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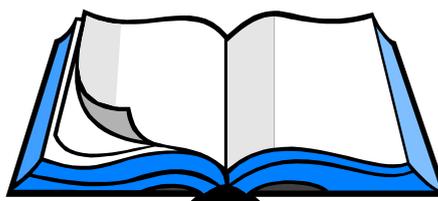
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**COMPARATIVE STUDY OF
POLYSEMANTIC WORDS IN MODERN
ENGLISH AND RUSSIAN AND PROBLEMS
OF LINGUODIDACTICS**

Graduation paper

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INTRODUCTION

On February 17, 2012 at the Opening Ceremony of International Conference the President of the Republic of Uzbekistan, Islam Karimov made his speech in which he defined the strategy in the development of Uzbekistan and pointed out the following issues: “Fostering a well-educated and intellectually advanced generation –critical prerequisite for sustainable development and modernization of country”

The following speech proves how much attention our President attaches to the new generation and to the problem of training specialists. “I believe the participants of this event have paid attention to the fact that the principal topic of this forum, namely, the reform issues in educational system, is directly linked to addressing the issues pertinent to steady and sustainable, primarily economic, development of a contemporary nation.[49]

It is a great honor for us that the model of reforming the educational system and experience of its implementation developed in Uzbekistan is being discussed with contribution from outstanding academicians and experts, heads and representatives of world-renowned education institutions and eminent international organizations.

To start with, it needs stressing that the education reforms program adopted fifteen years ago and dubbed the National Program for Training Personnel stands as an inseparable and integral part of our own “Uzbek model” of economic and political reforms based on gradual and evolutionary principle of building a new society in the country.[1, 60-62]

In accordance with the adopted program, we have introduced a 12-year universal compulsory and free education in Uzbekistan on the scheme 9+3. The fundamental characteristic of the model being built in our country is that following the nine years of study in a general school, during the ensuing three years young people attend specialized professional colleges and academic lyceums where every one of them, along with the general disciplines, obtains vocational training on 2-3 professions in demand in the labor market.

The law secures that the 12-year education in Uzbekistan is mandatory and free for all, and is conditioned by the fact that the growing generation is obliged to receive a 12-year education, attain a concrete vocation and profession.

After 12-year compulsory education everyone by his or her choice can continue study at higher educational institutions to obtain undergraduate and graduate degrees.

During the past years we have made strides enormous both in scale and depth to radically renew and transform the sphere of education. We have built anew, overhauled and supplied with the latest teaching and laboratory equipment about 9.5 thousand or practically all functioning general schools in the country, implemented fundamental measures to qualitatively and methodologically renovate the learning process.

The general education in Uzbekistan is carried out in seven languages: Uzbek, Karakalpak, Russian, Kazakh, Kyrgyz, Turkmen and Tajik.

More than 1,500 professional colleges and academic lyceums have been built. On their architectural design and technical facilities they are hardly inferior to any of the best higher education institutions. The advanced teaching and laboratory utensils, computer and production facilities available in the colleges allow the students not only to get a full scope of knowledge on general subjects, but also master the cutting-edge equipment and technologies.

In the system of education the Government attaches a great importance to teaching pupils not merely liberal arts and vocational skills, but also required learning of foreign languages, for this is critical for them to maintain pro-active communication with their counterparts abroad, get extensive knowledge of everything that is going on around the globe, and command the august world of intellectual treasure.

Important in reforming the learning process and training highly qualified specialists in demand in the labor market have been higher educational institutions. Within the past few years their number has increased twofold and now there are more than 230 thousand students enrolled at 59 universities and other higher educational institutions.

In Uzbekistan, have been set up the successfully functioning branches of the leading educational institutions of Europe and Asia with a high international repute and deep historical roots, including Westminster University Management and Development Institute of Singapore, Turin Polytechnic University, Russian University of Oil and Gas, Moscow State University, Russian University of Economics. Bachelor's and master's majors in mechanical engineering, oil and gas business, information technologies, economics and business management, finance management, commercial law are taught in these higher educational institutions, and their graduates receive diplomas acknowledged across the globe.

This year, National University of Uzbekistan and the Academy of Sciences, with the leading British institution – Cambridge University, are setting up the educational and experimental Center of High Technologies. It is tasked with teaching talented students, postgraduates and young academics the modern methods of conducting applied innovative scientific research in chemistry, physics, biology, biochemistry, biophysics, geology and geodesy. The Center is envisaged to be equipped with high-tech facilities where the scientists and specialists from Cambridge University are to train our young scholars how to pursue modern research.

The issues of broader involvement of young people in sports occupy a special place in implementing the National program for training personnel. The striking illustration of the aforesaid is creation of the Children's Sports Development Foundation of Uzbekistan funded by the state budget, sponsorship and charity moneys.

It is important to note that these growth rates are provided primarily thanks to deepening structural changes and diversification of the economy, the accelerated development of new high-tech enterprises and industries, speeding up the processes of modernization and technical re-equipment of the operating enterprises and extensive attraction of foreign investments.

In 2012 the growth of foreign investments will make up 16 percent, meanwhile 70 percent of them are the direct foreign investments and this speaks by itself about the growing interest of foreign capital towards the reforms being carried out in our

country, and crucially, about the confidence in the prospects of Uzbekistan's development.

Everything done and is still being done in Uzbekistan to implement the Education reforms program primarily meets the long-term interests, realities and peculiarities of a rather complex stage of our country's current development.

We all well understand that times are moving ahead fast, so are the issues related to perfecting the education system. Here, pivotal is the international cooperation, interaction of all those who labor in this sphere, not merely those who train the specialists, but also those who are in demand of those specialists.

In this dialogue, cooperation is born on a wide spectrum of issues which go far beyond the subject matter we are discussing today. And what is crucial is that through the cooperation of scholars, leaders, specialists, educators, cooperation is born among students, young people irrespective of their place of residence and study and work.”

We clearly see that one of the main constitutional guarantees - the right to receive education, realization of creativity, intellectual development – is realized through this program. The market of educational services is being formed through developing marketing in the sphere of education, and training qualified specialists, the system of governmental and non-governmental education establishments, paid consulting and educational services are being developed, market relating in the principles of self-financing, demand and supply.

