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**Comparative typology of word structure in
Modern English and Russian and problems
of linguodidactics**

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Introduction

“The world is vast. There are many countries, but our Uzbekistan is unique. This wonderful and sacred land was created for us. This thought should inspire all our hearts and provide the reason for our lives.” [1,40] In my opinion, it is the most correct and absolutely fair statement given by the head of our Republic Islam Abduganiyevich Karimov, which expresses a true love, faithfulness and pride for our Motherland. In fact, there exist lots of different states with great or less economical and political power, but I’m happy that I live in such a lovely, sunny, peaceful and hospitable country as our Uzbekistan, where various nationalities have become one family and taken the same direction on their way to prosperity. I am a graduate student of Andizhan State University, the Faculty of Foreign Languages. Four years ago I was lucky to enter this University on the grand base and I am thankful to our government for such opportunity. Today I feel convinced that each of us having become a graduate of our dearest University where we obtain not only knowledge, but also an occupation, will live with understanding that we have been raised in a free country and that we have been shaped as a personality inferior to no one in anything.

Despite the youth of our state, Uzbekistan is strengthening year by year. Today our Republic is a world-known, mighty and peaceful country, which stands equally with the leading states of the world. From the very start of the building the democratic society in the Republic of Uzbekistan on the basis of Islam Karimov’s conception “From a strong state to a strong civil society” the target has been set to create a highly-educated, harmoniously developed, modern-thinking generation. Accepted in 1997 the Law “On Education” and “The National Program on training professional specialists” play the most important roles in the realisation of the set target. They laid the foundation for further reformations in the educational sphere. The essence of the educational reforms is to preserve the present intellectual potential of the educational system and to modify our goals and activities in order to develop individuals, who are capable to live in a democratic civil society, build a free market economy and become a nation with great future. One of the main

goals of the educational reforms in our country is to educate physically and mentally healthy, spiritually mature and harmoniously developed generation of young people who can think independently, have extensive knowledge and a modern outlook, and can take responsibility for the fate and future of our country. The main principles of our educational policy support this aim, which is led to the changing the thinking mentality of our people and society. So, our educational goals are determined on the basis of the principles of democratisation and humanisation as the following: humanistic, democratic methods of teaching and socialisation, priority to human values, national and cultural traditions, separation of educational institutions from the influence of political parties and social movements, etc.

Education is admitted to be one of the fundamental determinants of social and economic progress of any nation and its role is prominent in every aspect of our lives. Our government pays huge attention to the education of the younger generation. As our President pointed out, the youth is not only the hope and future, but also a decisive force of today and tomorrow. Since Uzbekistan became an independent state, all opportunities have been given to the youth. Today all the doors are open for us. International grants afford us to receive or continue education in the leading educational and scientific centres of high-developed countries of the world. Various Funds such as “Umid”, “Zulfiya”, “Nihol” give the best opportunities for hundreds of talented young people of Uzbekistan to show their abilities and to introduce themselves to the whole country and receive scholarships necessary for their studying. Thus, our state ensures in all stages of the educational process the training of high skilled, physically healthy generation.

The government allocates more than a half of the state budget every year for cultivating the system of education. During the previous years an enormous number of successful reformations in the educational sphere have been carried out. Adopted 9-year schooling, further reception of education at vocational colleges and academic lyceums, formed at the expense of state investments, give their results in achieving the educational goals. Yet in 2012 at the Opening Ceremony of the

International Conference entitled “Fostering a well educated and intellectually advanced generation – critical prerequisite for sustainable development and modernization of country” our President spoke about the model of reforming the educational system in Uzbekistan and experience of its implementations. He pointed that our Republic has accomplished wide-ranging works to reorganise the system of training and raising the qualification of teachers and teaching faculty for colleges, lyceums and higher educational institutions of the country. At present Uzbekistan is among the top nations in the literacy rate ranking. This indicates that school attendance is very high, which is not surprising if to take into consideration that in our country secondary education is compulsory and schools are under control and provision of government.

Nowadays much attention is given to implementing knowledge in computer technologies and foreign languages, especially English. The English language is regarded as the international one in this global world, the language of business, diplomacy and cross-communication. It is attached much importance to English all over the world. Communication is very crucial in any field, whether it is a conversation between penfriends, whether it is business, politics or economics. Hence, it is going to be really hard to thrive in this world without knowing English. The need to study foreign languages is becoming one of the acutest questions standing in the front of each state. The language policy in Uzbekistan is considered as the reflection of the needs of society and the desire of the population to learn foreign languages. In the present day our President, taking into account the importance for our state to integrate into the global economy, has taken the necessary measures on expanding and improving the English language proficiency.

The main purpose of teaching foreign languages in the modern curriculum is defined as “education of students to communicate fluently in the target language.” To obtain such a result it is necessary to work out fundamental methodological approaches, effective strategies and systems of exercises, which will allow for training highly qualified specialists at the level of contemporary requirements. Our government creates a favourable atmosphere and all conditions for the younger

generation for learning foreign languages, attaining advanced knowledge and achievements of progress. All the state educational centres are provided with the latest innovative technologies, computer and production tools and equipment, methodological materials and modern language laboratories as well. It means that the process of innovative improving of the educational system actively continuous.

Moreover, on December 10, 2012 the head of our state signed the decree “On measures to further improve foreign language learning system”, which indicates:

- “throughout the Republic, learning foreign languages, particularly English, shall be started as games and verbal communication in the first year classes of secondary schools, and step by step alphabet, reading and grammar should be taught from the second year;
- some special subjects, particularly technical and international specialties, are taught in foreign languages in higher educational institutions;
- students and teachers of general secondary, secondary special, vocational education institutions shall be provided with textbooks and teaching materials in foreign languages; these materials shall be published according to determined periods and funded by Republic targeted book Fund under the Ministry of Finance of the Republic of Uzbekistan.”

In consequence of the decree starting from 2013-2014 school year foreign languages, mainly English, are being taught from the first year of schooling throughout the country. One of the most important periods in the physical and psychological development of children is the period of studying at primary schools. Since this very age the character of children starts to be shaped, and they begin perceiving the world consciously. And those children, who have got the feeling of love for learning languages, starting from that formation age, are most likely to be friends with them. Starting of learning foreign languages from the first grade can create new opportunities for familiarising children with the achievements of the world culture. In working out a due program our government reflects the need to uplift the quality of primary education, to improve educational

standards and the necessity of widespread introducing of advanced pedagogical and information-communication technologies.

Another important issue of the decree is to introduce foreign languages testing to the entrance examinations for all higher educational institutions, as today English is required not only in the field of linguistics, but in any field. So, all specialists undergoing the higher educational system are required to know one or several foreign languages. Doubtless, such measures should help us in achieving our goals in creating a highly-educated, modern-thinking perfect person.

To sum up, the educational system of the Republic is advancing at a high speed. The level of education in Uzbekistan corresponds to the world standard that is typical for the leading states of the world. It is also worthy to mention that today our country is a large scientific centre in Central Asia. Almost 300 scientific institutions function in the country now. There is a well-developed research basis. Our scientists carry out fundamental research in various fields, greatly contributing to the world science, hence to the pursuit of prosperity and happiness of our Motherland.

In order to contribute a little more to the development of science in our state, I have decided to carry out the following research work. I hope it will become a small start for further investigations. My qualification paper is titled **“Comparative study of word structure in Modern English and Russian and problems of linguodidactics”**, and it is devoted to one of the actual problems of Modern Comparative linguistics. The word stock of a language is constantly changing. Some words go out of use and become obsolete while others appear and fill the stock up. This replenishment occurs in different ways within some changes in the social and cultural lives. It may be the expansion of the semantic structure of existing words, the formation of homonyms, borrowings from other languages or the formation of new words from existing ones. In order to analyse the latter aspect, we firstly should study in details the structure of words itself. Thus, in my research work I have made an attempt to study this field and establish isomorphic

and allomorphic features in the word structure of 2 non-related languages: English and Russian.

The actuality of the theme: It is urgent to investigate the given topic because of very little work denoted to the comparative-typological study of word structure in Modern English and Russian is done in our country. Moreover, as the English language is getting power, it is necessary to work out the system of exercises and maintain the effective strategies of teaching, particularly afore mentioned theme, in English at Russian schools.

The aim of the research: Comparative-typological analysis of the word structure in Modern English and Russian.

The tasks of the research:

- 1) to identify and justify the actuality of the chosen theme;
- 2) to inventorize structure of words in two typologically dissimilar languages;
- 3) to analyze morpheme types in both languages;
- 4) to establish the isomorphic and allomorphic features of the word structure in Modern English and Russian;
- 5) to make a qualitative and quantitative analysis of the word structure in Modern English and Russian;
- 6) to work out the effective system of exercises and methodological recommendations for teaching English word structure at Russian schools.

The object of the research: word structure and its components in the English and Russian languages.

The subject matter of the research: Comparative linguistic nature of word structure in Modern linguistics.

The materials for the research: The concrete empirical examples of lexemes in Modern English and Russian taken from the fiction by Modern English and Russian writers, from the mass media, dictionaries, etc.

The methods of the research: transformational method, comparative method, distributional method, statistical method, method of componential analysis, oppositional method, method of modeling, deductive and inductive methods.

The scientific novelty of the research lies in the following:

- 1) the structural and semantic features of word structure in the Modern English and Russian languages have been disclosed;
- 2) a detailed qualitative and quantitative analysis of the whole system of word structure in Modern English and Russian has been made;
- 3) effective strategies, system of exercises and methodical recommendations for teaching word structure in Modern English at Russian schools have been worked out and offered for extensive use.

The methodology of the research: In our graduation paper we depart from the theoretical positions of such renowned linguists as: Arakin V.D. [2], Antrushina G.B. [52], Vinogradov V.V. [12], Reformatskiy A.A. [36], Arnold I.V. [53], Ginzburg R.S. [58], Palmer F.R. [66], Shirokikh V.M. [67], Maslow Yu.S. [28], Smirnitskiy A.I. [38], Jackson H. [64], Anderson S.R. [51], Vejbitskaya A. [10], Tihonov A.N. [42], Kuznetsova A.I. [25], Belikov S.V. [5] and others.

The theoretical value of the research: The different approaches to the word structure in the functioning systems of two typologically non-related languages has been further elaborated, and on the basis of the linguodidactic comparison useful methodical recommendations for teaching it in Modern English at Russian schools have been carried out and offered.

The practical value of the research: The achieved results of our investigation can be used in giving general and special courses in English or Russian grammar and lexicology at high schools, in teaching Comparative linguistics, in the theory and practice of translation, interpretation of a text as well as when lecturing on methodology of teaching a foreign (English) language and providing sources for seminars in the practice of teaching English.

The field of application: The results of the research work can be used in the process of teaching at academic lyceums, professional colleges and higher educational institutions as well as in the theory and practice of translation.

The structure of the work: The work consists of introduction, the main part with 3 chapters, conclusion and the list of the used literature.

Introduction notes the specific features of the chosen topic, which is determined by the relevance and novelty, goals, tasks, objectives, etc.

In the first chapter, which consists of the two sections, there have been given the analysis of the different approaches to the word structure as well as the positional, structural and semantic types of morphemes – components of words.

In the next chapter, which consists of the three parts, there have been made a qualitative and quantitative analysis of the word structure in the Modern English and Russian languages, and on the basis of the achieved results there have been identified isomorphic (similarities) and allomorphic (dissimilarities) features of the morphemic and semantic word structure in Modern English and Russian.

The third chapter, which also consists of the two sections, is led to the point of teaching above analyzed theme at (high) schools. The acceptable methodological manual with recommendations, system of exercises and effective strategies for teaching the word structure in Modern English at Russian schools have been compiled.

In the final part we have summarized all the achieved results, drawn a conclusion and compiled the list of the used literature.

CHAPTER I: Theory of word structure and the problem of a morpheme in Modern Linguistics

1.1 Different approaches to the word structure

In any language it is existed a vast field for investigations where the word is a central element. Analyzing some major works of outstanding linguists on the word structure, we have found out that the word is one of the most problematic and disputable language unit. 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. Within the framework of linguistics, the word has acquired definitions from the syntactic, semantic, phonological points of view as well as a definition combining various approaches. Thus, it has been syntactically defined as "*the minimum sentence*" by Henry Sweet and much later as "*the minimum independent unit of utterance*" by L. Bloomfield. E. Sapir defines the word from the syntactic and semantic aspects: "*the word is one of the smallest completely satisfying bits of isolated meaning, into which the sentence resolves itself.*" Stephen Ullmann gives a purely semantic definition. He describes words as "*meaningful segments that are ultimately composed of meaningful units.*" The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (1976) defines the word as *a sound or a group of sounds that forms an independent unit of language*. It goes further to define it as a representation of those sounds "*as letters or symbols, usually with a space on either side*". Word is essentially a unit of meaning: every word must give a sense prompted by general/conventional or specific/contextual determinism. (elena.elly.blogspot.com)

Vinogradov V.V. explains word as "*an internal constructed unity of lexical and grammatical meanings*". Shahmatov states that the word is "*a complex*

combination of real and grammatical meanings, a phonetically and morphologically organized language unit.”

Antrushina G.B. considers the word as follows: “*Firstly, the word is a unit of speech which 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.*”

Thus, the word is a speech unit used for the purposes of human communication, materially representing a group of sounds, possessing a meaning, susceptible to grammatical employment and characterized by formal and semantic unity. The formal unity of the word can best be illustrated by comparing a word and a word-group comprising identical constituents. The difference between a *blackbird* and *a black bird* is best explained by their relationship with the grammatical system of the language. The word *blackbird*, which is characterised by unity, possesses a single grammatical framing: *blackbird/s*.

The same example may be used to illustrate what we mean by semantic unity. In the word-group *a black bird* each of the meaningful words conveys a separate concept: *bird* — a kind of living creature; *black* — a colour. The word *blackbird* conveys only one concept: the type of bird. This is one of the main features of any word: it always conveys one concept, no matter how many component morphemes it may have in its external structure. Thus, the word as well as any linguistic sign is a two-facet unit possessing both form and content or, to be more exact, sound form and meaning. Neither can exist without the other. [52,8-9]

We have analyzed a number of dissertations and monographs of modern linguists devoted to the word structure and further we are about to give consideration to some of them. The modern approach to the word studies is based on distinguishing between the external and the internal structures of the word. By the word structure we should define a set of relations between different elements of the word: phonetic, morphemic, grammatical and semantic; combination and correlation of lexes of a definite lexeme.

The semantic structure of the word

The internal structure of the word, or its meaning, is nowadays commonly referred to as the word's *semantic structure*. We completely agree with the definition of Arnold I.V.: “*Semantic structure of the word is a structured set of interrelated lexical variants with different meanings.*” In other words, the word's semantic structure is an organized whole comprised by recurrent meanings and shades of meaning a particular sound complex can assume in different context, together with emotional or stylistic colouring and other connotations of any. This is certainly the word's main aspect. Words can serve the purposes of 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 to condemn as irrelevant anything that eludes mathematical analysis. And this is exactly what meaning, with its subtle variations and shifts, is apt to do.

