the teacher lectures to the class as a whole and has the class collectively participated in classroom discussions.

- Small groups—students work on assignments in groups of three or four.

- Workshops—students perform various tasks simultaneously. Workshop activities must be tailored to the lesson plan.

- Independent work—students complete assignments individually.

- Peer learning—students work together, face to face, so they can learn from one another.

- Contractual work—teacher and student establish an agreement that the student must perform a certain amount of work by a deadline.

These assignment categories (e.g. peer learning, independent, small groups) can also be used to guide the instructor's choice of assessment measures that can provide information about student and class comprehension of the material. As discussed by Biggs, there are additional questions an instructor can consider when

choosing which type of assignment would provide the most benefit to students. [29,175]

These include:

• What level of learning do the students need to attain before choosing assignments with varying difficulty levels?

• What is the amount of time the instructor wants the students to use to complete the assignment?

• How much time and effort does the instructor have to provide student grading and feedback?

• What is the purpose of the assignment? (e.g. to track student learning; to provide students with time to practice concepts; to practice incidental skills such as group process or independent research)

• How does the assignment fit with the rest of the lesson plan? Does the assignment test content knowledge or does it require application in a new context?

To be effective, the lesson plan does not have to be an exhaustive document that describes each and every possible classroom scenario. Nor does it have to anticipate each and every student's response or question. Instead, it should provide teacher with a general outline of teacher's teaching goals, learning objectives, and means to accomplish them. It is a reminder of what teacher wants to do and how he wants to do it. A productive lesson is not one in which everything goes exactly as planned, but one in which both students and instructor learn from each other.

In the next section we gave an example of a well-developed lesson plan. I hope that it will be useful for teachers and English language learners as well.

3.2 System of exercises for teaching English synonyms at Russian schools

Summary

Teacher: Dadahanova Nilufar

Date: __/__/__/

Group: _____

Subject: English (integrated skills lesson)

Theme: "How to be a good friend?"

Objectives:

➢ Activate students' passive vocabulary

➢ Raise students' awareness on the matter of relationships between friends

➢ Learn how to use the studied vocabulary, using it in the speech and writing

➢ Develop students' respect to their friends

➢ Improve students' knowledge on synonyms in Modern English .

The equipment: computer, blackboard, duster, handouts, technical aids, dictionary, markers.

The course of the lesson:

1.   Preliminaries of the lesson

a) Greeting

b) Calling the register (2 min)

c) Checking up the homework (5 min)

2. The presentation of the new material

a)   Pre-activities

Brainstorming

Now we are going to discuss a very interesting and actual problem.

But first of all, I want you to ask several questions.

1. How to identify what characteristics are important in a friend?

2. How to identify what a good friend does?

3. How to practice skills that helps people make friends?

Theme: "How to be a good friend?"

b)   During – activities

Let me introduce the new vocabulary to you. Open your notebooks and write down today's date and theme. As you can see here we have new words, write them down in your notebooks. Then, please read and translate the words and phrases.

1.   Slipped - lose one's footing and slide unintentionally for a short distance;

2.   Environment -the surroundings or conditions in which a person, animal, or plant lives or operates;

3.   Entirely - completely (often used for emphasis);

4.   Focused - to cause, to converge on or toward a central point, concentrate;

5.   Stretched - be made or be capable of being made longer or wider without tearing or breaking.

Now you should read the text and give the title for this text. I'll give you 7 minutes and then we will check your headlines.

There was a time when Whitney didn't have a lot of friends. She was a bit shy and reserved. She never really wanted to be popular, but she did want to have someone to share secrets and laughs with. All through high school, though, she just slipped in and out of "light" friendships where she didn't find a lot of comfort or companionship.

When it came time to go to college, Whitney was quite nervous. She was going to be rooming with someone she didn't know and living in a town 300 miles away from home. There wouldn't be a single person she knew in town. She had no idea how she was going to make friends in this new environment.

The first week of classes, something happened that changed Whitney's life forever. In her English Composition class, she was asked (as were all the students) to share a little about herself. She told everyone where she called home and all of

the other ordinary details that students share in such situations. The final question for each student was always the same: "What is your goal for this class?" Now, most of the students said it was to get a good grade, pass the class or something similar, but for some reason, Whitney said something entirely different. She said that her goal was to make just one good friend.