Educational establishment of a new type, such as professional collages academic lyceums, gymnasiums and business schools are intensively being created.

During the past years the most important documents aimed at the creation of favorable condition to form a new highly educated generation and to support gifted children and the youth were adopted. Among these important documents are: the Laws of the Republic of Uzbekistan “On the National Program of Personnel training”, “On Education”, the resolution of the Cabinet of Ministers “On the organization of general secondary education in the Republic of Uzbekistan.”

No less attention is paid to the problem of the development of international relations and partnerships. As we know, nowadays English language is accepted as a

language of communication all over the world and that's why it is being paid great attention to in teaching foreign languages in our country.

Within the execution of the decree of the President "On measures to further improve foreign language learning" dated from 10 December 2012 a particular attention is paid to increasing the quality of teaching foreign languages at all school institutions.

In order to be one of the competitive specialists of English language teacher I decide to carry out my own research work on a very important and interesting theme. I believe that in the end of my investigation I'll achieve good results which can be helpful in working out effective and useful strategies and methodologies for teaching English in the future.

My qualification paper is devoted to the study one of the actual theme in Modern linguistics: **"Comparative study of polysemantic words in modern English and Russian and problems of linguodidacticis"**

There are a plenty of languages in the world. There are a lot of words in the language, and almost every word has 2 and more meanings and at the same time context appeared. Because only with the help of the context we know which of the meanings is more suitable in that situation or text where we are or have. That is why it is necessary to study the **polysemy** and more important to know so many meanings of one word as it is possible. Lexicology deals with words, word forming morphemes (derivational affixes) and word-groups or phrases. All these linguistic units may be said to have meaning of some kind: they are all significant and therefore must be investigated both as to form and meaning. The branch of lexicology that is devoted to the study of meaning is known as Semasiology. The scientific definition of meaning however just as the definition of some other basic linguistic terms, such as word, sentence, etc., has been the issue of interminable discussions. Since there is no universally accepted definition of meaning we shall confine ourselves to a brief survey of the problem as it is viewed in modern linguistics both in our country and elsewhere.

The actuality of the theme: The study of Polysemy is the main object and which has been dealt with by famous linguists' such as: Arnold I.V; Ginzburg R.S; Ulman S;

and Russian scholars as, Antrushina G. B; Shirokikh V. M; Vinogradov V. V; and others. Even if the "polysemantic words" have been more or less investigated in English and Russian individually there hasn't been any scientific research comparing and contrasting the "polysemantic words" in Modern English and Russian languages in order to solve issues in teaching the above mentioned "polysemantic words in Modern English" at schools.

The aim of the research: The comparative typological analysis of the "polysemantic words" in English and Russian languages and it sets following tasks:

- To study thoroughly monosemantic and polysemantic words in the English and Russian languages;
- To show the difference between polysemy and homonymy.
- To study structural and semantic classification of polysemantic words.
- To give some examples of polysemantic words in both English and Russian languages
- To give methodical recommendations for teaching English polysemantic words in Russian schools

The object of the research: polysemantic lexemes in non-related languages distinction between polysemy and homonyms and analysis of polysemantic and monosemantic patterns. Structural-semantic, linguodidactics features of the "polysemantic words" in the compared languages.

The subject matter of the qualification paper: the comparative linguistic nature of polysemantic words in the compared languages.

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

The Scientific novelty of the research is the following:

1. The detailed investigation of Polysemantic words, qualitative a quantitative analysis of the "polysemantic words" in modern English and Russian

2. To show the difference between polysemy and homonymy.
3. Detecting isomorphism and allomorphy in polysemy of compared languages
4. The effective methods and exercises for teaching the “polysemantic words in English”

The materials of the work: polysemantic words in English and Russian taken from the dictionaries, as well as from the textbooks of Lexicology by various authors. Besides, we also used the monographs, dissertations, internet sources, and the internet journals.

Methodology of the research:

The methodology of the research work by I.A. Karimov, and well known scholars as Arnold I. V. “The English word”; Antrushina G. B, Afanasyeva O.V, Morozova N.N. “English Lexicology”; Buranov, O. Muminov “A practical course in Modern English lexicology” Barskaya D.J. “Words and how to use them”; Ginzburg R.S. and others: “A course in Modern English lexicology”; Hornby A.S “Oxford Students’ dictionary of Current English”; G. M. Hoshimov “Lectures on Comparative Typology”; Muminov O.M “Lexicology of the English Language”; Palmer F.R. “Semantics: A new outline”; Shirokikh V. M, Koudrevatykh L. P. “The study of modern Lexicology” Ulman S. “Word and their use”; Vinogradov V.V “Lexicology lexicography” and many others

The theoretical value of the qualification lies in close study of polysemantic words and homonyms and their subtypes that presents an opportunity to have a deeper insight into the mechanisms of the language functioning and provides better understanding of the semantic and lexical peculiarities of the English and Russian languages.

The practical value of the qualification paper is that the practical results and conclusions can be used at the lessons at schools, seminars and practical lessons of lexicology of the compared languages, in the theory practice of translation and in teaching English at various institutions.

The field of application: The results of the research work can be used in the process of teaching at schools academic lyceums, professional colleges and

higher educational institutions as well as in the theory and practice of translation.

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

The introduction part describes the theoretical foundation of the work and its relevance and actuality.

The first chapter “Theory of word semantics and the problem of polysemy in modern linguistics” deals with historical changeability of semantic structure, diachronic and synchronic approaches to study Polysemy in Modern Linguistics.

The second chapter of the graduation paper is called “Comparative study of polysemantic words in Modern English and Russian” gives us clear information about types of Polysemy in compared languages, and isomorphic and allomorphic features of polysemantic words in Modern English and Russian.

The third chapter of the graduation paper is “Linguodidactic problems of teaching English Polysemantic words at Russian schools” gives us the new information about effective methodology for teaching the polysemantic words and system of exercises for teaching English polysemantic words at Russian schools.

Conclusion of the qualification work sums up the ideas discussed in the main part and shows the ways of implying of the qualification work.