Meaning is one of the most controversial terms in the theory of language. At first sight, the understanding of this term seems to present no difficulty at all — it is freely used in teaching, interpreting and translation. The scientific definition of meaning however just as the definition of some other basic linguistic terms, such as word and sentence, has been the issue of interminable discussions. However most authors as Arnold, Antrushina and Ginsburg agree that *lexical meaning is the realization of the notion by means of a definite language system.*

The area of lexicology specialising in the semantic studies of the word is called *semantics*. Semantics is the study of meaning. Its aim is therefore to explain and describe meaning in natural languages. Most linguists agree that meaning pervades the whole of language. However, they are not always unanimous on the terms to be used in the discussion of semantics. We completely agree with the terminology presented and theoretical distinctions made by Howard Jackson in his brief treatment of semantics. To highlight the pervasive nature of meaning, Jackson states that if we are to talk about semantics at all, we should identify

several kinds of semantics: pragmatic, which studies the meaning of utterances in context; sentence semantics, which handles the meaning of sentences as well as meaning relations between sentences and lexical semantics, which deals with the meaning of words and meaning relations that are internal to the vocabulary of a language. So semantics involves all aspects of meaning in natural languages, from the meaning of complex utterances in specific context to that of individual sounds in syllables. [58,4-5]

Modern approaches to this problem are characterised by two different levels of study: *syntagmatic and paradigmatic*.

On the syntagmatic level, the semantic structure of the word is analysed in its linear relationships with neighbouring words in connected speech. In other words, the semantic characteristics of the word are observed, described and studied on the basis of its typical contexts.

On the paradigmatic level, the word is studied in its relationships with other words in the vocabulary system. So, a word may be studied in comparison with other words of similar meaning (e. g. *work*, n. — *labour*, n.; *to refuse*, v. — *to reject* v. — *to decline*, v.), of opposite meaning (e. g. *busy*, adj. — *idle*, adj.; *to accept*, v. — *to reject*, v.), of different stylistic characteristics (e. g. *man*, n. — *chap*, n. — *bloke*, n. — *guy*, n.). Consequently, the main problems of paradigmatic studies are synonymy, antonymy, polysemy, homonymy, hyponymy, hyperonymy functional styles. Most of modern linguists study the semantic word structure. We have looked through most of their works.

Bashkirtseva O.A. and Zorina V.V, 2 modern Russian linguists in the field of studying the word, explain the semantic structure of words as a complex system of interdependent meanings and their usage. For identifying the semantic structure of words it is necessary 1) to reveal the order of the internal cohesion and subordination of semantic elements 2) to clarify by what language means the semantic differentiation of lexical variants inside the word. [4,46] Zorina V. also mentions in her scientific work that the semantic word structure becomes apparent in its polysemy as a capability to designate different objects (features, qualities,

relations, actions, states) with the help of internally linked meanings. All the meanings of the polysemantic word differ in the degree of stability and independence, in the field of use, in the character of concepts, which they express and in the forms of realization in the lexical system of a language. The semantic structure of the monosemantic word boils down to its seme structure. [4,15] Bashkirtseva O. gives another idea for the sematic word structure from the point of view of studying conceptual aspects of the word. We are about to analyze it in details in the next chapter.

The semantic structure of words in Modern Russian linguistics has also been thoroughly studied by well-known Russian linguists. Vinogradov V. investigating the semantic word structure states that semantic elements in the word structure itself are correlated, strictly coincided with each other and adjoined in strict succession. Thus, the word consisting more than one morpheme is “crystallization of the sentence or its part. Grammatical forms or relations between the elements of the language system separate words, performed by random, non-motivated language signs from words, meanings of which are motivated in more or less degree. It is impossible to imagine such a language where everything would be motivated and there is no language without any motivation. Grammatical and lexico-semantic relations between words determine the differences between motivated and non-motivated words. [10, 62]

Furthermore, Vinogradov V. distinguishes the main (core) meaning of the word and particular meanings, depending on the main one. The core meaning is semantically simple. E.g. *вода* – «прозрачная бесцветная жидкость». The particular meanings have a more complex semantic structure: «вода – напиток – вода с добавлением фруктовой эссенции». Hence, the poorer content of the word, the broader its collocation and vice versa. [11, 43]

Morphemic structure of the word

By external structure of the word we mean its *morphemic structure*. For example, in the word *postimpressionists* 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*. The external structure of the word as well as typical word-formation patterns are studied in the framework of word-building.

Various approaches are differentiated in the morphemic structure. A modern linguist Kuzmina I.A. in her work suggest several theories of the external structure of the word such as the morphemic analysis theory, the theory of structural word-formation, the theory of division into immediate constituents, transformational and distributional analysis theories, etc. We are going to analyze former three of them.

The theory of morphemic analysis is characterized by establishing types and number of morphemes in the word. The morphemic analysis defines only individual components of the words. With the help of this analysis it is possible to identify the probabilistic word-building model for which the word was built: *girl* – a simple (root) word, *girlish* – a derived word (root + affix), *girl-friend* compound word (2 stems), *old-maidish* – a compound-derived word (2 stems +affix). [26, 58] However, this theory has some defective points. The analysis singles out profound segments, which don't show any communicative value, too. (the morpheme *gentle* in *ungentlemanly*). On the other hand, it cannot recover the superficial segments, which really carry communicative value. Thus, according to this theory in the word *usefulness* we single out morphemes *use-*, *-ful*, *-ness*, but the component *useful* is ignored. And its relevance is indisputable for any language speaker.

The theory of structural word-formation is based on the structural correlation with other words, the structural patterns or rules on which words are built. This is done with the help of the principle of oppositions, by studying the partly similar elements, the differences between which are functionally relevant. For example, the words *child* and *childish* are the members of a morphemic or binary opposition. The given words are similar as they have the same stem *-child-*, so comparing them we highlight the suffix *-ish*. Due to this suffix we can conclude that the given words refer to different parts of speech. This binary opposition comprises two elements. The set of such binary oppositions is called a correlation. Observation also shows that the stems are mostly those of animate nouns, and permits us to

define the relationship between the structural pattern of the word and its meaning. Any one word built according to this pattern contains a semantic component common to the whole group, namely “typical of, or have the bad qualities of something denoted by the stem.” [52,34-35] The usefulness of this theory is unquestionable as far as in the process of creating new words on the base of the distinguished models (neologisms or occasionalisms) such analysis is merely necessary for understanding the meaning of an unknown word. Moreover, this analysis can separate the words not only according to their structure, but also can classify them into appropriate parts of speech.

The theory of analysis into immediate constituents, first suggested by L.Bloomfield, is defined as a kind of segmentation revealing not the history of the word but its motivation. The theory is based on the fact that a word characterized by morphological divisibility is involved in certain structural correlations. Z. Harris pointed out that *“the morpheme boundaries in an utterance are determined not on the basis of considerations interior to the utterance, but on the basis of comparison with other utterances. The comparisons are controlled, i.e. we don't merely scan various random utterances but seek utterances which differ from or original one only in stated portions. The final test is in utterances which are only minimally different from ours.”* [26,46] Breaking a word into its immediate constituents we observe in each cut the structural order of the constituents. Again, there are some weak points of the theory. Not all the words can be broken into immediate constituents – borrowings or the words containing the borrowed affixes. For example, the word *arrive* cannot be breaking into its immediate constituents as the given components *ad-* and *-ripe* have the Latin origin and lost their initial meaning. Such morphemes are called unique. As we see the analyzed theories of analysis of the internal word structure have more or less drawbacks. So, this aspect is still in dispute. But in all above analyzed ways we can define how the word is built. Kuzmina I.A. gives only overall score.

Classification of words according to their morphemic structure

Word-building is another large aspect of word study. Formation implies that we are dealing with rules that “form” (create, generate, derive) words. Word-formation is “*the system of derivative types of words and the process of creating new words from the material available in the language after certain structural and semantic formulas and patterns*” [38, 54]. Regarding to their morphemic structure we distinguish simple, derivative, composite (compound and complex) and mixed words. Simple words consist of a single morpheme (*cat, doll*) and compile the principal number in the word stock of the language (20% of English words). Derivative words consist of a root plus at least one affix (*teacher, beautiful*). Compound words consist of at least 2 free root morphemes connected together (*bedroom, aircraft*). Complex words differ from compounds in the degree of semantic independence of each part – root morphemes (*blackmail*). In the language we also meet mixed types, where there are 2 root morphemes plus an affix (*blackmailer, baby-sitter*). In conformity with structural types of words the following two types of word-formation may be distinguished: word-derivation and word-composition (or compounding). Words created by word-derivation have in terms of word-formation analysis only one derivational base and one derivational affix, e.g. *cleanness* (from *clean*), *to overestimate* (from *to estimate*), *chairmanship* (from *chairman*), etc. Words created by word composition have at least two connected stems, e.g. *lamp-shade, ice-cold, looking-glass, daydream, speedometer*.

Shanskiy N.M. speaking about Russian linguistics points word-formative relations – relations of word-formative dependency between word groups or separate words, that carry structural-semantic features and are used in the process of word-formation. Thus, between the words «автор – соавтор; товарищ – сотоварищ» there are relations revealing the dependence of the words «соавтор or сотоварищ» from former words. The structural dependency of these words lies in containing the stem of the former words and the element with the help of which they have been formed in their structure. The semantic dependency becomes

apparent in the fact that the derived word may be explained through the former one. To make a word-building analysis it is necessary to disclose this structural-semantic formula of the word.

Affixation is generally defined as the formation of words by adding derivational affixes to different types of bases. Derived words formed by affixation may be the result of one or several applications of word-formation rule and thus the stems of words making up a word-cluster enter into derivational relations of different degrees. The zero degree of derivation is ascribed to simple words, i.e. words whose stem is homonymous with a word-form and often with a root-morpheme, e.g. *atom*, *haste*, *devote*, *anxious*, *horror*, etc. Derived words whose bases are built on simple stems and thus are formed by the application of one derivational affix are described as having the first degree of derivation, e.g. *atomic*, *hasty*, *devotion*, etc. Derived words formed by two consecutive stages of coining possess the second degree of derivation, etc., e.g. *atomical*, *hastily*, *devotional*, etc. In conformity with the division of derivational affixes into suffixes and prefixes affixation is subdivided into suffixation and prefixation.

Prefixation is the formation of words with the help of prefixes. The interpretation of the terms prefix and prefixation now firmly rooted in linguistic literature has undergone a certain evolution. For instance, some time ago there were linguists who treated prefixation as part of word-composition (or compounding). The greater semantic independence of prefixes as compared with suffixes led the linguists to identify prefixes with the first component part of a compound word.

Suffixation is the formation of words with the help of suffixes. Suffixes usually modify the lexical meaning of the base and transfer words to a different part of speech. There are suffixes however, which do not shift words from one part of speech into another; a suffix of this kind usually transfers a word into a different semantic group, e.g. a concrete noun becomes an abstract one, as is the case with *child* — *childhood*, *friend* — *friendship*, etc.

Word-composition is a type of word building, in which new words are produced by combining two or more stems. Compounds, though certainly fewer in quantity than derived or root words, still represent one of the most typical and specific features of English word-structure.

There are at least three aspects of composition that present special interest. The first is the structural aspect. Compounds are not homogeneous in structure. Traditionally three types are distinguished: neutral, morphological and syntactic. In *neutral compounds* the process of compounding is realised without any linking elements, by a mere juxtaposition of two stems, as in *blackbird*, *shop-window*, *sunflower*, *bedroom*, *tallboy*, etc. There are three subtypes of neutral compounds depending on the structure of the constituent stems.

The examples above represent the subtype, which may be described as simple neutral compounds: they consist of simple affixless stems. Compounds, which have affixes in their structure are called derived or derivational compounds. E.g. *absent-mindedness*, *blue-eyed*, *golden-haired*, *broad-shouldered*, *lady-killer*, *film-goer*, *music-lover*, *honey-moon-er*. The third subtype of neutral compounds is called *contracted compounds*. These words have a shortened (contracted) stem in their structure: *TV-set* (*-program*, *-show*, *-canal*, etc.), *V-day* (*Victory day*), *G-man* (*Government man* "FBI agent"), *H-bag* (*handbag*), *T-shirt*, etc.

Morphological compounds are few in number. This type is non-productive. It is represented by words in which two compounding stems are combined by a linking vowel or consonant, e.g. *Anglo-Saxon*, *Franko-Prussian*, *handiwork*, *handicraft*, *craftsmanship*, *spokesman*, *statesman*.

In syntactic compounds (the term is arbitrary) we once more find a feature of specifically English word-structure. These words are formed from segments of speech, preserving in their structure numerous traces of syntagmatic relations typical of speech: articles, prepositions, adverbs, as in the nouns *lily-of-the-valley*, *Jack-of-all-trades*, *good-for-nothing*, *mother-in-law*, *sit-at-home*. In the result of joining several stems and derivational affixes new complex and rather long words appear in the language such as *Pneumonoultramicroscopicsilicovolcanoconiosis*,

the longest word in the English language published in the Oxford English Dictionary.

Syncretism

Returning to the word structure, we should mention one more point for consideration. In the analyzed works this aspect was missed by modern authors, however, this point should be touched on as it deals with our analysis in some degree.

The semantic and formal structures of the word are correlated. Sometimes one grammatical form of the word introduced by an inflectional morpheme enables to differentiate several syntactical functions, consequently includes different meaning. Such phenomenon in linguistics is called by the term *syncretism*.

Syncretism is a term that describes a relationship between morphology and syntax, where the distinctions required by syntax are not realized by morphology for a subset of words. It is a phenomenon where a single form serves two or more morphosyntactic functions. As well as features in isolation, scholars have researched the interaction between features, identifying differing tendencies to syncretize when they occur together. For understanding the phenomenon of syncretism it is important to see it as the combination of different semantic and grammatical properties of linguistic phenomena. The well-known Russian linguist Babaytseva V.V. gives 2 interpretations in defining syncretism in the Russian linguistics:

- 1) The coincidence of functionally different grammatical categories and forms in one form. For instance, -s in the word works has meanings of person, number, tense, aspect, mood, etc.
- 2) The coincidence or synthesis of differential structural and semantic features of language units opposed to each other in the system of a language and related by transition.

The points of view are differ. For instance, one is more likely to observe syncretism within agreement features, such as gender or person, in the presence of tense, aspect, or mood than the other way round. Some scholars attribute

syncretism to grammatical homonymy, others to polysemy of the grammatical form. Although differing in their exact theoretical manifestations, there are essentially two possible interpretations of syncretism. Some scholars maintain that only one of these is tenable, while others accept that both interpretations may be valid, depending on the phenomenon being considered. Under one view, syncretism is the resort to the core meaning shared by different feature-values (meaning-based), while under the other, syncretism may be the result of systematic rules within the morphology (form-based). Evidence for the latter can be found where the feature-values involved in the syncretism do not form a natural class. (What constitutes a natural class can be contested, of course.) It is possible to identify three types of theoretical mechanism, or something similar to them, to account for syncretism: underspecification, (morphemic) indexing, referrals. These represent increasingly severe deviations from the ideal correspondence between syntactic distinctions and their realization: under specification is uninformative but respects feature structure, morphemic indexing represents a separate structure, which crosscuts syntax, while referrals are uninformative and also crosscut syntactic distinctions. (<http://www.vestnik-kafu.info/journal/6/198/>)

1.2 Problem of a morpheme and its types

In Modern linguistics it is more or less universally recognized that the smallest two-facet language unit possessing both sound-form and meaning is the *morpheme*. There are significant differences and contradictions between linguists in defining what is a morpheme. The gap between traditional and modern understanding of a morpheme is more and more increasing, therefore it requires a special detailed study of the problem of morpheme. Further, we try to analyze the morpheme's definition of some outstanding linguists.