While most of the students sat in silence, one student came to Whitney and held out his hand and introduced himself. He asked if she would be his friend. The whole room was silent – all eyes focused on the Whitney and the hand extended just in front of her. She smiled and stretched her hand out to take his and a friendship was formed. It was a friendship that lasted all through college. It was a friendship that turned into a romance. It was a friendship that brought two people together in marriage.

Whitney learned the power of asking for what she wanted, being honest and taking action.

Thank you for your nice titles. And the next task for you will be finding which sentence True/False:

1. Whitney didn't have a lot of friends.____

2. She really wanted to be popular.____

3. Whitney was quite nervous, when it came time to go to college.____

4. She had idea how she was going to make friends in this new environment.____

5. She said that her goal was to make just one good friend.____ (5min)

Thank you, my dear students. You are very active. Now listen to me carefully. I give you important advices for being a good friend:

First of all listen. Listening is so important not to underestimate, but it can be hard to do. The best way to listen is to try and understand the situation from your friends' point of view. If you aim to do this, you'll naturally find yourself beginning to ask the right sort of questions and they will appreciate having someone who really cares about how they feel and what they're going through.

You don't have to have all the answers, and you shouldn't assume your friend wants advice – they might just want to talk so that they can work out what they're going to do themselves.

Ask them what they need. If you're worried about someone and you want to be there for them, just ask them what they need- that way you know what they find helpful during tough times, and you can be there in a way that's most useful to them.

Get physical. Smiles and hugs are a great way to show friends that they're not alone, that you're there for them, and that they are important.

Keep in touch. Even if you guys aren't nearby each other, making an effort to keep in touch through Facebook, emails, texts and calls will show your friend you are there for them.

Tell them how you feel. You don't have to make a big deal of it all the time but sometimes there are moments where letting someone know that they're important to you through something you say, can make a big difference to how someone is feeling.

Get the facts. If your friend has a medical condition, or a mental health issue, a good way to offer support is to learn about what they've been diagnosed with. Taking an interest in what they're going through shows that you care, and that you're planning to stick around no matter what's going on.

Be willing to make a tough call. If you think the safety of your friend is at risk, you might need to act without their consent and get help (see the sidebar for where you can seek help). It can be a hard choice particularly when you're worried about their reaction, but remember that you are acting because you care and you don't want them to be hurt. (15min)

Now you know all about being a good friend. I want to explain you words which have the same or nearly the same meanings, but differ in stylistic characteristics. And who knows what kind of words are they? Yes, you are right. They are synonyms.

"Synonyms are language units which have the same or nearly the same meaning, but differentiating in stylistic characteristics" (5min)

I'll give you task. You should use the words in the box to find synonyms for the italicized words. There are more words than you need: (16min)

be against	car	annoy	furious	understand
suggest	hide	compliment	content	sad
forbidden	hate	strange	inspect	~~crazy~~

When John said he saw an alien, everybody thought he was *insane*.

(1) Insane is another word for crazy.

I *recommend* you put that money in the bank.

(2) _____

Fishing is *prohibited*.

(3) _____

I *despise* him because he lies and cheats.

(4) _____

Jim was *irate* when he discovered that someone had stolen his car.

(5) _____

The smugglers tried to *conceal* the drugs in some toys.

(6) _____

The loud music began to *irritate* her.

(7) _____

I can't *comprehend* the question.

(8)

He's *depressed* because his girlfriend left him.

(9)

I *oppose* the idea to build houses in the park.

(10)

Are you *satisfied* with the deal?

(11)

I would like to *examine* the apartment before I buy it.