The list of used literatures contains all research works this or that way related to polysemy and deals with the list of literature used in the qualification paper.

CHAPTER 1. THEORY OF WORD SEMANTICS AND THE PROBLEM OF POLYSEMY IN MODERN LINGUISTICS

1.1. Different approaches to the semantic structure of words

Semantics is the branch of linguistics that studies the meaning of the word. As with many terms, the term "semantics" is ambiguous for it can stand, as well, for the expressive aspect of language in general and for the meaning of one particular word in all its varied aspects and nuances.

Before going deeper into this problem, it is necessary to make a brief survey of what the "word" is?

The word may be described as the basic unit of language. Uniting meaning and form, it is composed of one or more morphemes, each consisting of one or more spoken sounds or their written representation.

French linguist A. Meillet combines the semantic, phonological and grammatical criteria and gives the following definition of the word:

A word is defined by the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment.

The linguists at present are not able to give an exact definition of meaning which is conclusive. There are different points of views for example in the book of Antrushina G. B. and etc. written that there are certain facts of which we can be reasonably sure, and one of them is that the very function of the word as a unit of communication is made possible by its possessing a meaning. Therefore, among the word's various characteristics, meaning is certainly the most important.

Generally speaking, meaning can be more or less described as a component of the word through which a concept is communicated, in this way endowing the word with the ability of denoting real objects, qualities, actions and abstract notions. The complex and somewhat mysterious relationships between referent (object, etc. denoted by the word), concept and word are traditionally represented by the following triangle:

Thought or Reference



Symbol

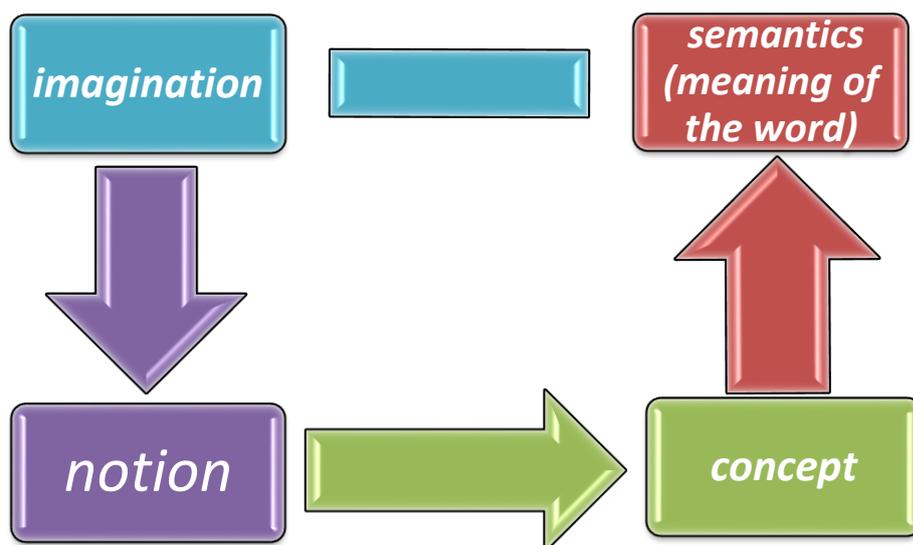
Referent

By the "symbol" here is meant the word; thought or reference is concept. The dotted line suggests that there is no immediate relation between word and referent: it is established only through the concept.

On the other hand, there is a hypothesis that concepts can only find their realisation through words. It seems that thought is dormant till the word wakens it up. It is only when we hear a spoken word or read a printed word that the corresponding concept springs into mind.

The mechanism by which concepts (i. e. mental phenomena) are converted into words (i. e. linguistic phenomena) and the reverse process by which a heard or a printed word is converted into a kind of mental picture are not yet understood or described. Probably that is the reason why the process of communication through words, if one gives it some thought, seems nothing short of a miracle. Isn't it fantastic that the mere vibrations of a speaker's vocal chords should be taken up by a listener's brain and converted into vivid pictures? If magic does exist in the world, then it is truly the magic of human speech; only we are so used to this miracle that we do not realise its almost supernatural qualities. [7,129]

As we mentioned above, concept and word are traditionally represented by the triangle, but professor G. M. Hoshimov did a big step forward and developed this idea of triangle into following quadrant:



As we see here “imagination” is always preceding the “notion” of which the “concept” consists then all this is verbalized into semantics of a language signs (units). [Hoshimov G.M. 2012 pp. 29-30]

As Mario Pei puts it in *The Study of Language*, "Semantics is 'language' in its broadest, most inclusive aspect. Sounds, words, grammatical forms, syntactical constructions are the tools of language. Semantics is language's avowed purpose"

The meanings of all the utterances of a speech community are said by another leading linguist to include the total experience of that community; arts, science, practical occupations, amusements, personal and family life.

The modern approach to semantics is based on the assumption that the inner form of the word (i. e. its meaning) presents a structure which is called the semantic structure of the word. [7, 130]

The meanings of words however are different in different languages. That is to say, words expressing identical concepts may have different meanings and different semantic structures in different languages. The concept of "a building for human habitation" is expressed in English by the word **house**, in Russian by the word **дом**, but the meaning of the English word is not identical with that of the Russian as house does not possess the meaning of "fixed residence of family or household" which is one of

the meanings of the Russian word **дом**, it is expressed by another English polysemantic word, namely **home** which possesses a number of other meanings not to be found in the Russian word **дом**. [18, 15]

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

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

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

facet, whereas the sound-form functions as its outer facet." The outer facet of the linguistic sign is indispensable to meaning and intercommunication. Meaning is to be found in all linguistic units and together with their sound-form constitutes the linguistic signs studied by linguistic science. The criticism of the referential theories of meaning may be briefly summarised as follows:

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

2. The great stumbling block in referential theories of meaning has always been that they operate with subjective and intangible mental processes. The results of semantic investigation therefore depend to a certain extent on "the feel of the language" and cannot be verified by another investigator analysing the same linguistic data. It follows that semasiology has to rely too much on linguistic intuition and unlike other fields of linguistic inquiry (e.g. phonetics, history of language) does not possess objective methods of investigation. Consequently it is argued, linguists should either give up the study of meaning and the attempts to define meaning altogether, or confine their efforts to the investigation of the function of linguistic signs in speech. [19, 16-17]