Jan Baudouin de Courtenay defined it as “*that part of a word which is endowed with psychological autonomy and is for the very same reason not further divisible. It consequently subsumes such concepts as the root (radix), all possible affixes (suffixes, prefixes), endings which are exponents of syntactic relationships, and the like.*” He was the first who introduced the term “morpheme” and proved that not the word is the minimal language unit. But Baudouin's definition clearly intended a more general understanding of the notion of the morpheme, and this is the way it has been interpreted subsequently. In determining the morpheme most of linguists ignored its semantic features. Some of them merely meant the morpheme all the grammatical means of language (affixes, sound alternation, word stress and even intonation). Such view was held by J.Vandries and J.Maruzo. [42,18]

L.Bloomfield defines a morpheme as “*a linguistic form which bears no partial phonetic-semantic resemblance to any other form*” e.g. a form that contains no sub-part that is both phonetically and semantically identical with a part of some other form. Unpacking this slightly in the commoner formulation as “a minimal same of form and meaning”, it is the requirement that phonetic and semantic resemblances be correlated, and it yields as ‘morphemes’ the elements that result when further division would destroy that correlation. Taken literally, this definition leads to a variety of problems. One of these concerns the presence in a great many languages of “phonaesthemes”: sound-symbolic material such as the initial sl- of several English words referring to frictionless movement (slip, slide, slither, etc.); the initial gl- of words like glow, gleam, glitter, glimmer, glare,

etc. referring to light emitted from a fixed source. Bloomfield enumerates a number of these (without really addressing the issue they pose for his definition of the morpheme), and they have been discussed often (if inconclusively) in the subsequent literature. What is at stake in these partial resemblances is a similarity in (reasonably) concrete semantics, and so it is unlikely that exactly parallel phenomena exist in the domain of purely grammatical inflectional morphology, but their bearing on the general notion of the morpheme remains.

Bergen shows that these meaningful sub-parts of words are quite real for speakers, but linguists have not really known what to do with them. There is general agreement that they are not to be identified as morphemes, but the basis for excluding them is quite unclear. They have distinctive (if sometimes rather vague) semantics, correlated with distinctive phonological shape. It is not possible to write them off on the basis that the residue once they are subtracted is typically not a recurrent element itself — why is the decomposition of *glimmer* as *gl* + *immer* fundamentally more problematic than that of *huckleberry* as *huckle* + *berry*? Linguists are of one voice, however that there must be a principled difference. Bloomfield calls these resemblances root-forming morphemes, thus treating them as a sort of morpheme, but others have generally wanted to find some analysis that does not have that consequence. [51,3-4]

Another difficulty is more technical, and served as the basis of subsequent elaboration. Bloomfield's definition seems to assume that morphemes have a determinate phonological content, and as such is closer to the later usage of the term *morph* or *allomorph*.

A *morph* is defined as the phonetic realization of a morpheme which study the unit of form, sounds and phonetic symbol while an *allomorph* is variant form of morpheme about the sounds and phonetic symbols but it doesn't change the meaning.

It is worthwhile to consolidate the term *allomorpheme* for the morpheme variants. The emic suffix emphasizes that it belongs not only to speech but to language. The Russian linguist Maslov Yu.S. defines allomorphemes as both

exponential options as *нек-*, *неч-* in Russian *неку*, *нечешь* and contextual variants as *неч-*, *нек-* with meaning *to bake (bread)* and *to bake (in the sun)*. In the respect of its variants morpheme defines as invariant. The paradigmatic identity of morpheme as invariant is provided by mismatching of its 2 variants (exponential and contextual) in the cross tie that exists between exponential and contextual variants of one morpheme. [28]

Later linguists (e.g. Harris, Bloch, Hockett, Nida) refined the notion along the lines of the developing structuralist understanding of the phoneme. Just as phonemes came to be seen as abstract elements realized by members of a set of phonetic segments (their allophones), so morphemes were interpreted as abstract structural elements realized by members of a set of concrete phonological forms (allomorphs). Bloomfield's actual practice is quite in line with this — he treats *duke* and *duchessas* sharing a morpheme with two alternants, even though it is hard to derive this analysis from his definition. The resulting view involves a commitment to several basic principles:

- a. Morphemes are homogeneous, indivisible atomic units of linguistic form linking some component(s) of meaning with a set of mutually exclusive allomorphs that express it.
- b. Each morpheme has a determinate semantic content, and each allomorph has a determinate phonological form.
- c. Words are composed exhaustively of morphemes.
- d. Each morpheme in a word is represented by one and only one allomorph; and each allomorph represents one and only one morpheme.

Hjelmslev limits the use of morpheme to a unit of content (not form) corresponding only to inflectional categories, and not other meaningful elements (though it is quite difficult to place Hjelmslev's views on this, as on many other basic notions, in relation to those of other scholars). The restricted uses of the term by Martinet, Hjelmslev and their colleagues, however, did not represent in themselves important differences between European and American understandings of the structure of complex words.

The Swedish linguist Adolf Noreen also used the word morpheme in a somewhat idiosyncratic way. For Noreen, a morpheme was “*an expression with a unitary associated meaning*”, defined recursively so that affixes, words, and phrases all count as morphemes: dog, -s, dogs, big dogs, etc. are all morphemes on this view, which goes together with a usage of phoneme that allows it to apply to arbitrarily long segments of phonetic form, rather than to an individual segment.

Halle assumes that morphemes are of two sorts, distinguished by their phonological nature. One type, concrete morphemes, are characterized by “*a single fixed underlying phonological representation.*” These are to be distinguished from abstract morphemes, which “do not have a fixed phonological shape” and thus “lack a phonological underlying representation in the vocabulary entries.” While the examples of abstract morphemes that he considers are inflectional in nature, Halle resists the suggestion that the distinction between concrete and abstract morphemes is equivalent to that between stem and derivation, on the one hand, and inflection on the other. Halle’s distinction between concrete and abstract morphemes is problematic on various grounds, but what is significant about it is the proposal that at least some morphemes constitute the basic components of words from the point of view of the syntax, and are only supplied with phonological form at a late point in the derivation through the operation of the ‘spell-out’ process. This conception is extended to all morphemes (stems and affixes). That theory implements the view that only the morphosyntactic properties of an element, and not its specific semantics or phonology, are relevant and visible to the syntax. [51,6-8]

Thus, analyzing some approaches of defining the morpheme of acknowledged linguists we can conclude that as the basic property of the above analyzed language unit can be noted its ability to enjoy semantic meaning.

The problem of semantic peculiarities of morphemes

Yet, whereas the phono-morphological structure of language has been subjected to a thorough linguistic analysis, the problem of types of meaning and

semantic peculiarities of morphemes has not been properly investigated. A few points of interest, however, may be mentioned in connection with some recent observations in this field. Many English words consist of a single root-morpheme, so when we say that most morphemes possess lexical meaning we imply mainly the root-morphemes in such words. It may be easily observed that the lexical meaning of the word *boy* and the lexical meaning of the root-morpheme *boy* - in such words as *boyhood*, *boyish* and others is very much the same.

Just as in words lexical meaning in morphemes may also be analyzed into denotational and connotational components. The connotational component of meaning may be found not only in root-morphemes but in affixational morphemes as well. Endearing and diminutive suffixes, e.g. *-ette* (*kitchenette*), *-ie(y)* (*dearie*), *-ling* (*duckling*), clearly bear a heavy emotive charge.

Comparing the derivational morphemes with the same denotational meaning we see that they sometimes differ in connotation only. The morphemes, e.g. *-ly*, *-like*, *-ish*, have the denotational meaning of similarity in the words *womanly*, *womanlike*, *womanish*, the connotational component, however, differs and ranges from the positive evaluation in *-ly* (*womanly*) to the derogatory in *-ish* (*womanish*). Stylistic reference may also be found in morphemes of different types. The stylistic value of such derivational morphemes as, e.g. *-ine* (*chlorine*), *-oid* (*rhomboid*), *-escence* (*effervescence*) is clearly perceived to be bookish or scientific. The lexical meaning of the affixal morphemes is, as a rule, of a more generalizing character. The suffix *-er*, e.g. carries the meaning 'the agent, the doer of the action', the suffix-less denotes lack or absence of something. It should also be noted that the root-morphemes do not "possess the part-of-speech meaning (cf. *manly*, *manliness*, *to man*); in derivational morphemes the lexical and the part-of-speech meaning may be so blended as to be almost inseparable. In the derivational morphemes *-er* and *-less* discussed above the lexical meaning is just as clearly perceived as their part-of-speech meaning. In some morphemes, however, for instance *-ment* or *-ous* (as in *movement* or *laborious*), it is the part-of speech meaning that prevails, the lexical meaning is but vaguely felt.

In some cases the functional meaning predominates. The morpheme *-ice* in the word *justice*, e.g., seems to serve principally to transfer the part-of-speech meaning of the morpheme *just*— into another class and namely that of noun. It follows that some morphemes possess only the functional meaning, i.e. they are the carriers of part-of-speech meaning. Besides the types of meaning proper both to words and morphemes the latter may possess specific meanings of their own, namely the differential and the distributional meanings.

Differential meaning is the semantic component that serves to distinguish one word from all others containing identical morphemes. In words consisting of two or more morphemes, one of the constituent morphemes always has differential meaning. In such words as, e. g., *bookshelf*, the morpheme *-shelf* serves to distinguish the word from other words containing the morpheme *book-*, e.g. from *bookcase*, *book-counter* and so on. In other compound words, e.g. *notebook*, the morpheme *note-* will be seen to possess the differential meaning which distinguishes notebook from *exercisebook*, *copybook*, etc. It should be clearly understood that denotational and differential meanings are not mutually exclusive. Naturally the morpheme *-shelf* in *bookshelf* possesses denotational meaning which is the dominant component of meaning. There are cases, however, when it is difficult or even impossible to assign any denotational meaning to the morpheme, e.g. *cran-* in *cranberry*, yet it clearly bears a relationship to the meaning of the word as a whole through the differential component which in this particular case comes to the fore.

Distributional meaning is the meaning of the order and arrangement of morphemes making up the word. It is found in all words containing more than one morpheme. The word *singer*, e.g., is composed of two morphemes *sing-* and *-er* both of which possess the denotational meaning and namely ‘to make musical sounds’ (*sing-*) and ‘the doer of the action’ (*-er*). There is one more element of meaning, however, that enables us to understand the word and that is the pattern of arrangement of the component morphemes. A different arrangement of the same morphemes, e.g. **ersing*, would make the word meaningless. Compare also

boyishness and **nessishboy* in which a different pattern of arrangement of the three morphemes *boy-ish-ness* turns it into a meaningless string of sounds. [53,24-25]

Classification of morphemes

Another aspect in studying of a morpheme is its classification. The authors of various modern works give different classifications of morphemes. For example, it is given the classification according to the degree of correspondence to the morphemic status. Morphemes are divided into principal and peripheral. The former express all of the three features: meaning, indivisibility and repeatability and perform word-forming, word-building, syncretic and distinctive functions. Peripheral ones do not carry out the material intensity. They are zero, suppletive, intefixes, unifixes, radiocoids. [27,6; 29,9] Some of linguists such as Pr.Tarasova also distinguish affixoids – the root morphemes analogical to affixes. Having analyzed her work we cannot agree with her opinion. We are sure that such called affixoids are still roots, which fulfil their syncretic function in more degree.

We give our classification of morphemes:

- a) from the semantic point of view
- b) from the structural point of view
- c) from the formal (positional) point of view

Semantic classification of morphemes

Semantically morphemes fall into two classes: *root morphemes* and *non-root* or *affixational* morphemes. Roots and affixes make two distinct classes of morphemes due to the different roles they play in word-structure. Roots and affixational morphemes are generally easily distinguished and the difference between them is clearly felt as, e.g., in the words *helpless*, *handy*, *blackness*, *Londoner*, *refill*, etc.: the root-morphemes *help-*, *hand-*, *black-*, *London-*, *-fill* are understood as the lexical centres of the words, as the basic constituent part of a word without which the word is inconceivable.

The root morpheme is the lexical nucleus of a word, it has an individual lexical meaning shared by no other morpheme of the language. Besides, it may also possess all other types of meaning proper to morphemes except the part-of-speech meaning which is not found in roots. The root-morpheme is isolated as the morpheme common to a set of words making up a word-cluster, for example the morpheme *teach*-in *to teach, teacher, teaching, theor-* in *theory, theorist, theoretical, etc.*

Non-root morphemes include inflectional morphemes or inflections and affixational morphemes or affixes. Inflections carry only grammatical meaning and are thus relevant only for the formation of word forms, whereas affixes are relevant for building various types of stems — the part of a word that remains unchanged throughout its paradigm. In the English language there are 12 inflectional morphemes: -s (plural), -'s (possessive), -s (3rd person), -er (comparative), -est (superlative), -ed (past tense), -ed (past participle), -ing (present participle), -ing (gerund), -n (-en) (second participle of certain verbs), -n (-en) (plural).

Structural classification of morphemes

Structurally morphemes fall into four types: free, bound, fused and zero.

Free morpheme is defined as one that coincides with the stem or a word-form. A great many root-morphemes are free morphemes, for example, the root-morpheme *friend* — of the noun *friendship* is naturally qualified as a free morpheme because it coincides with one of the forms of the noun *friend*.

Bound morpheme occurs only as a constituent part of a word. Affixes are, naturally, bound morphemes, for they always make part of a word, e.g. the suffixes *-ness, -ship, -ise (-ize)*, etc., the prefixes *un-, re-, co-*, etc. Root-morphemes may be both free and bound. The morphemes *theor-* in the words *theory, theoretical*, or *horr-* in the words *horror, horrible, horrify* are bound roots as there are no identical word-forms.

Fused morpheme in the words *really, beautifully* where phoneme (l) is found in both morphs and one (l) is pronounced. We face with the phenomenon called

fusion. Both “*real*” and “*ly*” in the parts of the word *really* are both fused morphemes. [62,15]

Zero morphemes on their own part, are morphemes that are not explicitly marked. For example, in ‘*the sheep are grazing*’, the plural morpheme in *sheep* is a zero morpheme while the past tense of ‘cast’, ‘hit’ are also morphologically marked by zero morphemes.