(12)

c) Post - activity

We have enough time, that's why I'll give you crossword. (15 min)

Across

1. Another word fortoss

2. Another word forquiet

3. Another word forhop

5. Another word fortiny

6. Another word forloud

9. Another word forbegin

10. Another word fortidy

11. Another word forstone

13. Another word forchat

15. Another word forend

Down

1. Another word forskinny

2. Another word foreasy

4. Another word formiddle

7. Another word forill

8. Another word forclever

9. Another word forclose

12. Another word forseat

14. Another word forhuge

16. Anotherwordfordifficult
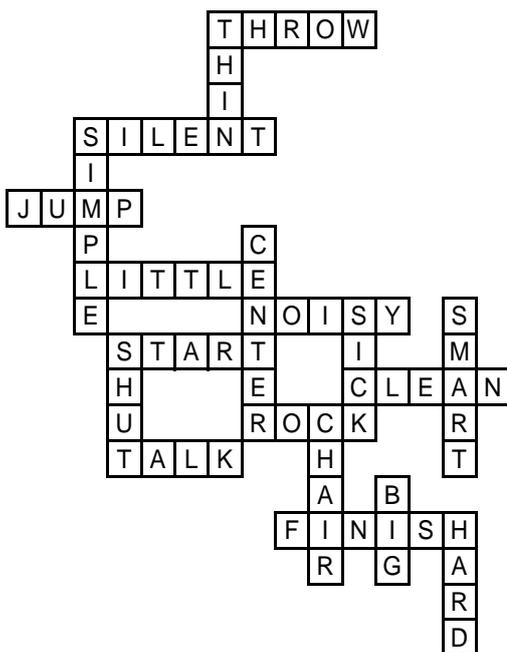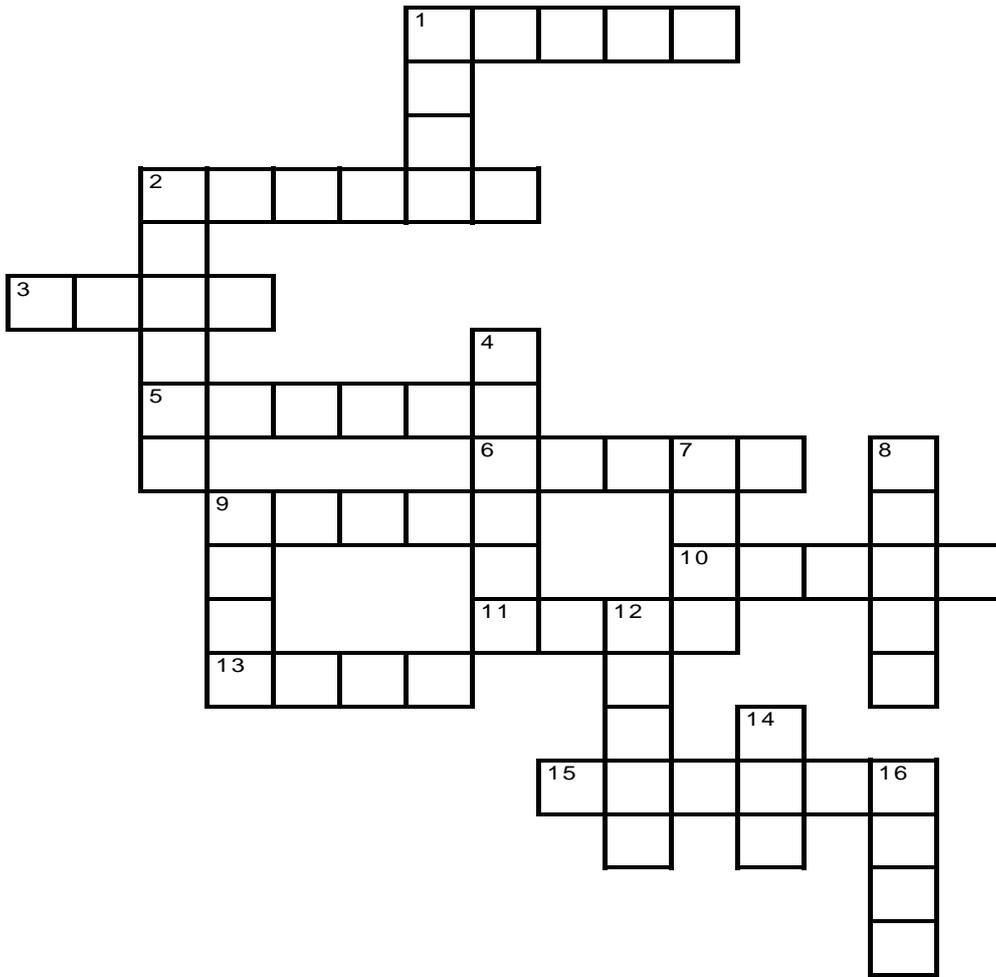
Well-done! You are very active today.