Functional Approach:

In recent years a new and entirely different approach to meaning known as the functional approach has begun to take shape in linguistics and especially in structural linguistics. The functional approach maintains that the meaning of a linguistic unit may be studied only through its relation to other linguistic-units and not through its relation to either concept or referent. In a very simplified form this view may be illustrated by the following: we know, for instance, that the meaning of the two words **move** and **movement** is different because they function in speech differently. Comparing the contexts in which we find these words we cannot fail to observe that

they occupy different positions in relation to other words. **(To) move**, e.g., can be followed by a noun (**move** the chair), preceded by a pronoun (we **move**), etc. The position occupied by the word movement is different: it may be followed by a preposition (**movement** of **smth**), preceded by an adjective (slow **movement**), and so on. As the distribution of the two words is different, we are entitled to the conclusion that not only do they belong to different classes of words, but that their meanings are different too.[19,17]

The same is true of the different meanings of one and the same word. Analysing the function of a word in linguistic contexts and comparing these contexts, we conclude that; meanings are different (or the same) and this fact can be proved by an objective investigation of linguistic data. For example we can observe the difference of the meanings of the word **take** if we examine its functions in different linguistic contexts, **take the tram (the taxi, the cab, etc.)** as opposed to **to take to somebody**. It follows that in the functional approach (1) semantic investigation is confined to the analysis of the difference or sameness of meaning; (2) meaning is understood essentially as the function of the use of linguistic units. As a matter of fact, this line of semantic investigation is the primary concern, implied or expressed, of all structural linguists.

Semantic Structure of a Word

The system of meaning of a word is called its semantic structure, and not only due to the sum of meaning: each separate meaning is subject to further subdivision and possesses an inner structure of its own. Therefore, the semantic structure of a word should be investigated at both these levels:

1. of different meanings;
2. of semantic components within each separate meaning.

Let us treat the semantic structure of the polysemantic word fire on the first level:

Flame – ОГОНЬ

- 1) fire - пожар (a forest fire),

- 2) burning material in a stove - ОГОНЬ, жар (a fire in the room),
- 3) орудийный огонь, стрельба (to open fire),
- 4) огонь, жар. страсть, энтузиазм (a speech lacking fire).

Meaning I holds a kind of dominance over other meanings conveying it in the most general way.

Meanings 2-5. 2-4 in the words given below are associated with special circumstances, aspects and instances of the same phenomenon:

table: 1) плита, 2) стол, 3) пища, стол, 4) таблица, 5) застолье;

bridge: 1) мост, мостик, 2) капитанский мостик, 3) переносица,
4) мост (для зубов).

Each separate meaning may be represented as a set of semantic components (semes). In terms of componential analysis the meaning of a word represents a set of elements of meaning which are rather theoretical elements. [45, 39]

There is another phenomenon in linguistics, near to semantics - **Syncretism** is not deeply investigated, yet. In linguistics, syncretism is the identity of form of distinct morphological forms of a word. This phenomenon is typical of fusion languages.

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: under specification, (morphemic) indexing, and 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.

For example, in English, the nominative and accusative forms of you are the same, whereas **he/him, she/her**, etc., have different forms depending on grammatical case.

In Latin, the nominative and vocative of third-declension nouns have the same form (e.g. **rēx** "king" is both nominative and vocative singular). Similarly, in German, the infinitive, first person plural present, and third person plural present of almost all verbs are identical in form (e.g. **nehmen** "to take", **wir nehmen** "we take", **sie nehmen** "they take"). Syncretism can arise through either phonological or morphological change. In the case of phonological change, forms that were originally distinct come to be pronounced identically, so that their distinctness is lost. Thus in the German case, the infinitive **nehmen** comes from Old High German **neman**, the first person plural **nehmen** comes from **nemēm**, and the third person plural **nehmen** comes from **nemant**. In the case of morphological change, one form simply stops being used and is replaced by the other: this is the case with the Latin example, where the nominative simply displaced the vocative in the third declension.

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. For instance, in Russian there is a syntactically relevant distinction between nominative and accusative, reflected in the different forms of the lexeme "book": **kniga** (nominative) and **knigu** (accusative). Other nouns in Russian fail to make this distinction: the word for "letter" has the same form for both cases, namely **pis'mo**. In order to determine whether there is an instance of syncretism, it is essential that there is evidence that the distinction involved in the syncretism is to be found in the language. This is provided straightforwardly by the two different forms of the Russian noun for "book" in our example. Syncretism has often been associated with case, but in principle it can occur between values of any feature in different word classes, including—in addition to case—gender, number, person, tense, aspect, and mood. Some features are more prone to syncretism than others. In languages with gender systems, for instance, it is the norm for syncretism to occur between gender values. As well as features in isolation, scholars have researched the interaction between features, identifying differing tendencies to syncretize when they occur together. 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. 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. [49,50, 54]

We have our own opinion about Syncretism offered by prof. G. M. Hoshimov:

Syncretism is identity of different categories and forms in one form.

For example: look-s has meanings of aspect, person, mood, number, tense and etc.

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, sentence, etc., and has been the issue of interminable discussions. Finally, meaning is information conveyed from the speaker to the listener in the process of communication. This definition applies both to words and sentences, thus overcomes one of the drawbacks of the referential approach. Since there is no universally accepted definition of meaning. [12, 50]

To sum up section 1.1 we can conclude that semantics are basic means of communication, because without semantic structure, the “word” has no meaning at all. Some meaning is representative of the word in isolation, others are perceived only in certain contexts. The whole of the semantic structure of correlated polysemantic words of different languages can never be identical. Words are felt never as correlated if their basic meanings coincide.

1.2. Problem of polysemy of words and of its correlation to homonymy

Every language has a great number of words to communicate and to express the reality;(things, actions, features and etc.). Almost all words have more than one meanings in the language,that is known as the term **Polysemy** in linguistics.