Positional morphemes

According to their position in the word, morphemes are divided into prefixes, infixes, interfixes and postfixes. A *prefix* is the bound morpheme that comes before the base form or root. Examples are *de-* in ‘*desalt*’, *ante-* in ‘*antenatal*’. An *interfix* is an affix that is placed between two stems which together form a compound. For example, *speedometer*, *handicraft*. The terms *linking element* or *linker* frequently serve as synonyms of interfixes defined here, but some authors who employ linking element for empty signs in compounding use interfix for similar elements in derivation or as a cover term for both. An *infix* is the bound morpheme, which is inserted within the root or stem. Infixation, the process of using infixes in words, is not very common in English language. It is realized replacively as in words like ‘*men*’, ‘*feet*’, ‘*geese*’, etc. A postfix is the bound morpheme that comes after the root or stem, such as ‘*electron-ic*’, ‘*physic-ian*’, ‘*heat-ing*’. In a language mixed types of positional morphemes are more frequent.

Close observation and comparison of words clearly show us that a great number of words have a composite nature and are made up of smaller units - morphemes, each possessing sound-form and meaning. Further, we try to define and analyze the word structure and types of morphemes in the English and Russian languages in comparison, to investigate qualitatively and quantitatively the morphemic and semantic structure of the word, and also work out methodical recommendations for teaching it in Modern English at Russian schools.

CHAPTER 2: Comparative study of the word structure in Modern English and Russian

2.1. Comparative study of the word structure in Modern English and Russian

Semantic structure of English and Russian words

Despite the fact that the English and Russian languages belong to one and the same Indo-European language family, the typology of their morphological and semantic system sharply differs as a result of the historical development and different cultures. In this chapter, we have analyzed the major number of works belonging to well-known authors and some dissertations of modern linguists and tried to give a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the semantic and morphemic structure of English and Russian words.

Comparing words in English and Russian, we have found out that in some points the meaning of the analyzed words in the two languages coincides, and differ in other points. Thus, the Russian verb *«ходить»* have the similar meaning with the English verb *“to go”* both of which show the meaning of movement. However, the Russian *«ходить»* also has the meaning of *“independent moving”* (*«передвижение на ногах»* according to the Ozhegov’s dictionary) and it is strictly opposed to the word *«ехать»*. In English we cannot find a such index or clear opposition with the meaning *«ехать»*. So, on the grounds of this example we can say that there are some differences in the semantic structure of corresponding to each other Russian and English words.

The nominative field of the concept consists of the units, the synonyms or similars of the given word, which may replace the key word in the certain contexts. These units can be described with the help of cognitive-semantic analysis. Before starting the analysis we should identify the notions of *“sememe”*, *“seme”* and *“concept”*. Sememe can be defined as each meaning of a polysemantic word while semes are the smallest parts of meaning contained in the sememe. Concept can be understood as a mental formation, which possesses a specific cultural value, and

represents elements of the world for people in the course of reflection and communication from the point of view of Neroznak. The study of concepts is valuable because it helps us to identify the culturally specific world view of a certain lingual-cultural community. It also allows us to understand the word (as a lexical unit) in the context of culture, cognition, and communication.

Zorina V.V. suggests analyzing the concept “*catastrophe*” in English and «*катастрофа*» in Russian. Analyzing her work we reach the conclusion that the lexical objectivation of the concept “*catastrophe*” performed by 18 language units: *cataclysm, tragedy, battle, explosion, war, pollution, earthquake, eruption, fire, warming, rainfall, cyclone, tsunami, accident, crash, casualty, calamity, disaster*. 17 language units perform the lexical objectivation of the Russian concept “*катастрофа*”: *крах, война, разгром, землетрясение, пожар, взрыв, ураган, извержение, парниковый эффект, потоп, цунами, буря, авария, крушение, катаклизм, бедствие, трагедия*.

For analyzing the conceptual structure of words the modern linguist Bashkirtseva O. in her work suggests to compare the conceptual aspects of the word “*beauty*” in English and Russian.

The concept “*beauty*” which we are going to analyze can be found in every ethnic culture, its existence is universal. To compare the concept of beauty in English and «*красота*» in Russian we identified and described the conceptual aspects of the concept “*beauty*”, and conducted a comparative analysis of the suggested concept. A concept can be viewed as the structure with its core, periphery and far periphery. The core characteristics are most commonly used notions about the concept, and the farther from the core, the more rare they are. To determine the conceptual aspects of the concept of beauty in the Russian language we studied explanatory articles for several entries in the explanatory dictionaries of the Russian language by Ozhegov S.I. (1999), Shvedova N.(1986), Ushakov F. (2003), Dahl V.(1995, 2005).The analysis of the articles, dictionaries showed that the main meanings expressed by the concept are:

- a characteristic feature, ornament, delight;
- something that gives pleasure and joy to the senses (vision, hearing) or mind;
- an abstract notion
- attractiveness due to pleasant appearance or inner world

These characteristics are the conceptual core of the concept "beauty" in Russian. Other features make up the periphery of the conceptual core of the concept "beauty", such as:

- beauty as an interjection expressing feelings;
- beauty referring to a girl;
- beauty as a young female;
- beauty as the braid of a girl.

According to the author's survey of Russian respondents, most Russian-speakers defined "beauty" as harmony, a kind of feature that causes a person to experience positive emotions, satisfying the aesthetic needs of the person. When asked what might be beautiful respondents often mentioned a person's appearance, nature, or works of art. The results of the survey indicate that the conceptual meanings comprising the concept can be divided into 3 groups according to their relation to the core component:

- 1) those that specify the features contained in the conceptual core, detected by the analysis of dictionary definitions (referring to the nature or works of art that delight the senses and the mind);
- 2) those that coincide with the nuclear conceptual features - something that satisfies the aesthetic needs of a human, brings delight and pleasure;

3) those that comprise new conceptual features such as harmony, certain perceptions of the world, perfection, or ideal happiness.

To identify the conceptual aspects of the concept "beauty" in English, we reviewed entries of four dictionaries: "Chambers's Dictionary" edited by William Geddie (1952); "Webster's Seventh New Collegiate Dictionary" (1966); "Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English" edited by Hornby A.S. (1980); "The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language" edited by William Morris (1979).

Our analysis reveals that all these dictionaries determine beauty as:

- 1) the combination of qualities that give pleasure and joy to the senses (vision and hearing) and mind;
- 2) as a set of qualities glorifying the soul;
- 3) as an especially good feature;
- 4) as an elegant, superb quality.

These characteristics are the conceptual core of the concept "beauty" in English. Such meanings of beauty as proportion, symmetry, beauty spot meaning a mole, beauty shop meaning a beauty salon make up the periphery of the conceptual core of the concept "beauty", as they do not occur that often.

Table 1. Comparison of concepts in the conceptual aspect

	BEAUTY (in Russian)	BEAUTY (in English)
Core	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - сочетание качеств, доставляющее удовольствие и радость чувствам или уму - пышность, роскошь - красивая, привлекательная наружность - о чём-н. очень хорошем, впечатляющем, - всё красивое, прекрасное, всё то, что доставляет эстетическое и нравственное наслаждение - элегантный, превосходный - красавица - совершенный, идеальный - прелесть, очарование - девичьи прелести - то, что производит художественное наслаждение 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - combination of qualities that give pleasure and joy to the senses (vision, hearing), or mind; - luxury, property, - attractive or handsome - especially good feature; - distinguishing feature, causing a person to experience positive emotions, satisfying aesthetic needs; - elegant, superb quality. - young female; beautiful woman - perfection, the ideal; - charm; - woman's breasts - feature, causing a person to experience artistic feelings

	- <i>set of qualities, glorifying the soul;</i>
Peripherals	- <i>салон красоты</i> - <i>конкурс красоты</i>	- <i>beauty shop; beauty salon</i> - <i>beauty contest</i> - <i>proportion, symmetry;</i>
The far periphery	- <i>гармония</i> - <i>свойство восприятия мира</i> - <i>красивые места; красоты природы</i> - <i>девичья коса</i> - <i>междометие, очень красиво, хорошо, ловко</i>	- <i>harmony</i> - <i>person's certain perception of the world;</i> - <i>the charms / beauty of nature</i> - <i>beauty of relationships</i>

The comparative table of conceptual aspect shows that the conceptual core of the concept "beauty" in Russian and English match on the grounds of the properties and qualities that bring delight to a person. However, it should be noted that the "internal" beauty, representing the inner, spiritual nature of a person is expressed more clearly in the conceptual core of the English concept and is accompanied by ethical evaluation (glorifying the soul). Also in the conceptual core of the concept expressed in English there is a sign of the intensity of the ethical evaluation of this phenomenon (an especially good feature), which is absent in the conceptual core of the Russian concept. The far periphery of the conceptual aspect of the Russian concept is richer than the far periphery of the English

concept, indicating a diffuse structure of the conceptual aspect of the Russian concept "beauty". To summarize what was said above, it is necessary to mention that Humboldt was right when he stated that different languages are different world views and to add to this – they are different concepts, which reflect this world view in the language. [4, 77]

Morphemic structure of English and Russian words

Belonging to the Slavonic languages, Russian has a fundamentally different grammatical system from English. Although it has almost the same grammar categories, Russian is an inflective language of the synthetic system, in which the majority of grammatical forms are created through changes in the structure of words, by means of a developed system of prefixes, suffixes and inflectional endings, which indicate declension, conjugation, person, number, gender and tense. English, on the other hand, is an analytic language of the synthetic structure, in which grammatical meaning is largely expressed through the use of additional words and by changes in word order.

In both languages we face with the same types of words:

simple words: *cat – кот, table – стол, book – книга;*

derived words: *singer – певец, artist – артист;*

composite words: *classroom, blackberry; паролод, самолет;*

mixed type of words: *baby-sitter, blackmailer; паролодный (гудок), паролодчик;*

Due to their morphological structure the words in the compared languages may be distributed into the following types:

R-type (consisting of a root morpheme) is distinguished in both languages.

On, and, he, it, in, etc. in English and *на, но, он, ты, etc.* in Russian.

S-type (consisting of a stem coinciding the word) is characteristic for the English language. Overwhelming majority of notional words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, numerals) in English refer to this type. In the contrast, in the Russian language above mentioned notional words consist of two morphemes (stem and word changing morpheme), rarely of three. [2,218]

Compare: *book, brother, kind, teach* – contain only the stem coinciding the word.

книг -а, брат -□, добр -ый, уч -ить consist of a stem and an affix.

город -ск -ой, книж -н -ый, уч -ить -ся consist of a root morpheme, an affix forming a stem of the word together with the root morpheme and a word-changing morpheme. In Russian the stem usually doesn't coincide with the root in the sound structure. e.g. *железный* has the stem *железн-* which consists of the root morpheme *желез-* and affix *-н*. In English the stem coincides the root in the sound structure, as a rule. e.g. In the word *friendship* the stem *friend* coincides the root and the affix *-ship* is added. [2,217]

Any word of notional parts of speech in both languages is able to form both (1) a word-changing row which consists of word-changing morphemes and (2) a word-forming row which consists of affixes and helps to create new words:

- 1) *дом – дома – дому – домов – домам – домам, etc.*
town – towns, take – takes – took – taking – taken, large – larger – largest
- 2) *дом – домик –домишко –домище, etc.*
own – owner – ownership

For describing the morphemic structure of words and the system of word-building we can use the method of typological indexes suggested by J.Greenberg and developed by Kubryakova E.S.. Repeating the procedure we have got the following indexes for the English and Russian languages:

Index	English		Russian	
	Greenberg	Kubryakova	Greenberg	Kubryakova
Synthetic Degree	1,68	-	2,33	2,45
Derivation	0,15	0,23	0,37	
Suffixation	0,64	0,19	1,15	1,21
Prefixation	0,04	0,04	0,17	
Word composition	1,00	1,07		

Analyzing the results we can conclude that:

1-Russian is considerably more synthetic language than English; a larger number of derivative words is peculiar to it.

2-Derivation is more characterized in Russian.

3-Suffixation predominates over prefixation in both languages.

4-Word composition is more characterized in English. [2,220]

However, we can disagree with the last statement. We are sure that word composition is characteristics of the Russian language much more. Why so? The answer was found by another new linguist Kuzmina I. She has proved that the number of simple words in English consist 4/5 part of all English words while in Russian only the half of them belongs to the simple type. The Russian language has twice more derivative and compound words than English. This correlation points out that Russian has the more developed system of affixation and word-composition. [26, 98]

Moreover, of the 2 tendency of affixation – agglutination and fusion - in the Russian language fusion is developed most of all. Just fusion as the character of the stem and affixes connection is determined as the defining tendency of the grammatical system of Russian words. And English prefers the agglutinative type of the connection of morphemes in words, which is characterized by a clear delimitation of morphemes. But Kubryakova's results in researching this aspect show that in English word-building the fusional connection dominates in the process of the formation of derivative and compound words. Thus, the usage of inflections says that English prefers analytical grammatical methods to inflective-synthetic ones in forming grammatical meanings.

Russian words have more complex structure and can consist of 7 morphemes. English words usually contain maximum 5 morphemes, mono- or bimorphemic words are found more frequently. It is worth to mention that in both languages the word length narrows if the word loses its notional degree. Consequently, only words of notional parts of speech can be distinct as the longest. Thus, *pneumonoultramicroscopicsilicovolcanoconiosis* is the longest English word

published in the Oxford English Dictionary that refers to a lung disease, which consist of 8 morphemes while the longest word in Russian is *никотинамидадениндинуклеотидфосфатгидрин* having the Latin origin and containing 7 morphemes.

On the base of a quantitative analysis, it is established that notional and functional words differ on the morphemic correlation. These differences are associated with the functional-semantic dissimilarities between notional and functional roots. It is generally acknowledged that in Russian there dominated the root, postfixal and prepostfixal words while English words have the root and postfixal structure. It is associated with the fact that in the system of verb what is expressed by prefixes in Russian usually expressed by postpositions in English.

e.g. *прийти* - come, *войти* – come in, *выйти* – come out, *подойти* – come up to

In order to show the morphemic structure of both analyzed languages in details we should pass to the next section and study all types of morphemes, which exist in both languages.

2.2 Comparative study of types of morphemes in English and Russian

In the first chapter, we have analyzed all the morpheme types of English words from the semantic, structural and formal points of view. Further, we have tried to identify morpheme types in the Russian language and compare them with English types. Both in English and in Russian we have the same types of morphemes, but they differ in the total number and frequency of using. In English as well as in the Russian language morphemes in words serve either for word formation or for changing word forms.

1. In both languages we find out **root or free morphemes**: *cat –кот, door-дверь*.

2. **Bound morphemes** are established in both compared languages:

Prefixes and **suffixes (postfixes)** are found in Russian as well as in English. However, Russian has more developed prefix- and postfix-positional structures than English has.

e.g. *чит-ать – по-чит-ать – пере-чит-ать – про-чит-ать – до-чит-ать – с-чит-ать – при-чит-ать – на-читанный; дом – дом-ик –дом-ишк-о - дом-ищ-е – дом-н-ая (печь) – дом-ашн-ий – дом-ов-ой, etc.*

e.g. *terr-or – ter-rify – terr-or-ist – terri-fic – terr-ible; change – un-changed – inter-change – re-change – ex-changed.*

The both languages have **interfixes**.