Home task

Write about the best friendship you've ever had. What made (or makes) it so special? Describe your friend. What are the qualities that you appreciate most about this person? (5 min)

The student on duty please can you give me the register; I'm going to assess our brilliant and active students. (5 min)

Our lesson is over, good bye.

Classification of exercises

System of exercises is one of the disputable issues in teaching process. There are three types of exercises. They are:

1)   Language exercises

2)   Conditional speech exercises

3)   Speech exercises

Language exercises

Choose the synonym of these words:

Adjectives	A	B	C	D
1. Big	kind	clever	enormous	wide
2. Broad	risky	impolite	wide	kind
3. Intelligent	feeble	secure	enormous	clever
4. Nice	glad	slender	wide	kind
5. Happy	secure	enormous	glad	risky
6. Dangerous	risky	slender	secure	kind
7. Weak	feeble	clever	glad	wide
8. Slim	enormous	risky	slender	happy
9. Rude	impolite	glad	dangerous	weak
10. Safe	rude	secure	nice	clever

1. Choose the synonym of the words from the four options:

1) Choose the word that means the same as: leader; main

○ match

○ fever

○ chief

○ settle

2) Choose the word that means the same as: want

○ advance

○ produce

○ honor

○ desire

3) Choose the word that means the same as: student

○ pupil

○ industry

○ determine

○ advantage

4) Choose the word that means the same as: bother, annoy

○ disturb

○ qualify

○ influence

○ afford

5) Choose the word that means the same as: immediate

○ angle

○ instant

○ earn

○ recent

6) Choose the word that means the same as: choose, designate

○ efficiency

○ insult

○ refer

○ appoint

7) Choose the word that means the same as: stretch

○ balance

○ extend

○ jealous

○ relate

8) Choose the word that means the same as: ask for

○ basic

○ extent

○ request

○ jewel

9) Choose the word that means the same as: trip

○ behavior

○ extreme

○ resist

○ journey

10) Choose the word that means the same as: need, want

○ bribe

○ lack

○ responsible

○ faint

2. Choose the synonym of the idioms from the four options:

1. Choose the idiom similar in meaning to: undecided, uncertain

○ get even with
○ second rate
○ two-faced
○ up in the air
○ by heart

2. Choose the idiom similar in meaning to: get angry
○ face the music
○ break the ice
○ kill time
○ bump into
○ see red

3. Choose the idiom similar in meaning to: die
○ kick the bucket
○ rain check
○ chain smoker
○ watch one's step
○ spill the beans

4. Choose the idiom similar in meaning to: sleep, nap
○ odds and ends
○ over the hill
○ copy cat
○ take forty winks
○ blind date

5. Choose the idiom similar in meaning to: used, not new
○ all ears
○ doggy bag
○ fifty-fifty
○ second hand
○ fishy

3. Use the words in the box to find synonyms for the italicized words:

quick	allow	wet	stop	enemy
leave	angry	expensive	buy	near
come	thin	go down	fix	right

My clothes are still *damp* so I'll have to wait for them to dry.

(1) Damp is another word for wet.

They are starting to *descend* the mountain.

(2)

He was *furious* when he saw the damage to the car.

(3)

I want to become *slim* so I am going on a diet.

(4)

Do you know what time she is planning to *arrive*?

(5)

I can smell smoke. The fire must be *close*.

(6)

It will take me a while to *repair* your flat tire.

(7)

What did you *purchase* at the store?

(8)

He is a dangerous *foe*.

(9)

The answer is *correct*.

(10)

His mom didn't *let* him go.

(11)

Let's hurry! The train is going to *depart* in five minutes.

(12) _____

It was too *costly* so I didn't buy it.

(13) _____

He didn't *halt* his bad behaviour so he got kicked out of school.

(14) _____

People were angry because of the *rapid* increase in prices.

(15) _____

4. Use the words in the box to find synonyms for the italicized words:

baby	surprised	find	protect	careful
rich	rude	lucky	top	go up
hurt	mistake	want	answer	piece

I was *amazed* at how fast he could run.

(1)   In this example, amazed means surprised.

It was *fortunate* that we had an umbrella because it started to pour.

(2) _____

I found a *fragment* of broken pottery in the dirt.