The problem of polysemy was greatly developed by Academician V.V. Vinogradov, who differentiated the meaning from the usage (a contextual variant). **Meanings** are fixed and common to all people, who know the language system. The **usage** is only possible application of one of the meanings of a polysemantic word, sometimes very individual, more or less familiar. Meaning is not identical with usage.

Of special importance is the fact that polysemy exist only in language, not in speech. The meaning of a word in speech is contextual. Polysemy does not interfere with the communicative function of a language because in every particular case the situation or context, i.e. the environment of the word, cancels all the unnecessary meanings and makes speech unambiguous. [47, 8, 32]

A further development of V.V.Vinogradov's theory was A.I. Smirnitsky's work in the linguistic field under consideration. According to this scholar all the meanings of the word form identity (тождество) supported by the form of the word. A.I. Smirnitsky introduced the term 'a lexico-semantic variant' (LSV). A lexico-semantic variant is a two-facet unit, the formal facet of which is the sound-form of a word, while the content-facet is one of the meanings of the given word, i.e. the designation (обозначение) of a certain class of objects. Words with one meaning are represented in the language system by one LSV, polysemantic words – by a number of LSVs.

All lexico-semantic variants of a word form a homogeneous semantic structure ensuring the semantic unity of the given word. All LSVs are united together by a certain meaning – the semantic pivot of the word called the semantic center of the word. Thus, the semantic center of the word is the part of meaning which remains constant in all the lexico-semantic variants of the word.

According to V. M. Shirokikh, Polysemy is a lexical phenomenon where two lexemes have the same form and different but related sense. They have something in common, e.g.:

iron I. Metal. 2. Instrument made out of metal.

fork 1. Instrument for eating 2. A rode that branches in two paths resembling a fork;

but: pupil 1. A young student 2. Part of the eye.

The first two examples were examples of polysemy while the third one is an example of homonymy. The meanings of the third one are different and unrelated but have common origin and during the time they drifted apart in meaning. Therefore a word should be defined synchronically because one can never be sure of the etymology of the word, e.g. mouth 1. Part of a face 2. Part of a river where it touches the sea. [45,37]

The other linguists R. S. Ginzburg's definition is the following: The bulk of English words are polysemantic, that is to say possess more than one meaning. The actual number of meanings of the commonly used words ranges from five to about a hundred. In fact, the commoner the word the more meanings it has. The word **table**, e.g., has at least nine meanings in Modern English:

1. a piece of furniture;
2. the persons seated at a table;
3. sing. the food put on a table, meals;
4. a thin flat piece of stone, metal, wood, etc.;
5. pl slabs of stone; 6. words cut into them or written on them (the ten tables);
7. an orderly arrangement of facts, figures, etc.;
8. part of a machine-tool on which the work is put to be operated on;
9. a level area, a plateau. Each of the individual meanings can be described in terms of the types of meanings discussed above. We may, e.g., analyse the eighth meaning of the word **table** into the part-of-speech meaning that of the noun (which presupposes the grammatical meanings of number and case) combined with the lexical meaning made up of two components The denotational semantic component which can be

interpreted as the dictionary definition (part of a machine-tool on which the work is put) and the connotational component which can be identified as a specific stylistic reference of this particular meaning of the word **table** (technical terminology) is the Russian планшайба, стол станка. In polysemantic words, however, we are faced not with the problem of analysis of individual meanings, but primarily with the problem of the interrelation and interdependence of the various meanings in the semantic structure of one and the same word. [18, 33-34]

The semantic structure of polysemantic words defined in details by G. B. Antrushina: The semantic structure of the word does not present an indissoluble unity (that is, actually, why it is referred to as "structure"), nor does it necessarily stand for one concept. It is generally known that most words convey several concepts and thus possess the corresponding number of meanings. A word having several meanings is called polysemantic, and the ability of words to have more than one meaning is described by the term polysemy.

Polysemy is certainly not an anomaly. Most English words are polysemantic. It should be noted that the wealth of expressive resources of a language largely depends on the degree to which polysemy has developed in the language. Sometimes people who are not very well informed in linguistic matters claim that a language is lacking in words if the need arises for the same word to be applied to several different phenomena. In actual fact, it is exactly the opposite: if each word is found to be capable of conveying, let us say, at least two concepts instead of one, the expressive potential of the whole vocabulary increases two fold. Hence, a well-developed polysemy is not a drawback but a great advantage in a language. On the other hand, it should be pointed out that the number of sound combinations that human speech organs can produce is limited. Therefore at a certain stage of language development the production of new words by morphological means becomes limited, and polysemy becomes increasingly important in providing the means for enriching the vocabulary. From this, it should be clear that the process of enriching the vocabulary does not consist merely in adding new words to it, but, also, in the constant development of polysemy. The system of meanings of any polysemantic word develops gradually,

mostly over the centuries, as more and more new meanings are either added to old ones, or oust some of them. So the complicated processes of polysemy development involve both the appearance of new meanings and the loss of old ones. Yet, the general tendency with English vocabulary at the modern stage of its history is to increase the total number of its meanings and in this way to provide for a quantitative and qualitative growth of the language's expressive resources. When analysing the semantic structure of a polysemantic word, it is necessary to distinguish between two levels of analysis. On the first level, the semantic structure of a word is treated as a system of meanings. For example, the semantic structure of the noun fire could be roughly presented by this scheme (only the most frequent meanings are given):

Fire, n.