In Russian, we distinguish the following interfixes:

-o- (неб-о-свод, пар-о-ход); -e- (мор-е-ход); -и- (пят-и-колесный); -ex- (тр-ex-минутный); -ух- (дв-ух-летний). In English, there are a fewer number of interfixes: *-s- (sport-s-man, sale-s-man); -o- (speed-o-meter, Afr-o-Asian); -is (hand-i-craft);* most of compound words are formed without linking element: *strawberry, classroom, sitting-room, hide-and-peek, etc.*

The Russian language is much richer in **inflections** than English.

The number of inflections used for deriving word-forms in Modern English is very small, much smaller than in Russian. There is the ending *-s* (*-es*), with three variants of pronunciation and the endings *-en* and *-ren*, in one or two words each, viz. oxen, brethren, children. There is the ending *'s*, with the same three variants of pronunciation as for the plural ending, used to form what is generally termed the genitive case of nouns. For adjectives, there are also the inflections *-er* and *-est* for the degrees of comparison. For verbs, there is the ending *-s* (*-es*) for the third person, singular, present, indicative with the same three variants of pronunciation noted above for nouns; the ending *-d* (*-ed*) for the past tense of certain verbs (with three variants of pronunciation, again); the ending *-d* (*ed*) for the second participle of certain verbs; the ending *-n* (*-en*) for the second participle of certain other verbs; the ending *-ing* for the first participle and also for the gerund.

Thus, the total number of morphemes used to derive forms of words is 11 or 12, which is much less than the number found in languages of a mainly synthetic structure as Russian.

In the latter one we distinguish the following inflections:

Nouns: according to gender and number: *сестр-а, тет-я, пап-а, дяд-я, окн-о, солнц-е; сестр-ы, тет-и, окн-а, мор-я, доч-ери*; according to case: *сестр-а – сестр-ы – сестр-е – сестр-у – сестр-ой – сестр-е, тет-я – тет-и – тет-е – тет-ю – тет-ей – тет-е, окн-о – окн-а – окн-у – окн-о – окн-ом – окн-е, мор-е – мор-я – мор-ю – мор-е – мор-ем – мор-е, сестр-ы – сест-ер – сестр-ам – сест-ер – сестр-ами – сестр-ах, мор-я – мор-ей – мор-ям – мор-я – мор-ями – мор-ях*;

Adjectives: according to gender and number: *красив-ый, красив-ая, красив-ое, красив-ые*; according to case: *красив-ый – красив-ого –красив-ому –красив-ого –красив-ым –красив-ом, красив-ая –красив-ой –красив-ой –красив-ую – красив-ой –красив-ой, красив-ые –красив-ых –красив-ым –красив-ых –красив-ыми –красив-ых*;

Verbs: *чита-ю* – *чита-еишь* – *чита-ет* – *чита-ем* – *чита-ете* – *чита-ют*,
пиш-у – *пиш-ут*, *спеш-у*, *спеш-ишь* – *спеш-ит* – *спеш-им* – *спеш-ите* – *спеш-ат*,
написал-а, *написал-и*, etc.

3. We also can find **fused morphemes** not only in English but also in Russian:

real-ly, *beautiful-ly*, etc.

осен-ний, *корен-ной*, *рас-свет*, *рас-сылать*, etc.

4. There may be **zero morphemes**, that is, the absence of a morpheme may indicate a certain meaning. Thus, if we compare the forms *book* and *books*, both derived from the stem *book-*, we may say that while *books* is characterized by the *-s* morpheme as being a plural form, *a book* is characterized by the zero morpheme as being a singular form. The same in Russian: *столы* – *стол*□, *кони* – *конь*□.

An additional remark is necessary here: two or more morphemes may sound the same but be, basically, different, that is, they may be homonymous, synonymous and antonymous. Thus the *-er* morpheme indicating the doer of an action as in *writer* has a homonym — the morpheme *-er* denoting the comparative degree of adjectives and adverbs, as in *longer*. Which of the two homonymous morphemes is actually there in a given case can of course only be determined by examining the other morphemes in the word. Thus, the morpheme *-er* in our first example, *writer*, cannot possibly be the morpheme of the comparative degree, as the morpheme *writ-* to which it is joined on is not the stem of an adjective or adverb, and so no comparative degree is to be thought of here. The same in Russian: in the words *артист-к-а*, *гимнаст-к-а* — we face with the meaning of female profession, in *голов-к-а*, *кровать-к-а* suffix *-к-* gives the diminutive meaning. In words *волч-иц-а* – *волч-их-а*, *герой-ств-о* – *геро-изм*; *гор-ец*, *тул-як*, *москв-ич* the suffixes are synonymous but they have stylistic differences. The English suffixes in *Japan-ese*, *Afric-an*, *Canad-ian*, *Austral-ian*, *Brit-ish*, *Scott-ish*; *teach-er*, *act-or* and *art-ist* are also synonymous when they give the meaning of the

doer of the action. The suffixes in the Russian words *нос-ик* – *нос-ищ-е* show the antonymous relation as in the English suffixes *-ful* and *-less* in the words *pain-ful* – *pain-less*, etc.

Grammatical (structural) meaning of morphemes

In grammar, we are concerned with the grammatical or structural meaning of morphemes: we do not here study the meanings of root morphemes, which are necessarily lexical, and as to derivation morphemes. For example, those which serve to build words, we are only interested in them in so far as they are grammatically relevant, and that is the case if they show that the word belongs to a certain part of speech, and if they serve to distinguish one part of speech from another. This grammatical significance of derivation morphemes, if it is there at all, is always combined with their lexical meaning. For instance, if we take this pair of words: *write* v. and *writer* n., the derivative morpheme *-er* has a grammatical significance, as it serves to distinguish a noun from a verb, and it has its lexical meaning, as the lexical meaning of the noun *writer* is different from that of the verb *write*.

Inflection morphemes have no lexical meaning or function. There is not the slightest difference in the way of lexical meaning between *live* and *lived*, or between *house* and *houses*. However, an inflection morpheme can acquire a lexical meaning in some special cases, for instance if the plural form of a noun develops a meaning which the singular form has not; thus, the plural form *colours* has a meaning, 'flag', which the singular form *colour* has not. These are cases of lexicalisation.

Grammatical semes

One and the same morpheme can express various semes. For example, in the word *works* morpheme *-s* expresses semes of singularity, personality (III person), tense (present simple), mood (indicative), etc. In the Russian word *месяц-ем* the morpheme *-ем* performs the semes of singularity, thingness, case (instrumental), gender (masculine). Another distinctive feature of Russian morphemes is the seme of grammatical gender. Such suffixes as *-ач*, *-овец*, *-ник*, *-тель*, *-чик*, *-щик*

indicate the carrier of action: *торг -овец, уче-ник, учи-тель*. In English, we can also find similar word-forming affixes characterizing the certain parts of speech: *friend-ship, arrange-ment (nouns), use-ful, chang-able (adjectives), etc.*

Moreover, the Russian postfixes *-овк-а, -ниц-а, -щиц-а* show the belonging of a person to the feminine gender. Most of the English words (with some exceptions as *actr-ess, tiger-ess*) don't have the sense of grammatical gender: *учитель – a teacher, учительница – a teacher; торговец – a seller, торговка – a seller.*

Semes of singularity in the Russian language are expressed either by affixes (inflections) or by zero morphemes: *ручѐ-ѝ (м.р.), ста-я, птиц-а (ж.р.), мор-ѐ, окн-о, вре-мя (ср.р.), город□, дверь□*. In contrast in English semes of singularity are performed only by zero morphemes: *town□, play□, foot□*. Semes of plurality in Russian are expressed by following morphemes: *мост-ы, песн-и, город-а*. The English language also has semes of plurality such as *-s, -es* in *book-s, dress-es, -en in childr-en, etc.*

According to the number of morphemes, words can be classified into monomorphic and polymorphic. Monomorphic or root-words consist of only one root-morpheme, e.g. *small, dog, make, give, etc.* All polymorphic words fall into two subgroups: derived words and compound words – according to the number of root-morphemes they have. Derived words are composed of one root-morpheme and one or more derivational morphemes, e.g. *acceptable, outdo, disagreeable, etc.* Composite words are those, which contain at least two root morphemes, the number of derivational morphemes being insignificant. There can be both root and derivational morphemes in composites as in *pen-holder, light-mindedness*, or only root morphemes as in *lamp-shade, eye-ball, etc.* Nevertheless, we cannot fail to perceive that root words occupy a predominant place. In English, according to the recent frequency counts, about 60% of the total number of nouns and 62% of the total number of adjectives in current use are root words. Of the total number of adjectives and nouns, derived words comprise about 38% and 37% respectively while compound words comprise an insignificant 2% in nouns and 0.2% in adjectives. Thus, it is the root words that constitute the foundation and the

backbone of the vocabulary and that are of paramount importance in speech. It should also be mentioned that root words are characterized by a high degree of collocability and a complex variety of meanings in contrast with words of other structural types whose semantic structures are much poorer. Root words also serve as parent forms for all types of derived and compound words. The Russian postfix *-ик* joining to the root morphemes of nouns gives the additional diminutive meaning. The English morpheme *-ness* joining to the root morphemes of adjectives forms a noun with common meaning of state or quality. It is clear that both root and derivative lexical units have their own meanings. Such a totality of meanings of lexical units got the name of a lexeme. Thus, a word with all its lexical meanings is a lexeme.

The word structure is also closely connected with word-building. Morphological way of enriching the word stock is based on word-building models (postfixal, prefixal, prepostfixal). E.g. *задач-ник, над-пись, под-снеж-ник*.

The correlation of different morpheme types indicates a high degree of grammaticality of both languages. Word-forming affixes always take a postfixal position and are subdivided into suffixes and inflections. Among word-building affixes postfixal morphs in the English and Russian texts predominate over prefixal ones. In Russian suffixes and inflections are the most common in use and consist 31,98% in notional parts of speech and 16,35% of the total number of morphemes in the Russian text. In English inflections consist 31,6% and suffixes – 12,9% of common number of morphemes in the English text.

1. A compound word in both languages may consist of 2 or more components

2. There are 3 ways of linking components:

a) with the help of a special linker (inner inflection):

ENGLISH: sportsman, speedometer; RUSSIAN: паровоз, пылесос, небосвод

b) without any linker:

ENGLISH: snowball, railway, RUSSIAN: времяисчисление, впередсмотрящий, кислородсодержащий

c) with the help of a special auxiliary, i. e. syntactically:

ENGLISH: commander-in-chief, hide-and-peek, RUSSIAN: диван-кровать, плащ-палатка

3. It is possible to distinguish 3 types of syntactic relations:

a) the predicative type which corresponds to the sentence structure:

e.g. *sunrise = [N + N] > the sun rises*; thus the components of a compound are transformed into a sentence; *водонад > вода надает; парход > пар идёт*;

b) the attributive type which corresponds to the attributive word combination:

e.g. *bluebell = [Adj + N] > blue bell; чернозём > чёрная земля; газопровод > газовый провод*

c) the object type which corresponds to a verbal word combination:

e.g. *turnscrew = [N + N] > turn the screw - that which turns the screw; винодел > делать вино; сталевар > варить сталь*

4. It is possible to distinguish between 2 types of position (preposition and postposition) of the main component that accounts for part-of-speech:

English: *bluebell > bell [N]*

CRITERION	Russian	English
1) number of components	2	2
2) way of linking:		
a) linker type	+ (more)	- (less)
b) no linker type	-	+
c) auxiliary type	-	+

3) relations of components :		
a) the predicative type	+	+
b) the attributive type	(+)	+
c) the object type	+	(+)

This affords to draw some conclusions:

1. There are some universal features, for example, the number of components typical of a language, the ways of linking and types of their relations.
2. As for cross-linguistic variation English shows a greater difference with Russian.
 - a) a linking element in Russian vs. no linker type is predominant in English
 - b) the auxiliary type is much better represented in English than in Russian.
3. Apart from the major ways of deriving words there are also some less commonly used ways such as grammaticalization and lexicalization of grammatical means.

Grammaticalization denotes the use of derivational affixes for grammatical purposes, for example to express the grammatical category of aspect: This is typical of Russian:

e.g. играть – сыграть, падать – упасть, задерживать – задержать;

Lexicalization denotes the use of grammatical affixes for lexical purposes, for example the plural form may be used to coin a new word. This is typical of English: *sweet – sweets, color – colors, cloth – clothes.*

Now we can summarize the all mentioned before and define the isomorphic and allomorphic features in the semantic and morphemic word structure in the English and Russian languages.

2.3. Isomorphic and allomorphic features of the word structure in Modern English and Russian

In the previous sections we have analyzed the peculiarities of the morphological phenomena of the two Indo-European languages (English and Russian) paying much attention to their typologically relevant features, which differentiate the English morphological phenomena from the analogical ones in Russian or draw them together. Such features are called allomorphic and isomorphic features.

Allomorphy has the disjoining or, strictly speaking, classifying basis while isomorphism in typology is performed by the uniting principle. R. Jakobson 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 allomorphy 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 an 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:

Allomorphic features of the structure of English and Russian words	
The English language	The Russian language
<p>The comparison of the concept “beauty” in both languages shows that the conceptual core of the given concept don’t correspond to each other in some ways. “Internal” beauty, representing the inner, spiritual nature of a person is expressed more clearly in the conceptual core of the English concept and is accompanied by ethical evaluation (glorifying the soul).</p>	<p>Analyzing the semantic structure of the Russian language we have found that in the conceptual core of the concept “beauty” in Russian a sign of the intensity of the ethical evaluation of this phenomenon (an especially good feature) is absent, but exists in the conceptual core of the English concept.</p>
<p>The core characteristics are most commonly used notions about the concept, and the farther from the core, the rarer they are. Our research has shown that the far periphery is expressed poorer in English.</p>	<p>The far periphery of the conceptual aspect of the Russian concept is richer than the far periphery of the English concept, indicating a diffuse structure of the conceptual aspect of the Russian concept "beauty".</p>
<p>Analyzing another concept we have found out that the lexical objectivation of the concept “catastrophe” in English performed by 18 language units: <i>cataclysm, tragedy, battle, explosion, war, pollution, earthquake, eruption, fire, warming, rainfall, cyclone, tsunami, accident, crash, casualty, calamity, disaster.</i></p>	<p>In contrast, 17 language units perform the lexical objectivation of the Russian concept “катастрофа”: <i>крах, война, разгром, землетрясение, пожар, взрыв, ураган, извержение, парниковый эффект, потоп, цунами, буря, авария, крушение, катаклизм, бедствие, трагедия</i>, which means that both languages are rich in vocabulary.</p>

Allomorphic features of the structure of English and Russian words	
The English language	The Russian language
The nominative field of the conceptual aspects of the English word “beauty” that was analyzed there have been established a sign of the intensity of the ethical evaluation of this phenomenon, which is absent in the opposed Russian concept.	The semantic structure of the Russian words in the conceptual aspect is richer, especially in the far periphery that points out a diffuse structure of the conceptual aspect of the Russian words.
Most of words have S-type structure and a stem coincides the word in the sound structure.	A stem usually doesn't coincide with a root in the sound structure and consists of 2 or 3 morphemes (a root morpheme and 1-2 affixes)
Words have mono- or bimorphemic structure. 4/5 of the total number of the English word stock refers to simple words. Derived words among nouns consist 37%, composite – 2%, simple nouns - 60%. According to their size the English words consist of 1-5 morphemes. The length of words is shorter.	Derivation is diffused in the word building. Only half of the whole number of words belongs to simple ones. Word-composition is also characteristic of the Russian language. Consequently, the word length is longer in Russian. The longest words may include 7 morphemes.
Word changing raw is shorter than in Russian, as the English language prefers the usage of postpositions. (come over, come in, come up to, etc.). The word changing raw is not long either because of the very small number of inflections.	Word changing and word forming raw is longer. Prefixation as well as suffixation predominate in the language. As the language is synthetic, there are various inflections, which help to create different word forms.