(3) _____

Not wanting to get injured, she was very *cautious*.

(4) _____

I can't *locate* my bag. Have you seen it?

(5) _____

That's a nice car. He must be very *wealthy*.

(6) _____

He's very gentle. He wouldn't *harm* anyone.

(7) _____

I made an *error* in my calculations so my answer was wrong.

(8) _____

The *infant* didn't talk until she was two years old.

(9) _____

When I got to the *summit* of the mountain I could see the whole world.

(10) _____

I don't know the *solution* to this problem.

(11) _____

I don't want to invite her because she is so *impolite*.

(12) _____

The king told the knight to *guard* the princess.

(13) _____

What do you *desire* most? Money? Love? Happiness?

(14) _____

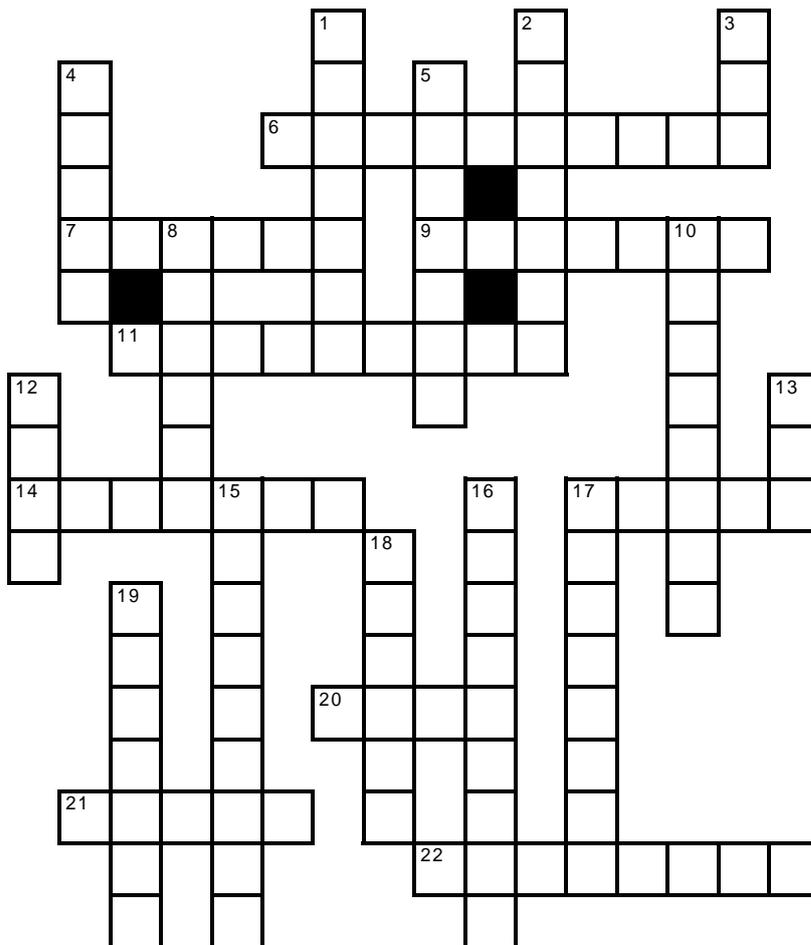When prices started to *rise*, I was worried I wouldn't have enough money.

(15) _____

Synonym crossword

Across

6. comprehend

7. be against

9. forecast

11. build

14. ruin

17. insane

20. despise

21. weary

22. recall

Down

1. satisfied

2. examine

3. help

4. irritate

5. beneficial

8. gain

10. grumble

12. conceal

13. attempt

15. suggest

16. sad

17. persuade

18. assault

19. anxious

Conditional speech exercises

The jigsaw reading activity

The jigsaw technique can be a useful, well-structured template for carrying out effective in-class group work. The class is divided into several teams, with each team preparing separate but related assignments on purpose. When all team members are prepared, the class is re-divided into mixed groups, with one member from each team in each group. Each person in the group teaches the rest of the group what he/she knows and the group then Jigsaw module from Pedagogy in Action tackles an assignment together that pulls all of the pieces together to form the full picture (hence the name "Jigsaw").