I

Flame

II

III

IV

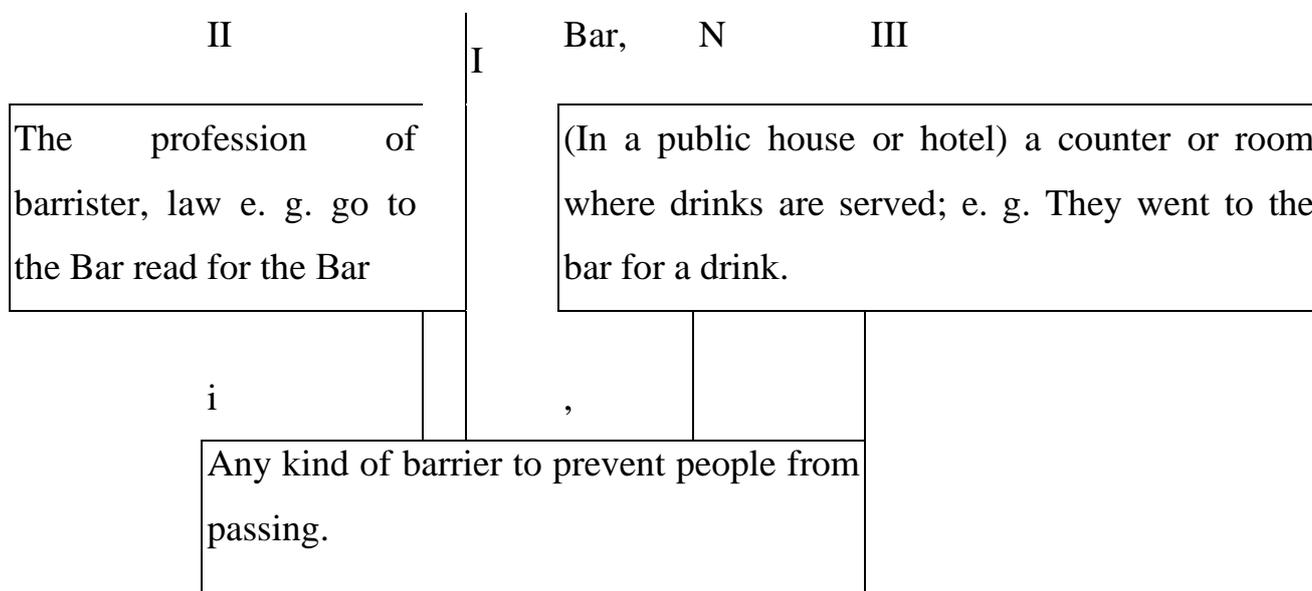
V

An instance of destructive burning; e. g. a forest fire.	Burning material in a stove, fireplace, etc.; e. g. There is a fire in the next room. A camp fire.	The shooting of guns, etc.; e. g. to open (cease) fire.	Strong feeling, passion, enthusiasm; e. g. a speech lacking fire.
----------------------------------------------------------	----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	---------------------------------------------------------	-------------------------------------------------------------------

The above scheme suggests that meaning I holds a kind of dominance over the other meanings conveying the concept in the most general way whereas meanings II—V are associated with special circumstances, aspects and instances of the same phenomenon. Meaning I (generally referred to as the main meaning) presents the centre of the semantic structure of the word holding it together. It is mainly through meaning I that meanings II—V (they are called secondary meanings) can be associated

with one another, some of them exclusively through meaning I, as, for instance, meanings IV and V.

It would hardly be possible to establish any logical associations between some of the meanings of the noun **bar** except through the main meaning: We give only a fragment of the semantic structure of **bar**, so as to illustrate the point.



Meanings II and III have no logical links with one another whereas each separately is easily associated with meaning I: meaning II through the traditional barrier dividing a court-room into two parts; meaning III through the counter serving as a kind of barrier between the customers of a pub and the barman. Yet, it is not in every polysemantic word that such a centre can be found. Some semantic structures are arranged on a different principle. In the following list of meanings of the adjective dull one can hardly hope to find a generalised meaning covering and holding together the rest of the semantic structure.

Dull, adj.

I. Uninteresting, monotonous, boring; e. g. a dull book, a dull film.

II. Slow in understanding, stupid; e. g. a dull student.

III. Not clear or bright; e. g. dull weather, a dull day, a dull colour.

IV. Not loud or distinct; e. g. a dull sound.

V. Not sharp; e. g. a dull knife.

VI. Not active; e. g. Trade is dull. VII. Seeing badly; e. g. dull eyes (arch.). VIII, Hearing badly; e. g. dull ears (arch.),

Yet, one distinctly feels that there is something that all these seemingly miscellaneous meanings have in common, and that is the implication of deficiency, be it of colour (m. III), wits (m. II), interest (m. I), sharpness (m. V), etc. The implication of insufficient quality, of something lacking, can be clearly distinguished in each separate meaning. In fact, each meaning definition in the given scheme can be subjected to a transformational operation to prove the point.

Dull, adj.

I. Uninteresting > deficient in interest or excitement.

II.... Stupid > deficient in intellect.

III. Not bright > deficient in light or colour.

IV. Not loud > deficient in sound.

V. Not sharp > deficient in sharpness.

VI. Not active > deficient in activity.

VII. Seeing badly > deficient in eyesight.

VIII. Hearing badly > deficient in hearing.

The transformed scheme of the semantic structure of dull clearly shows that the centre holding together the complex semantic structure of this word is not one of the meanings but a certain component that can be easily singled out within each separate meaning. This brings us to the second level of analysis of the semantic structure of a word. The transformational operation with the meaning definitions of dull reveals something very significant: the semantic structure of the word is "divisible", as it were, not only at the level of different meanings but, also, at a deeper level. Each separate meaning seems to be subject to structural analysis in which it may be represented as sets of semantic components. In terms of componential analysis, one of the modern methods of semantic research, the meaning of a word is defined as a set of elements of meaning which are not part of the vocabulary of the language itself, but rather theoretical elements, postulated in order to describe the semantic relations between the lexical elements of a given language. The scheme of the semantic structure of dull

shows that the semantic structure of a word is not a mere system of meanings, for each separate meaning is subject to further subdivision and possesses an inner structure of its own. Therefore, the semantic structure of a word should be investigated at both these level: **a)** of different meanings, **b)** of semantic components within each separate meaning. For a monosemantic word (i. e. a word with one meaning) the first level is naturally excluded. [7, 131-136]

Polysemy (by I.V. Arnold) is inherent in the very nature of words and concepts as every object and every notion has many features and a concept reflected in a word always contains a generalisation of several traits of the object. Some of these traits or components of meaning are common with other objects. Hence the possibility of using the same name in secondary nomination for objects possessing common features which are sometimes only implied in the original meaning. A word when acquiring new meaning or meanings may also retain, and most often retains the previous meaning. E. g. birth — 1) the act or time of being born, 2) an origin or beginning, 3) descent, family.