Allomorphic features of the structure of English and Russian words

The English language	The Russian language
<p>Despite of distinguishing the same types of morphemes in both languages, there are some dissimilarities in the number and frequency of using.</p> <p>Suffixes consist 31,6% of common number of morphemes. There distinguished merely 12 inflections referring to nouns, verbs and adjectives. The number of interfixes is considerably smaller: -s-, -o-, -i-. Most of composite words are connected without linkers.</p>	<p>In Russian suffixes and inflections are common in use and predominate than prefixes in the text. Suffixes comprise 31,98 % in notional parts of speech. The language is extremely rich in inflections, which refer to nouns, adjectives, verbs, numerals and pronouns. Most of composite words are linked with the help of following interfixes: -o-, -e-, -и-, -ex-, -yx-. The type of connection without linkers can be met rarely.</p>
<p>There established 39 models of the morphemic structure of words. The root and postfixal types are much common.</p>	<p>The root, postfixal and prepostfix-positional models of the morphemic structure predominate. Totally, there existed 62 models.</p>
<p>According to the connection of morphemes there acknowledged that English prefers the agglutinative type, which is characterized by a clear delimitation of morphemes.</p>	<p>Of 2 tendency of affixation in Russian fusion is developed most of all, which is performed by the stem and affixes connection.</p>
<p>On the word-building level no linker type is predominant, the auxiliary type is much better represented here than in Russian.</p>	<p>In contrast, in Russian the composite words are usually formed by linking elements.</p>

Allomorphic features of the structure of English and Russian words	
The English language	The Russian language
The seme of gender is absent, so the morphemes, which indicate the type of gender, don't exist in the English language.	The seme of gender is another distinctive feature. There are certain suffixes and inflections, which point out the gender type.
Lexicalization – using of grammatical affixes for lexical purposes – is more typical of English.	Grammaticalization – using of derivational affixes for grammatical purposes – is the characteristic of the Russian language.

Isomorphic features of the structure of English and Russian words

Further, we have tried to define what isomorphic features these languages have.

Isomorphic features of the English and Russian word structure	
English	Russian
1. The same morpheme types are distinguished in the compared languages:	
- root (free): <i>cat</i>	- root (free): <i>кот</i>
- affixes: <i>un-employ-ment</i>	- affixes: <i>без-работ-иц-а</i>
- zero morphemes: <i>table</i> □	- zero morphemes: <i>стол</i> □
- fused morphemes: <i>real-ly</i>	- fused morphemes: <i>осен-ний</i>
- inflections: <i>street-s</i>	- inflections: <i>улиц-ы</i>
2. The same word types are established in Modern English and Russian:	
- simple: <i>door</i>	- simple: <i>дверь</i>
- derivative: <i>teacher</i>	- derivative: <i>учитель</i>
- compound: <i>airplane</i>	- compound: <i>самолет</i>
- complex: <i>blackmail</i>	- complex: <i>близлежащий</i>

- mixed: <i>baby-sitter</i>	- mixed: <i>паровозный</i>
3. Suffixation predominates over prefixation in both languages.	
4. In the word-building aspect there are the similar ways of linking and types of relation of the components.	
a) linker type: <i>speedometer</i>	a) linker type: <i>спидометр</i>
b) no linker type: <i>railway</i>	b) no linker type: <i>времяисчисление</i>
c) auxiliary type: <i>hide-and-peek</i>	c) auxiliary type: <i>диван-кровать</i>
predicative type of relation: <i>sunrise</i> > <i>the sun rises</i>	predicative type: <i>пароход</i> > <i>пар идёт</i>
attributive type of relation: <i>bluebell</i> > <i>blue bell</i>	attributive type: <i>чернозём</i> > <i>чёрная земля</i>
object type: <i>turnscrew</i> > <i>turn the screw</i> - <i>that which turns the screw</i>	object type: <i>винодел</i> > <i>делать вино</i>
Semantic structure of English and Russian words also has isomorphic features. The nominative field of conceptual aspects of the English word “beauty” has their analogies in Russian. This fact indicates that the semantic structures of words in English and Russian mostly coincide.	

Summarizing all the mentioned above, we can state that the English and Russian languages have different grammatical systems which can be clearly shown on the morphemic level. Superficially, it seems that the English and Russian words have the similar construction and they carry many isomorphic features, but in the core of their inner structure, we have established lots of allomorphic properties. They are much more than likenesses, which witnesses that the both languages, having come from the same language family, during the long historical development have been transformed.

CHAPTER 3: Linguodidactic problems of teaching word structure of English words at Russian

3.1. Methodical recommendations for teaching the structure of English words at Russian schools

The establishment of isomorphic and allomorphic features is necessary not only for improving the language theory but also achieved results of analysis should be implemented in practice. All the revealed features can help in teaching English at Russian schools. In learning a foreign language learners usually rely on their mother tongue. Thus, isomorphic features make the teaching process easier. On the other hand, dissimilarities in the languages slow the process of language learning down and make difficulties and barriers through which learners should pass. In order to help them to overcome these difficulties it is important to work out effective methodological strategies. The last chapter of our research is devoted just to this purpose.

A language is the most important means of communication. In the process of language learning a learner's speech becomes the perfect way of cognition, reprocessing, keeping and expressing of information and the language carrier develops as a socially active person capable of creativeness. In order to make the process of learning a foreign language more effective it is necessary to investigate iterative language principles and establish possibilities for interiorizing the language material recommended by linguistic programs in accordance with modern educational conception. Linguodidactics, relatively young field of linguistics, is appealed to become fundamentally theoretical science that organize the elaboration of objective approaches for learning linguistic theories and formation of different kinds of speech activity (listening, speaking, reading and writing). In spite of the fact that a number of modern methodical approaches and programs based on teaching English with interactive methods have been worked out all over the world, nevertheless, there are still some problems investigated by linguodidactics.

Among these problems, difficulties and lacks of the technique of teaching there are the following basic problems:

- a) lack of theoretical knowledge of teachers on the methodology of teaching English as a foreign language
- b) low intensity of pupils' speech activity
- c) superficiality in forming of base skills and haste of transition from reproductive to productive kinds of work
- d) absence or lack of effective practical recommendations on elimination and the prevention of gaps in pupils' knowledge and skills
- e) weakness of existing system of appreciation of pupils' work
- f) spontaneity of a choice and application of evident support, their low didactic efficiency

Researches on the methods of teaching have shown that all the indicated problems will effectively solved, if we apply elaborations of various innovators for amplification of the technique of teaching that can increase essentially quality of teaching a foreign language. As far as the main purpose of teaching a foreign language is formation of learners' skills of using a language as means of intercourse, the leading principle should be the principle of a communicative orientation.

Communicative approach and communicative competence

The communicative approach is a flexible method rather than a rigorously defined set of teaching practices. Its main function is in creation of all conditions of communications: motives, purposes and problems of intercourse. The communicative orientation defines selection and the organization of language material, its situational conditionality, communicative value both speech and training exercises, communicative formulation of educational problems, organization and structure of the lesson. This principle assumes creation of conditions for speaking and intellectual activity of pupils during each moment of teaching.

The communicative approach proves that language is communication. Therefore, the final aim of communicative language teaching is communicative competence. Communicative competence is the progressive acquisition of the ability to use a language to achieve one's communicative purpose. It represents a shift in focus from the grammatical to the communicative properties of the language; i.e. the functions of language and the process of discourse. Communicative competence requires the mastery of the production and comprehension of communicative acts or speech acts that are relevant to the needs of the learner. Over the last three decades, theorists have discussed (and continue to discuss) the exact definition of communicative competence. They do agree, however, that meaningful communication supports language learning and that classroom activities must focus on the learner's authentic needs to communicate information and ideas. 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.

Communicative approach can be best defined with a list of general principles. In *Communicative Language Teaching* (1991), expert David Nunan lists these five basic characteristics:

1. An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.
2. The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation.
3. The provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language but also on the learning process itself.
4. An enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning.

5. An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activities outside the classroom.

As these features show, the communicative approach is concerned with the unique individual needs of each learner. By making the language relevant to the world rather than the classroom, learners can acquire the desired skills rapidly and agreeably. In communicative way of teaching authentic and meaningful communication should be the goal of classroom activities. Second, learners learn a language through using it to communicate. Fluency is an important dimension of communication and communication involves the integration of different language skills. Learning is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error.

Intercultural competence and cross-cultural communication

Culture has taken an important place in foreign language teaching and learning studies. It has been widely recognized that language is used as a main medium through which culture is expressed. It has been seen that language is much more than the external expression and communication of internal thoughts formulated independently of their verbalization. In demonstration the inadequacy and inappropriateness of such a view of language, attention has already been drawn to the ways in which one's mother tongue is intimately and in all sorts of details related to the rest of one's life in a community and to smaller groups within that community. This is true of all peoples and all languages; it is a universal fact about language. Intercultural Communication is a relatively new field of study and incorporates a fascinating mix of elements. As well as giving learners a critical understanding of interculturality, it provides multi-disciplinary approach, enabling students with interests as diverse as business, education, journalism, languages, linguistics or politics to approach the subject from their particular perspective. Before, however, it is necessary to provide some information on the other aspect that immensely influences how culture is taught in language classes today - the understanding of culture itself.

The metaphor of an iceberg to understand culture has been used by numerous theorists. The visible part is the one that relates to Culture with a capital C, the

invisible part represents the notion of culture with a small c. An intercultural approach to foreign language teaching recognizes the relevance of both notions of culture and the relationship of the two. Just like the invisible part of an iceberg, the invisible part of culture is the foundation of cultural representations. Thus, certain values, attitudes, and beliefs of a group of people are displayed in their music, traditions, and literature. Foreign language teaching today is not satisfied with a display of a culture's visible representations, but also wants to tackle its foundation. Culture can only be explained and understood if the connection between visible and invisible is considered a unit. Consequently, a definition of culture today considers «a whole way of life».

And what is competence? Competence can be described as *the combination of training, skills, experience and knowledge that a person has and their ability to apply them to perform a task safely*. Other factors, such as attitude and physical ability, can also affect someone's competence. Competence indicates sufficiency of knowledge and skills that enable someone to act in a wide variety of situations. Because each level of responsibility has its own requirements, competence, can occur in any period of a person's life or at any stage of his or her career.

Just like culture, what is understood by the intercultural approach and its desired outcome intercultural competence is difficult to define. Partly, this is because several academic fields acknowledge the importance of intercultural competence, and it is not only relevant in foreign language study and teaching. Thus, perspectives and input from areas such as business and marketing, social studies, linguistics, and cultural studies have had an effect on what is understood by intercultural competence today. This illustrates the importance of intercultural competence in our world and shows that it is not only a task to be mastered in the language classroom. Intercultural communication aims to prepare students to familiarize them with traditions and customs of the other country and to make sure they can communicate with native speakers. Thus, communicative competence, i.e. skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing, are the main focus in the lessons, spiced up with cultural content.

As the world becomes more and more cultural various, the importance of the subjects connected with cross-cultural communication and its efficiency grows together. Data on culture are necessary to overcome cross-cultural distinctions and to develop the cross-cultural relations. Cross-cultural communication is an adequate mutual understanding of two participants of the communicative act belonging to different national cultures. Acquisition of skill of cross-cultural communication and attention emphasis on cultural distinctions allows us to learn how to behave in various cross-cultural situations. Many scientists define skills of cross-cultural communication as success of interaction with carriers of other cultures.

Interactive teaching and integrated skill approach

Interactive teaching is a special form of organization of the teaching process, based on the creation of favourable conditions for learners in order to make them feel their intellectual competence and strength that make the process of learning more productive. The using of interactive teaching model provide the modelling of real life situations, using the role plays, games, solving problems. Learners turn from the object of influencing into its subject. They participate actively in the process of learning. Interactive view sees language as a vehicle for the creation and maintenance of social relations, focusing on patterns of moves, acts, negotiation and interaction found in conversational exchanges.

Interaction is the collaborative exchange of thoughts, feelings, or ideas between two or more people resulting in a reciprocal effect on each other. Theories of communicative competence emphasize the importance of interaction as human beings use language in various contexts to "negotiate" meaning, or simply stated, to get one idea out of your head and into the head of another person and vice versa. From the very beginning of language study, classrooms should be interactive. Through interaction, students can increase their language store as they listen to or read authentic linguistic material, or even the output of their fellow students in discussions, skits, joint problem-solving tasks, or dialogue journals. In interaction, students can use all they possess of the language—all they have learned or casually

absorbed—in real-life exchanges. Even at an elementary stage, they learn in this way to exploit the elasticity of language.

Many experienced textbook and methodology manuals writers have argued that games are not just time-filling activities but have a great educational value. W. R. Lee holds that most language games make learners use the language instead of thinking about learning the correct forms. He also says that games should be treated as central not peripheral to the foreign language teaching program. A similar opinion is expressed by Richard-Amato, who believes games to be fun but warns against overlooking their pedagogical value, particularly in foreign language teaching. There are surely many advantages of using games. "*Games can lower anxiety, thus making the acquisition of input more likely*" (Richard-Amato). *They are highly motivating and entertaining, and they can give shy students more opportunity to express their opinions and feelings* (Hansen). They also enable learners to acquire new experiences within a foreign language, which are not always possible during a typical lesson. Furthermore, to quote Richard-Amato, they, "*add diversion to the regular classroom activities, break the ice, they are used to introduce new ideas*". In the easy, relaxed atmosphere, which is created by using games, learners remember things faster and better. Further support comes from Zdybiewska, who believes games to be a good way of practicing language, for they provide a model of what learners will use the language for in real life in the future. We also state that games encourage, entertain, teach, and promote fluency.

The integrated-skill approach, as contrasted with the purely segregated approach, exposes English language learners to authentic language and challenges them to interact naturally in the language. Learners rapidly gain a true picture of the richness and complexity of the English language as employed for communication. Moreover, this approach stresses that English is not just an object of academic interest nor merely a key to passing an examination; instead, English becomes a real means of interaction and sharing among people. This approach allows teachers to track students' progress in multiple skills at the same time.