Concept sketches

Concept sketches (different from concept maps) are sketches or diagrams that are concisely annotated with short statements that describe the processes, concepts, and interrelationships shown in the sketch. Making students generate their own concept sketches is a powerful way for students to process concepts and convey them to others. Concept sketches can be used as preparation for class, as an in-class activity, in the field or lab, or as an assessment tool.

Speech exercises

Debates

Debates can be a very useful strategy for engaging students in their own learning. Debates force students to deal with complexity and "gray areas", and they are rich in imbedded content. Debates can also help provide relevancy of course material to everyday issues, which can improve students' learning. Debates also improve student's oral communication skills. Here, we can give students very interesting theme: living with purpose and reaching the aim or to go with the tide. While discussing this theme students will use the new vocabulary and enrich their outlook.

Role playing

Role playing and simulations in class can be an excellent way to engage students. A well constructed role-playing or simulation exercise can emphasize the real world and require students to become deeply involved in a topic. Ask your students to show some kind of talk show, in which they will demonstrate famous artists, musicians or businessmen who reached their aims in life. Tell them that they need to tell how they could manage with difficulties, and reached a desirable goal. You can give students time for preparation, i.e. 1 week.

Effective discussion

Discussion is an excellent way to engage students in thinking and analyzing or in defending one side of an issue, rather than listening to lecture. Students must also respond to one another, rather than interacting intellectually only with the instructor. Instructor gives the student a theme: most popular inventions of the century. Give an example how correctly set objective guaranteed reaching the aim/purpose.

Conclusion

Having analyzed the problem of synonymy in Modern English and Russian we could do the following conclusions:

1. Learning synonyms provides as a tool helping the student to guess and retain his memory of the meaning of new words on the bases of their motivation and by comparing and contrasting them with the previously learned elements and patters. This knowledge is important when literary texts are used. It helps students to master the literary standard of word usage.

2. Having analyzed a great number of works we can say that the problem of synonymy in Modern English is very actual nowadays. The problem of synonymy is treated differently by Russian and foreign scientists. There are a lot of other definitions but among numerous definitions of the term in our linguistics the most comprehensive and full one for me is suggested by professor, doctor of philology G.M.Hoshimov: *"Synonyms are language units which have the same or nearly the same meaning, but differentiating in stylistic characteristics"*

3. There are several classification systems for synonyms which were established by different scientists, such as: Academician V.V Vinogradov, the famous Russian scholar or Russian philologist A.I. Smirnitsky. In Vinogradov's classification system there are three types of synonyms: ideographic (which he defined as words conveying the same concept but differing in shades of meaning), stylistic (differing in stylistic characteristics) and absolute (coinciding in all their shades of meaning and in all their stylistic characteristics). However, the following aspects of his classification system are open to question. Firstly, absolute synonyms are rare in the vocabulary and, on the diachronic level; as to professor G. M. Hoshimov: *"the phenomenon of absolute synonymy is anomalous and the vocabulary system invariably tends to abolish it either by rejecting one of the absolute synonyms or by developing differentiation characteristics in one or both (or all) of them"*. Therefore, it does not seem necessary to include absolute synonyms, which are a temporary exception, in the system of classification.

4. The form of symbol contains its meaning within it, but the same time the form is not fully adequate to that meaning. The signifier (sound) and the signified (function) slide continually on the "slope of reality". Each "overflowes" the boundaries assigned to it by the other: the signifier tries to have functions other than its own; the signified tries to be expressed by means other than its sign. They are asymmetrical; coupled, they exist in a state of unstable equilibrium. It is because of this asymmetric dualism in the structure of its sign that a linguistic system can evolve: the adequate position of sign is continually displaced as a result of its adaptation to the exigencies of the concrete situation.

5. In both languages lexical synonyms have to do with bound morphemes, lexemes, lexical units and phrases in both languages. Lexical synonymy is a sense relation that holds between two or more lexical units with the same sense in the given contexts in which they are interchangeable, e. g. *to finish – to complete – to conclude; завершать–заканчивать–кончать.*There are also phraseological synonyms in both languages, these words are identical in their meanings and styles but different in their combining with other words in the sentence, e.g. *to be late for a lecture– опоздать на урок but to miss the train–пропустить поезд, to visit museums–посетить музей* but *to attend lectures–присутствовать на лекциях* etc.