Polysemy is a phenomenon of language not of speech. The sum total of many contexts in which the word is observed to occur permits the lexicographers to record cases of identical meaning and cases that differ in meaning. They are registered by lexicographers and found in dictionaries. [4, 53-54]

So, the problem of polysemy is mainly the problem of interrelation and interdependence of the various meanings of the same word.

Polysemy viewed diachronically is a historical change in the semantic structure of the word resulting in disappearance of some meanings being added to the ones already existing and also in the rearrangement of these meanings in its semantic structure. Polysemy viewed synchronically is understood as coexistence of the various meanings in the semantic structure of the word. As the semantic structure is never static the relationship between the diachronic and synchronic evaluation of the individual meanings of the same. Word may be different in different periods of the historical development of language.

Diachronic approach to polysemy

If polysemy is viewed diachronically, it is understood as the growth and development of or, in general, as a change in the semantic structure of the word.

Polysemy in diachronic terms implies that a word may retain its previous meaning or meanings and at the same time acquire one or several new ones. Then the problem of the interrelation and interdependence of individual meanings of a polysemantic word may be roughly formulated as follows: did the word always possess all its meanings or did some of them appear earlier than the others? are the new meanings dependent on the meanings already existing? and if so what is the nature of this dependence? can we observe any changes in the arrangement of the meanings? and so on.

In the course of a diachronic semantic analysis of the polysemantic word **table** we find that of all the meanings it has in Modern English, the primary meaning is "a flat slab of stone or wood", which is proper to the word in the Old English period (OE. **tabule** from L. **tabula**); all other meanings are secondary as they are derived from the primary meaning of the word and appeared later than the primary meaning, The terms **secondary** and **derived** meaning are to a certain extent synonymous. When we describe the meaning of the word as "secondary" we imply that it could not have appeared before the primary meaning was in existence. When we refer to the meaning as "derived" we imply not only that, but also that it is dependent on the primary meaning and somehow subordinate to it. In the case of the word table, e.g., we may say that the meaning 'the food put on the table' is a secondary meaning as it is derived from the meaning a piece of furniture (on which meals are laid out).

It follows that the main source of polysemy is a change in the semantic structure of the word.

Polysemy may also arise from homonymy. When two words become identical in sound-form, the meanings of the two words are felt as making up one semantic structure. Thus, the human **ear** and the **ear** of corn are from the diachronic point of view two homonyms. One is etymologically related to L. **auris**, the other to L. **acus**, **aceris**. Synchronically, however, they are perceived as two meanings of one and the

same word. The **ear** of **corn** is felt to be a metaphor of the usual type (cf. the eye of the needle, the foot of the mountain) and consequently as one of the derived or, synchronically, minor meanings of the polysemantic word ear. Cases of this type are comparatively rare and, as a rule, illustrative of the vagueness of the border-line between polysemy and homonymy.

Semantic changes result as a rule in new meanings being added to the ones already existing in the semantic structure of the word. Some of the old meanings may become obsolete or even disappear, but the bulk of English words tend to an increase in number of meanings.

Synchronic approach to polysemy

Synchronically we understand polysemy as the coexistence of various meanings of the same word at a certain historical period of the development of the English language. In this case the problem of the interrelation and interdependence of individual meanings making up the semantic structure of the word must be investigated along different lines.

In connection with the polysemantic word table discussed above we are mainly concerned with the following problems: are all the nine meanings equally representative of the semantic structure of this word? Is the order in which the meanings are enumerated (or recorded) in dictionaries purely arbitrary or does it reflect the comparative value of individual meanings, the place they occupy in the semantic structure of the word table? Intuitively we feel that the meaning that first occurs to us whenever we hear or see the word table is “an article of furniture”. This emerges as the basic or the central meaning of the word and all other meanings are minor in comparison.

It should be noted that whereas the basic meaning occurs in various and widely different contexts, minor meanings are observed only in certain contexts, e.g. “to keep-the table amused”, 'table of contents' and so on. Thus we can assume that the meaning 'a piece of furniture' occupies the central place in the semantic structure of the word table. As to other meanings of this word we find it hard to grade them in order of their comparative value. Some may, for example, consider the second and the third

meanings (“the persons seated at the table” and “the food put on the table”) as equally "important", some may argue that the meaning 'food put on the table' should be given priority. As synchronically there is no objective criterion to go by, we may find it difficult in some cases to single out even the basic meanings since two or more meanings of the word may be felt as equally "central" in its semantic structure. If we analyse the verb to get, e.g., which of the two meanings 'to obtain' (get a letter, knowledge, some sleep) or 'to arrive' (get to London, to get into bed) shall we regard as the basic meaning of this word?

A more objective criterion of the comparative value of individual meanings seems to be the frequency of their occurrence in speech. There is a tendency in modern linguistics to interpret the concept of the central meaning in terms of the frequency of occurrence of this meaning. In a study of five million words made by a group of linguistic scientists it was found that the frequency value of individual meanings is different. As far as the word table is concerned the meaning “a piece of furniture” possesses

The semantic structure of a polysemantic word presents a system within which all its constituent meanings are held together by logical associations. In most cases, the function of the arrangement and the unity is determined by one of the meanings (e. g. the meaning "flame" in the noun fire). If this meaning happens to disappear from the word's semantic structure, associations between the rest of the meanings may be severed, the semantic structure loses its unity and falls into two or more parts which then become accepted as independent lexical units. The semantic structure of the polysemantic word breaks into several parts and produces homonyms is called **split polysemy**.

board, n. — a long and thin piece of timber

board, n. — daily meals, esp. as provided for pay,

e. g. room and board board, n. — an official group of persons who direct or supervise some activity, e. g. a board of directors

It is clear that the meanings of these three words are in no way associated with one another. Yet, most larger dictionaries still enter a meaning of board that once held together all these other meanings "table". It developed from the meaning "a piece of timber" by transference based on contiguity (association of an object and the material from which it is made). The meanings "meals" and "an official group of persons" developed from the meaning "table", also by transference based on contiguity: meals are easily associated with a table on which they are served; an official group of people in authority are also likely to discuss their business round a table.