Integrating the language skills also promotes the learning of real content, not just the dissection of language forms. Finally, the integrated-skill approach, whether found in content-based or task-based language instruction or some hybrid form, can be highly motivating to students of all ages and backgrounds. With careful reflection and planning, any teacher can integrate the language skills and strengthen the tapestry of language teaching and learning. When the tapestry is woven well, learners can use English effectively for communication.

Another important point should be considered here. Currently these days a heated discussion is arising from children's education concerning whether children should be encouraged competition or cooperation. Some believed that children should be inspired with a sense of competition. It is undoubted that competition is prevalent in our contemporary society. Competition makes people more ambitious, which is beneficial to cultivating and stimulating people's potential for the sake of success. Therefore, the competition arising from a more profound level of one's mind is of great importance to success. On the other hand, others insisting the belief that a sense of cooperation is the stone of one to adjust to the society and become more useful, which, of course, makes sense to some extent. Since there do exist a variety of controversy between individuals, companies, organizations and even countries, cooperation is of unparalleled necessity for the harmony of them. Therefore, children who are taught to cooperate rather than to compete is more useful and essential to a team and furthermore, for there self-development. We believe that people need the strategies and spirit to compete with others meanwhile the capability to cooperate is essential. Initially, competition stimulate one's potential ability, which leads to the road of success. Cooperation creates efficiency for separation of works can be done in the same time. A teamwork needs a leader and assistants, therefore selecting a leader through a mechanism of competition seems to be of great importance.

The projection of the methodical system on the real learning process is connected with the choice of different forms of organizing the learning activity. Lesson plans are an essential component of a successful teaching experience.

These plans help ensure that all standards and materials are covered, providing a teacher and students with structure for each class day. In a good lesson plan there should be learning outcomes –learners should have an end product. When thinking about an English lesson it is useful to keep the following three elements in mind:

ENGAGE » STUDY » ACTIVATE

It is important to engage the students. This means getting the students interested in the subject, in the class and in the language point and hopefully enjoying what they are doing. In any lesson students usually need something to study. In an English teaching lesson there needs to be some language focus for the class. Students need to be introduced systematically to the way that English is put together. The Study element of a lesson could be a focus on any aspect of the language, such as grammar or vocabulary and pronunciation. A Study stage does not have to be new language input. It could also cover revision and extension of previously taught material. Simply telling students about the language is not usually enough to help them to learn it. In order for students to be able to develop their use of English, they need to be given the chance to produce it. In an Activate stage the students are given tasks, normally writing and or speaking activities which require students to use not only the language they are studying that day, but also other language that they have learnt.

It is more rational to divide a lesson into 3 stages: pre-activity, while- and post-activities. All the stages deal with engaging, explaining, exploring, elaborating and evaluating. The teacher should try to engage the students from the very start of the lesson. A good way of doing this is through activities called *warmers* or *ice-breakers*. A warmer is a short activity that demands an active involvement from the students.

The plan of the lesson begins with a question or brief activity that hooks or engages students at the beginning of the lesson. In the second phase, the teacher lectures or provides a video, reading passage or demonstration to explain the material and its key terms. After explaining the concept, a teacher must show what activity students will complete to help them explore the material. These activities

can include stations, cooperative learning groups, games, worksheets or other instructional methods. The fourth component, elaborating, can be compared to independent practice. Activities should help students apply the concept to a variety of situations. This work can be completed in class or as a homework assignment. Each lesson should end with an evaluation component to determine whether students have learned the material. This can come in the form of a formal, graded assessment, or students can be informally assessed with a question and answer session, exit slip or short writing prompt.

It is necessary to find such exercises that effectively influence on the learning process. The using of combinations of individual, pair and group forms of work is considered as more effective. Nowadays when the technologies are taking the important place in any sphere of human activity it, undoubtedly, influence on teaching process, too. Therefore, the problem how to teach English with technologies is very actual for every teacher. Today's learners are growing up with technology and it is a natural and integrated part of their lives. The use of technology is a way to bring the outside world into the classroom. The Internet presents us with the new opportunities for authentic tasks and materials. Moreover, using of ICT (Information and Communication Technologies) tools give learners a great practice in all of four main language skills – speaking, listening, writing and speaking on the principally new and effective level. So, technology is a central component in a modern learning environment. It can also be a great tool for reaching various audiences and making lesson plans exciting and surprising for students. Technology needs to be wisely integrated and controlled in the classroom to create the most effective lesson plans. The teacher must remain the central focus with technology used only as an aid and supplement to the larger goals of the classroom.

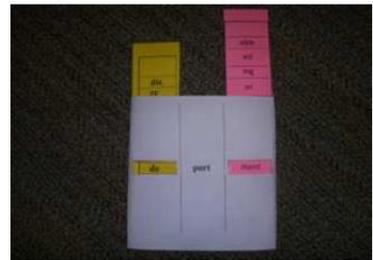
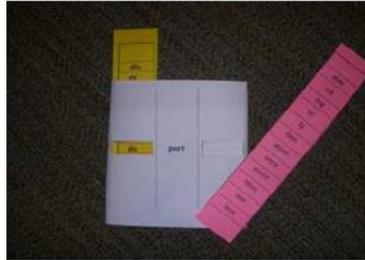
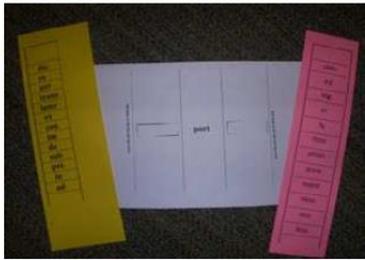
3.2. System of exercises for teaching the structure of English words at Russian schools

In this section we have offered the effective system of exercises based on interactive methods of teaching. Exercises are task-oriented activities, in the process of which learners acquire the language material and obtain the skills of handling of this material in the appropriate kind of speech activity. In Modern methodology all types of exercises are classified into the following groups: language, conditional-speech and speech exercises.

1. *Language exercises*: The main role in the foreign language acquisition belongs to the speech practice, therefore conditional-speech and purely speech exercises should predominate. The language exercises should be used at the stage of the semantization of lexical units in acquiring the formal side of the word as they mostly influence on the correct word reproduction and elimination of undifferentiated speech defects. The language exercises help to acquire knowledge on word changing, word forming, grammar constructions and have positive results on language (speaking, listening, reading, writing) skills developing. They may include matching activities (matching words with their definitions or matching parts of sentences together), gap-filling activities, correcting errors in the text, discover the grammatical categories to which words with the same morphemes belonged, etc.

“FOLDABLES” exercise

a) Prepare a table with words in column and striped paper with different prefixes and suffixes beforehand. Ask students to match necessary morphemes to the given words. For instance, the root “*port*” was used as the central focus, and adjustments were made to the prefixes and suffixes added. “*De-port-ment*” was created in the photo model. Other arrangements that might be created by sliding the inserts to new positions include “*trans-port-ation*” and “*im-port-ance*.”



b) It is important to make vocabulary visual, to involve students in wrestling with personal meanings, to help them understand relationships among words, and to introduce them to the pleasures of etymology. You can give them a five-by-eight-inch card and these instructions:

- Write the root of the word in capital letters in red in the middle of the card. Draw an arrow and write the meaning of the root and the language of its origin.
- Write the prefix in black to the left of the root. Draw an arrow and write the meaning of the prefix.
- Write the suffix in blue to the right of the root. Draw an arrow and write the meaning of the suffix.
- In the lower left corner, write three words with the same root.
- Put your quick draw in the lower right of the card.
- Write the author's definition and part of speech at the top of the card.

When the students finish their cards, you can put them up on the bulletin board. As students examine the cards their classmates have produced, they are not so much collecting new words as they are developing an understanding of how the English language works.

“AFFIX CARD DECK” exercise

A multisensory-guided discovery approach - the use of an affix card deck is recommended for teaching affixes. Using this approach, the teacher reads a series of derivatives that have a common trait (e.g., *joyful*, *careful*, *helpful*, *graceful*, *cheerful*). The students “discover” the similar sounds and then visually discover

the sound-symbol correspondence. The similar sounds and letters are then identified as a prefix or suffix, and the student verbalizes these discoveries to anchor the learning. Finally, the teacher writes the affix on a card that is added to the affix card deck that is reviewed in a systematic manner, daily, weekly, and periodically thereafter.

“MATCHING GAME” exercise

A number of matching and memory games may be used in teaching. Templates are included with directions for assembly. The games include *Affix Concentration* - an activity that involves matching affix and meaning; *Meaningful Affixes* - a foldable to assemble with affixes, roots, and definitions; *Word Dissect* - an activity that involves discussion and discovery with partners; and *Make It Meaningful* - an activity that involves an affix and root meaning discovery within the context of a sentence.

2. *Conditional-speech exercises*: The second stage of learning supposes the formation of speaking skills by acquiring the prepared speech, that is transition from ability of comprehension and reproducing a separate structure into coherent using it in monologues and dialogues (quasi-free reproducing). This transition is realized by conditional-speech exercises. Here the learners are not only involved into the concrete language material activating, but also they build the coherent speech. The conditional-speech exercises are the intervening link between language and purely speech exercises. On the one hand, these activities control the degree of automation of lexis of a separate structure, on the other hand, they give an opportunity of the gradual transition to speech exercises. The conditional-speech activities are more creative in the contrast with language ones and represent a number of stimulus and reactions. They are characterized by various reproductive elements and communicative conditionality as well. This group consists of the following exercises: answering the questions, dialogization and polylogization of the text content, picture description, making up a text with the

help of the key words and expressions, interpretation of a certain part of the text, comparing the facts, etc.

“CONCEPT SKETCHES” exercise

Concept sketches 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.

“ANALOGY GAME” exercise

Analogy is a comparison between two things that are usually thought to be different from each other, but have some similarities. They help learners to understand things by making connections and seeing relationships between them based on knowledge they already possess. Analogy games play a significant role not only in improving decision making skills, but also in perception and memory as well as communication and reasoning skills. They can help with reading and building vocabulary.

“THE GALLERY WALK” exercise

The gallery walk is a cooperative activity in which the instructor devises several questions or problems and posts each question at a different table or at a different place on the walls. Students form as many groups as there questions or problems and each group moves from question to question. After writing the group’s response to the first question, the group rotates to the next position, adding to what is already there. At the last question, it is the group’s responsibility to summarize and report to the class.

“FISH-BOWL FUN” exercise

As far as answering the questions may be boring for the students we suggest using this activity to involve students into active participation. Students write questions about a story they have read on a small slice of paper, drop it in a bowl, then they fish for questions from the bowl and attempt to answer them.

3. *speech exercises*: The speech exercises is characterized by theme-situational principle. They solve problems, suggested in topics and situations, typical for natural speech activity. The speech exercises include interactive discussions, debates, sharing with opinions, role-plays, etc. In these activities the independence of the action reach the highest degree. The oral speech is usually connected with intellectual activity, performed in choosing facts, comparing, summarizing, etc. The speech activities are the most important in the learning process, as the teaching process is directed to help learners to communicate fluently in the target language.

“SIMULATION” exercise

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 on the given topic, in which they will demonstrate some roles. You can give students time for preparation, i.e. 1 week.

“INTERACTIVE DISCUSSION” activity

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, for example, the most popular inventions of the century. Students should discuss the topic using new vocabulary or grammar constructions.

DEBATES

Debates can be a very useful strategy for engaging students in their own learning. They force students to deal with complexity and “grey areas”, and they are rich in imbedded content. Debates can also help to provide relevancy of course material to everyday issues, which can improve student learning as well as his oral communication skills.

“JIGSAW” activity

The jigsaw exercise can be a useful, well-structured template for carrying out effective in-class group work. The class is divided into several teams preparing separate but related assignments. When all team members are prepared, the class is

re-divided into mixed group, 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 tackles an assignment together that pulls all of the pieces together to form the full picture.

“CASE STUDIES” activity

Case studies can be used for actively engaging students in problem-solving relevant to the discipline. The primary hallmark of a case study is presentation of students with a problem to solve that revolves around a story. Good case studies give learners considerable latitude in deciding how to solve the problem and provide excellent opportunities to engage students in the classroom.

The methodologists of XXI century have proved that teaching the formal structure of words is very necessary. It can help them to improve their literacy. School children of all ages have difficulties with spelling words when the spelling cannot be predicted from the way the word sounds. Children’s difficulties with the spelling of many words can be reduced by making them aware of the morphemes that compose the words. There should be systematic teaching about morphemes and their role in spelling at school. Making children more aware of morphemes has a positive effect on their vocabulary growth. Teaching about morphemes is a good strategy to promote spelling and language development in the classroom. Morphemes give an indication of the meaning of words and also have a fixed spelling. Because morphemes are represented in spelling, many words that would seem to have an unpredictable or irregular spelling can actually be considered regular. This is the case of the word ‘magician’, which is written by adding ‘ian’ to ‘magic’, to form a person word, and of many other words. For example, the words ‘confession’ and ‘magician’ sound exactly the same in the end but are spelled differently. We argued that ‘magician’ is regular: is ‘confession’ irregular then? The answer is no: ‘confession’ is written by adding ‘ion’, a suffix used to form abstract nouns, to the word ‘confess’. It is just as regular as ‘magician’. English teachers have explicit knowledge of some aspects of morphemes but not all. The

word ‘morpheme’ is never spontaneously used in classes, but most teachers use the words prefixes and suffixes. Although a few programs for teaching spelling have suggested that it is important to teach children about morphemes, these programs have neither produced methods that appealed to teachers and children nor the evidence to show that they are effective. It seems ‘logical’ that children should be taught about morphemes. In order to design an effective intervention program, several small studies were carried out by Russian methodologists to test the characteristics of tasks that work. Example of this can be an analogy game that helped with the distinction between ‘ion’ and ‘ian’. After these small studies, we designed a program to teach children how to identify the morphemes that compose multi-morphemic words in order to analyse their meaning and spell them correctly.

They are effective strategies in improving children’s spelling of words whose spelling cannot be predicted from the way they sound. It helps both children in the higher and lower ability groups. The exercises also has positive effects on children’s vocabulary and provides them with a word attack strategy that helps them analyse and interpret novel words. Its approach is compatible with current curriculum demands and extends them in a valuable way.

Our research demonstrates that knowledge of morphemes can help children learning to spell English words, and that it is quite easy to promote this knowledge in pupils in an attractive and interesting way. We have shown that there is a strong case for introducing systematic teaching about morphemes into the school curriculum. This teaching should be sustained throughout primary school, including simpler examples for the work with younger pupils and more difficult ones for the work with older pupils; classroom instruction about morphemes and spelling does not have to be boring and can be effective for both low- and high-achieving pupils.

SUMMARY

Teacher: Mustafina Ilnara

Date: __/__/__/

Group: _____

Subject: English (integrated skills lesson)

Theme: “Nature disasters”

Objectives:

- Activate students’ passive vocabulary
- Raise students’ awareness on the matter of nature disasters
- Learn how to use the studied vocabulary, using it in the speech and writing
- Present the external structure on new studied words

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

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 (5 min)

Now we are going to discuss a very interesting and actual problem. But first of all, I want you to answer some questions. Please, look at these photos.