6. Having analyzed a great number of dissertations, the central conclusion we reached is that there are not full amount of works in English where we can find such a concept as structural classification of synonyms. But we have revealed such a classification: simple, derivative composite synonyms. In Russian synonyms structurally are divided into:

1) monoroot synonyms (general root and different affixes):*ругать, обругать, выругать; мыслить, думать, размышлять, раздумывать, помышлять.*

2) polyroot synonyms : *парадный, пышный, помпезный, торжественный; красивый, обаятельный, очаровательный, неотразимый.*

7. There are numerous synonyms which are distinguished by both shades of meaning and stylistic colouring in the compared languages. Therefore, even the

subdivision of synonyms into ideographic and stylistic is open to question.A more modern and a more effective approach to the classification of synonyms may be based on the definition describing synonyms as words differing in connotations. It seems convenient to classify connotations by which synonyms differ rather than synonyms themselves. It opens up possibilities for tracing much subtler distinctive features within their semantic structures. The semantic classification of English and Russian synonyms totally coincides.

8. In our research paper we have established isomorphic and allomorphic features of synonyms in Modern English and Russian. There exist the same semantic types of synonyms in the compared languages such as: ideographic synonyms, stylistic synonyms, ideographic-stylistic synonyms, contextual synonyms, lexical synonyms, syntactic synonyms, phraseological synonyms.

9. In our graduation paper we have suggested the methodological recommendations for teaching English synonyms at Russian schools. The lesson should be based on communicative approach with using interactive methods of teaching. As a lesson plan is the teacher's guide for running a particular lesson, it includes the goal (what the students are supposed to learn), how the goal will be reached (the method, procedure) and a way of measuring how well the goal was reached (test, worksheet, homework etc). Much attention should be given to the integrated-skills approach. This approach allows teachers to track students' progress in multiple skills at the same time, etc.

10. We have worked out a system of exercises for teaching English synonyms at Russian schools: language exercises (vocabulary tasks, gap – filling activities, tests and crosswords); conditional speech exercises (concept sketches, jigsaw activities and others); speech exercises (debates, effective discussions, role playing and etc.)

Having said about the perspectives of this work we hope that the work will find its worthy way of applying at schools, lyceums and colleges of high education by both teachers and students of English.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Каримов И. А. Баркамол авлод орзуси. Тошкент. 1999.

2. Антрушина Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н. Лексикология англ. языка. М: Высшая школа 1985.

3. Апресян Ю.Д.Лексическая семантика. Синонимические средства языка. М.1974.

4. Апресян Ю. Д. Фразеологические синонимы типа " глагол-существительное "в современном английском языке/ дис…кан. фил. н.- М., 1956.

5. Аракин В. Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков. Учебное пособие. 3-е изд. М.: Физматлит, 2005.

6. Бондоренко А. В. Грамматическое значение и смысл. Л., 1978.

7. Баранникова Т. Б. Стилистические синонимы/ дис...док фил. н.- М., 1989.

8. Булыгина Т. В. Грамматические и семантические категории и их связи. М: Наука, 2002.

9. Буранов К., Назаров Т.Узбекистан – на пути прогресса. Т: Узбекистан, 2001.

10. Виноградов В. В. Лексикология и лексикография. Избранные труды. М. 1975.

11. Ворно Е.Ф., Кощеева М.А., Малышевская Е.В., Потапова И.А.Лексикология английского языка. Ленинград. 1955.

12. Дубенец Э. М. Курс лекций и планы семинарских занятий по лексикологии английского языка.2008.

13. ДудникА. А. Semantic structure of the word in modern English. ВестникКАСУ № 2, 2007.

14. Зализняк А. А. Словоформа // Русский язык: Энциклопедия. М., 1979.

15. Карцевский С. О. Об асимметричном дуализме лингвистических знаков // Звегинцев В. А. История языкознания XIX-XXвв. в очерках и извлечениях.Т. 2. М., 1965.

16. Кубрякова Е. С. Семантика производного слова // Аспекты семантических исследований. М, 1980.

17. Потапова И.А. Краткий словарь синонимов английского языка. Пособие для учителя. Л, 1957.

18. Реформатский А. А. Введение в языкознаниею М. 1967.

19. Розенталь Д. Э., Голуб И. Б., Теленкова М. А. Современный русский язык. М.: Айрис-Пресс, 2002.

20. Скшидло А. Я. К проблеме разноуровневой синонимии // Филологические науки. 1987.

21. Трофимова З.С. Dictionary of New Words and New Meanings.М:Издание `Павлин' 1993.

22. Трубянова И. В. "Синонимы как стилистическое средство выразительности в поэзии Г. Матюковского" 2009.

23. Abayev V.I. Synonyms and their Semantic Features. T: O'qituvchi, 1981.

24. Akhmanova O.S. Lexicology: Theory and Method. M. 1972.

25. Arnold I.V. The English Word M. High School 1986.

26. Berry R. Determiners: A class apart. English Today. 1998.

27. Berns M. S. Initiatives in communicative language teaching. A book of readings. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1984.

28. Biggs J. Teaching for Quality Learning at University Buckingham, UK: SRHE and Open University Press, 1999.

29. Bloomsbury Dictionary of New Words. M. 1996.

30. Buranov A., Muminov J. Readings on Modern English Lexicology. T: O'qituvchi, 1985.

31. Burchfield R.W. The English Language. L. 2-nd ed., 1985.

32. Cann R. Formal semantics. Introduction. Cambridge: CUP, 1993.

33. Canon G. Historical Changes and English Word-formation: New Vocabulary items. N.Y., 1986.

34. Cruse D. A. Lexical semantics. Cambridge: CUP, 1986.

35. Cruse D. A. Meaning in Language: An Introduction to Semantics and Pragmatics, OUP, Oxford, 2000.

36. Dubenets E.M. Modern English Lexicology (Course of Lectures). M: Moscow State Teacher Training University Publishers 2004.

37. Ganyukova A. A. Uses of syntactic synonyms in English // Филологическиенауки. Kazakhstan 2002.

38. Gerngross G.,Puchta H. Beyond notions and functions: Language teaching or the art of letting go. (pp. 89-107). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1984.

39. Ginzburg R.S. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. M. 1979.

40. Halliday M.A.K. Language as Social Semiotics. Social Interpretation of Language and Meaning. L. 2-nd. 1979.

41. Hornsby. The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English. L. 2-nd. 1974.

42. Jackendoff R. Semantics and Cognition. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.1983.

43. Jespersen O. Linguistics. London. 1983.

44. Jespersen O. Growth and Structure of the English Language. Oxford. 1982.

45. Jones-Macziola S. Getting ahead (Students' Book). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 1994.

46. Larsen-Freeman, D. Techniques and principles in language teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1986.

47. Lapin S. The handbook of contemporary semantic theory. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.2001.

48. Leech G. N. Semantics. London: Penguin.1983.

49. Longman. Lexicon of Contemporary English. 1981.

50. Lyons. J. Introduction to theoretical linguistics. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 1996.

51. Lyons. J. Semantics. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.1997

52. Lyons J. Linguistic semantics: An introduction. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press. 2001.

53. Murphy M. L. Semantic Relations and the Lexicon. CUP, Cambridge.2003.

54. Nida E. A. Componential Analysis of Meaning, Mouton, The Hague, 1975

55. Palmer. F. R. Semantics (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 1983.

56. Palmer F. R. Semantics: A New Outline. Cambridge: CUP, 1976.

57. Potter S. Modern Linguistics. L. 2-nd. 1957.

58. Potapova LA. English synonyms. Publ. House L. 1977.

59. Rayevska N. M. English Lexicology. (For students of the foreign language faculties in universities). Kiev: «VyshaSkola» publishers Head House 1979.

60. Schlauch M. The English Language in Modern Times. Warszava. 1965.

61. Sheard J. The Words we Use. N.Y. 1954.

62. Smirnitsky A.I. Synonyms in English. M.1977.

63. Wright A., Betteridge D. and Buckby M. From Games for Language Learning. Cambridge University Press, 1984.

64. "Webster's Dictionary of Synonyms". Springfield. Mass. USA. 1942.

List of the used web sites:

Internet: http://www.wikipedia.com/English/articles/synonyms.htm

Internet: http://www mpsttu.ru/works/English philology/htm

Internet: http://www.project.phil.spbu.ru/hpm

Internet: http://dictionary.cambridge.org