1. What natural disaster do you think the photos were about?
2. In your opinion, what is a disaster?
3. How do you think you would react in a disaster?
4. What would you do if you knew in advance that a serious disaster was coming?

5. What natural disasters have you (or someone you know) experienced?
Tell about what happened.

Theme: Nature disasters

b) During – activities

Now let me introduce the new vocabulary to you. Look at your handouts. You should match each of the words in Column A with a definition from Column B. Don't scare to make mistakes. A good learner should take a risk. We'll check it together. (5 min)

Handout 1

___ 1. drought	A. the act of making people leave a place because of danger
___ 2. mudslide	B. a place where people can sleep in an emergency
___ 3. emergency shelter	C. a big wave that can destroy towns near the sea
___ 4. hurricane	D. a disaster when there is no rain for a long time
___ 5. famine	E. a very bad snowstorm
___ 6. evacuation	F. a disaster when there is no food
___ 7. blizzard	G. a disaster in which snow and ice move quickly down a mountain
___ 8. tsunami	H. a violent storm with winds blowing
___ 9. aftershock	I. a disaster in which hills become too wet and the soil moves
___ 10. avalanche	J. a small earthquake after a larger one

We have finished the work on our vocabulary and let's move forward to a new activity. We are going to read an article about natural disaster known as the hurricane Mitch. But let's predict what the story is about and guess the answers for the following questions: (12 min)

1. Where did the Mitch have its beginning?
2. What other disasters did the hurricane cause?
3. What were the results of such a violent hurricane?
4. How do you think what measures did the government take?

Handout 2

A look back at Mitch's rampage

Born as a hurricane in the wee hours of Oct. 24, Mitch grew into one of the biggest - and deadliest - tropical cyclones of this century. By the time it broke up off the Florida coast Thursday, the damage wrought by Mitch had reached biblical proportions: an estimated 10,000 dead, thousands more missing, billions of dollars in damage. Associated Press correspondents throughout Central America contributed to this picture of the storm's wrath. Mitch was seen on the forecasters' video monitors as a huge, threatening swirl in the middle of the western Caribbean. Mitch, now the fourth-strongest Caribbean hurricane this century, moved in for the kill. Many of Guanaja's 5,000 residents, meanwhile, waited out the storm in a protected canyon extending across the island. "I've never seen anything like it before," recalled Marvin Stahl of Waskom, Texas, who was on a diving vacation with his wife. "There is no foliage on the island - every tree, all the limbs are gone, all the leaves are gone." The rain - up to 25 inches in mountain areas - had begun to take a huge toll. Tens of thousands were evacuated from low-lying areas. The floodwaters in the Honduran capital of Tegucigalpa rose to stunning levels: the third floor of a hospital was evacuated as the Choluteca River poured into the second floor. Honduran President Carlos Flores Facusse went on national television to declare his country's Caribbean coast a disaster zone.

A good job. Now I want you to divide into 3 teams. Let's count Mitch, Katerina, Andrea. Each team has a story of people who experienced a nature disaster but its order is mixed. Each team should put their story into the correct order. Then you should write the ending of the story and read it aloud for the class. Let's begin. (15 min)

Handout 3

Mitch Hurricane team

The Hurricane was a Nightmare

- 1. The fact that I was little increased the effects of such an experience. I can still hear the noise of the wind blowing on the taped windows that were shaking.*
- 2. Under those conditions, the hardest part was having no contact with the rest of my family living around the island. The feeling of presuming the death of your close friends and relatives was hard to endure. We stayed like that for one horrible week before everything was fixed. For me, those seven days, almost eight, were a real nightmare.*
- 3. During that week, we had to face up to the most powerful hurricane Martinique has even seen. Outside, everything was flying or moving...trees, papers, plastics.*
- 4. But the nightmare was not that phase, when we were just afraid without any other possibilities. The real one was after it hit. In fact, the hurricane did not cross the island only once, but three times, causing at each crossing more and more damage. During the entire week following that event, we were not able to go out of the house. All the roads were cut off, and we did not have running water or phones.*
- 5. This story took place about seven years ago. At that time I was only eleven years old, but images of that week are still as clear as it all happened yesterday.*

Katerina Hurricane team

It Really was an Earthquake

- 1. For example, in Puerto La Cruz there are many house boats. Also, there are too many houses built on the mountains, and most of those houses were destroyed, so many people lost their homes.*
- 2. That earthquake wasn't strong, but the weather report hadn't said anything about it, so no one knew it was coming or had time to prepare for the consequences. After the earthquake, people didn't have food or bottled water and many of them died.*
- 3. When we were all in the pool, I asked my best friend, "Don't you think we are having too much fun in this party?" She asked me why I said that, and I really didn't know, but I felt dizzy. A few minutes later, my friend said, "It's an earthquake."*
- 4. One day my friends and I were celebrating our last day in high school at one of our houses which had a pool. We had a big party which we enjoyed very much.*
- 5. It really was an earthquake. It was strange because we actually enjoyed it. We had no idea that in some parts of the country many people were scared and most of them lost their houses.*

Andrea Hurricane team

I Met "Mr. Flood"

- 1. I looked around my city. One word can describe the situation--sad. Everything was destroyed and lots of people were sick, but we were very strong, I think.*
- 2. I used to think people are very clever, but we can't do anything when natural disasters happen. We can't prevent them, control them, or stop them. The only thing we can do is clean up after the disasters. It's very sad.*
- 3. Because of the flood, lots of illnesses broke out. Because of dead animals, people died. The soil and other things made the water become very, very dirty. That was in summer time, so even though it was raining, the temperature was still high. The hot weather and really dirty water caused the*

air to be very bad. Hospitals had no extra rooms for patients.

4. When I was in high school, I met Mr. Flood. It started raining and kept raining almost a month; the water on the streets got higher and higher every day. We used boats instead of cars. We lost lots of things, including our businesses, our jobs, and our homes.

5. Schools closed and farms were destroyed. We ran out of food and electricity. In some places the water was higher than the buildings. I felt like we lived in a water world.

Please, pay attention to the presentation I have prepared for you to explain the grammatical point. Today we are going to speak about morphemes. It is not new theme for you. Until this moment, you often used the words prefix, suffix, and root. In one word, they are called morphemes. (5 min) After explaining the word structure with the help of the presentation, do the following activities with the students.

Handout 4

Gap filling activity (10 min)

A. Write the correct suffix in the gap.

1. Jake slow___ walked down the street, hope___ of finding the keys he so carelesslylost.
2. Although Jill was the fast___ runn___ in the class, she was far young___ than the others.
3. Kim's room is the ___tidiest I have ever seen but she is always very careful with her appear_____.
4. Mom always ___cycled the wrappings after she packed away the groceries.

B. Make the raw by adding affixes and inflections

1. fish _____
2. hope _____
3. care _____
4. light _____

C. Adding Mixed Prefixes

Add a prefix to each of the words in the chart to make new words. If you get stuck on one, move on the next one and then go back later. Some words may have more than one prefix. Each prefix can be used three or more times.

dis- re- trans- un- in- sub- im- non- over- anti-

___cooked	___build	___marine
___approve	___possible	___climax
___patient	___slip	___complete
___crowded	___dote	___atlantic
___divide	___arrange	___due

c) Post-activity:

Now we have enough time to have an interactive discussion. Now I'll show you a video about hurricane Katrina. Please, listen attentively. Now let's discuss "*Can people prevent the nature disasters or it is impossible?*" (15 min)

Home task (3 min)

Write down the home task. You should write a short essay (50-70 words) about nature disasters you have ever been experienced. The student on duty can you give me the register, please; I am going to assess our brilliant and active students. (3 min) Thank you for the lesson and good-bye.

Conclusion

Having investigated the phenomenon of the word structure in Modern linguistics we have come to the following conclusion:

1. The word and its structure is still a problematic and disputable aspect in Modern linguistics. Different approaches to the theory of word structure show the delicate attitude to the given problem. Analyzing the word structure we have found out that it consists of different morphological and semantic elements, coordinated and adjoined with each other in strict succession.
2. Our research paper is enriched with our own definition given to the word structure. The structure of a word is a set of relations between different elements of the word including phonetic, morphemic, grammatical and semantic; it is a combination and correlation of lexes of a definite lexeme.
3. The morphological system of a language reveals its properties through the morphemic structure of words. As each language system is a structured set of elements related to one another by a common function, so the morphemic (external) structure of words is a set of relations between morphemes, related to each other both structurally and semantically, fulfilling one of the two functions: making new words or word forms for combining them into phrases or sentences.
4. The word form expressing different grammatical meanings still preserves its lexical meaning. Simple (synthetic) word forms are performed by the synthesis of the stem and affixes while compound (analytical) forms are made as fractural, analytically. The structure of the compound word form is analogical in function to the structure of a simple one: the stem plays the role of the form of convertible categorematic words while a syncategorematic word or its form fulfils the function of word-changing affix.
5. The notion of a morpheme is another problem in investigating the given theme. The definition of a morpheme is a universally acknowledged fact while classification of its types is still argued by modern linguists. The research paper is provided with the following classification: from structural, semantic and positional points of view.

6. The morphemic structure of words has a great importance in word-building aspect as well. Formation implies that one deals with rules that “form” (create, generate, derive) words. Word-formation is the system of derivative types of words and the process of creating new words from the material available in the language after certain structural and semantic formulas and patterns. Word-formative relations – relations of word-formative dependency between word groups or separate words, that carry structural-semantic features and are used in the process of word-formation – play important role. The structural dependency of words lies in containing the stem of the words, from which they are derived, and the element with the help of which they have been formed in their structure. The semantic dependency becomes apparent in the fact that the derived word may be explained through the former one.

7. Structurally words are represented by several types in Modern linguistics: simple, derived, composite (compound and complex) and mixed types as well. Root words are the most frequent lexical units in Modern English. As to the notional words 60% of the total number of nouns and 68,7 % of adjectives are root words. Derived words (38% of nouns and 12,4 % of adjectives) are above all structural types. Composite words do not possess a high frequency value – 2% of nouns and 0,21% of adjectives.

8. The semantic or internal structure of the word is a structured set of interrelated lexical variants with different meanings. The semantic structure is performed as a complex system of interdependent meanings and their usage. Semantically all words fall into mono- and polysemantic words. So, the semantic word structure reveals in its polysemy as a capability to designate different objects (features, qualities, relations, actions, states) with the help of internally linked meanings. All the meanings of the polysemantic word differ in the degree of stability and independence, in the field of use, in the character of concepts, which they express and in the forms of realization in the lexical system of a language. The semantic structure of the monosemantic word boils down to its seme structure.

9. The scientific novelty of my research lies in the systematized comparison of word structure in Modern English and Russian. The English and Russian word structure carries certain structural and semantic features. English is an analytic language of the synthetic structure, in which grammatical meaning is largely expressed through the use of additional words and by changes in the word order. The language prefers the agglutinative type of the connection of morphemes in words, which is characterized by a clear delimitation of morphemes. However, in English word-building the fusional connection dominates in the process of the formation of derivative and compound words. Thus, the usage of inflections says that English prefers analytical grammatical methods to inflective-synthetic ones in forming grammatical meanings. In contrast, the morphemic structure of Russian words is characterized by a majority of grammatical forms and well-developed system of prefixes, suffixes and inflectional endings as the Russian language performs a synthetic language type and represents the developed system of affixation and word-composition, that indicates the large number of derived and composite words in the word stock. Furthermore, fusion as the character of the stem and affixes connection is determined as the defining tendency of the grammatical system of Russian words.

10. The length and size of words are another aspect for investigation. English words usually contain maximum 5 morphemes, mono- or bimorphemic words are found more frequently. *Pneumonoultramicroscopicsilicovolcanoconiosis* is the longest English word published in the Oxford English Dictionary consists of even 8 morphemes. Russian words have more complex structure and can consist of till 7 morphemes, as in *никотинамидадениндинуклеотидфосфатгидрин*, the longest Russian word.

11. For establishing semantic features of the English and Russian word structure we have made a conceptual analysis of concepts “beauty” and «красота». A concept can be viewed as the structure with its core, periphery and far periphery. The core characteristics are most commonly used notions about the concept, and the farther from the core, the more rare they are. The results of the survey indicate

that periphery and far periphery of the Russian concept are rather rich. The conceptual meanings comprising the Russian concept can be divided into 3 groups according to their relation to the core component: a) those that specify the features contained in the conceptual core, detected by the analysis of dictionary definitions (referring to the nature or works of art that delight the senses and the mind); b) those that coincide with the nuclear conceptual features - something that satisfies the aesthetic needs of a human, brings delight and pleasure; c) those that comprise new conceptual features such as harmony, certain perceptions of the world, perfection, or ideal happiness. Our analysis reveals that the core of the English concept "beauty" is rich in meanings, but far periphery is quite short. The concept is mainly determined as: a) the combination of qualities that give pleasure and joy to the senses (vision and hearing) and mind; b) as a set of qualities glorifying the soul; c) as an especially good feature; d) as an elegant, superb quality.

12. Having accomplished the comparative analysis of the word structure in two non-related languages we have managed to establish isomorphic and allomorphic features. In the compared languages the similar types of morphemes as well as the same structural types of words are distinguished. Moreover, in the word-building aspect there are similar types of word-formation and relations between components of composite words. The semantic structure of the languages under study also mostly coincides. Allomorphic properties of the morphemic structure of the compared languages lie in the types of morpheme connection, the length of words, the length of a word forming and word changing raw, in the type of connection of compound words as well as in the expansion of concept core, periphery and far periphery in the semantic structure of the English and Russian languages.

13. The research work provides necessary methodological investigation for teaching English word structure at Russian schools as well. In the graduation paper the following methodological recommendations have been offered:

- the target language should be used as a means of intercourse;

- interactive methods and communicative activities should prevail throughout a language course including games, role-plays, dialogues, group work and discussions;
- authentic and meaningful communication should be the goal of classroom activities;
- fluency is an important dimension of communication;
- the integration of different language skills;
- the introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation;
- using innovative technologies, etc.

14. A system of exercises for teaching the English word structure at Russian schools has been elaborated. As far as exercises are task-oriented activities, in the process of which learners acquire the language material and obtain the skills of handling of this material in the appropriate kind of speech activity, their role is indispensable. The exercises for teaching the above analyzed theme have been given in the following classified groups: language exercises (gap-filling activities, foldables, affix card deck, matching activities, etc.); conditional-speech exercises (answering the questions, picture description, making up a text with the help of the key words and expressions, comparing the facts, concept sketches, gallery walking activity, analogy games and others) and speech exercises (debates, effective discussion, case studies, jigsaw activity, role-plays, etc.) The main role in the foreign language acquisition belongs to the speech practice, therefore conditional-speech and purely speech exercises should predominate. The language exercises are used at the stage of the semantization of lexical units in acquiring the formal side of the word as they mostly influence on the correct word reproduction and elimination of undifferentiated speech defects.

The research paper performs both theoretical and practical values for applying it in the process of teaching at schools, academic lyceums, vocational colleges and higher educational institutions as well as in the theory and practice of translation.

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