Nowadays, however, the item of furniture, on which meals are served and round which boards of directors meet, is no longer denoted by the word board but by the French Norman borrowing table, and board in this meaning, though still registered by some dictionaries, can very well be marked as archaic as it is no longer used in common speech. That is why, with the intrusion of the borrowed table, the word board actually lost its corresponding meaning. But it was just that meaning which served as a link to hold together the rest of the constituent parts of the word's semantic structure. With its diminished role as an element of communication, its role in the semantic structure was also weakened. The speakers almost forgot that board had ever been associated with any item of furniture, nor could they associate the concepts of meals or of a responsible committee with a long thin piece of timber (which is the oldest meaning of board). Consequently, the semantic structure of board was split into three units. The following scheme illustrates the process:

Board, n. (development of meanings)

A long, thin piece of timber	A piece of furniture	—>	Meals provided for pay
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Board I, II, III, n. (split polysemy)		An official group of persons
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I. A long, thin piece of timber	A piece of furniture	II.	Meals provided for pay
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Seldom used; ousted III. by the French borrowing table.

An official group of persons

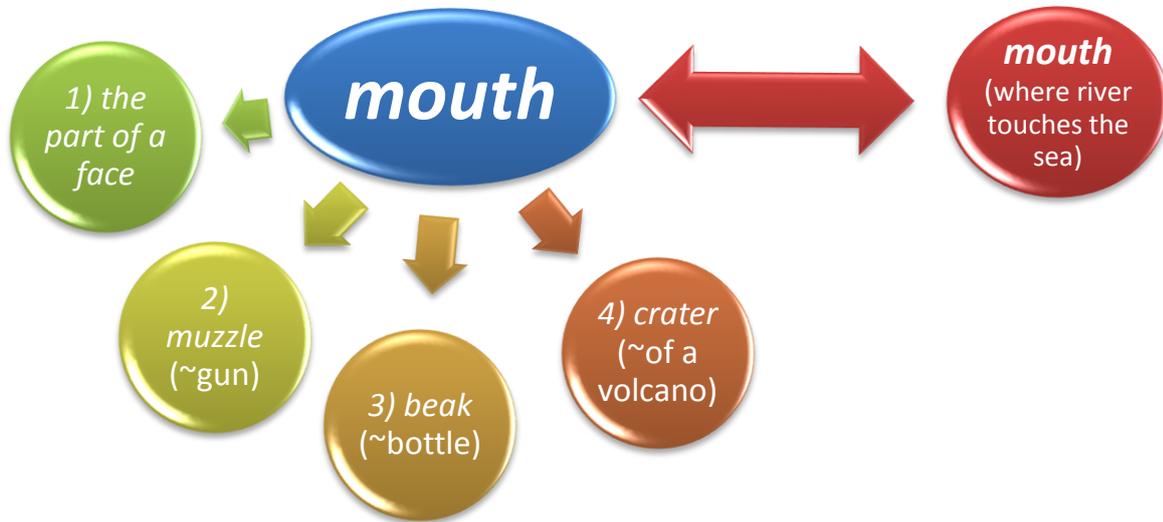
A somewhat different case of **split polysemy** may be illustrated by the three following homonyms:

spring, n. — the act of springing, a leap spring, n. — a place where a stream of water comes up out of the earth (R. родник, источник) spring, n. — a season of the year.

Historically all three nouns originate from the same verb with the meaning of "to jump, to leap" (O. E. sprin-gan), so that the meaning of the first homonym is the oldest. The meanings of the second and third homonyms were originally based on metaphor. At the head of a stream the water sometimes leaps up out of the earth, so that metaphorically such a place could well be described as a leap. On the other hand, the season of the year following winter could be poetically defined as a leap from the darkness and cold into sunlight and life. Such metaphors are typical enough of Old English and Middle English semantic transferences but not so characteristic of modern mental and linguistic processes. The poetic associations that lay in the basis of the semantic shifts described above have long since been forgotten, and an attempt to re-establish the lost links may well seem far-fetched. It is just the near-impossibility of establishing such links that seems to support the claim for homonymy and not for polysemy with these three words.

It should be stressed, however, that split polysemy as a source of homonyms is not accepted by some scholars. It is really difficult sometimes to decide whether a certain word has or has not been subjected to the split of the semantic structure and whether we are dealing with different meanings of the same word or with homonyms, for the criteria are subjective and imprecise. The imprecision is recorded in the data of different dictionaries which often contradict each other on this very issue.

Analysing section 1.2. We can say polysemantic words are language units, which include more than two semantically close to each other meanings. If semantic cohesion disappears, polysemy causes homonymy. (picture 2)



As we see here the former four meanings are semantically correlated, but the last one loses semantic connection with others.

CHAPTER 2. COMPARATIVE STUDY OF POLYSEMANTIC WORDS IN MODERN ENGLISH AND RUSSIAN

2.1. Comparative study of the structural types of polysemantic words in Modern English and Russian (structural classification).

Having analysed a great number of research works, articles and graduate dissertations like: Lyons J. “Linguistic Semantics”, S. Pesina “The Lexical Eidos as an Invariant of a Polysemantic Word”, Gergely Petho “What is Polysemy? — A Survey of Current Research and Results”, Behbudova Esmira Shafa qizi “Distinction between Polysemantic and Homonymous phraseology in English” we have found out that Polysemy is the existence within one word of several connected meanings. These meanings appeared as a result of the development and changes of its original meaning. [13,15,35,37,38,40]

Words semantically are divided into two:

- a) monosemantic words**
- b) polysemantic words**

But there are no structural classification of polysemantic words that’s why we pay more attention to this problem. This section of our research work is devoted to the analysis of the structural types of polysemantic words in Modern English and Russian.

Antrushina G.B. gives a purely further definition about notion of word: First, we do know that the word is a unit of speech which, as such, serves the purposes of human communication. Thus, the word can be defined as a unit of communication. Secondly, the word can be perceived as the total of the sounds which comprise it. Third, the word, viewed structurally, possesses several characteristics. The modern approach to word studies is based on distinguishing between the external and the internal structures of the word. [7, 7-8]

By external structure of the word we mean its morphological structure. For example, in the word post-impressionists the following morphemes can be distinguished: the prefixes post-, im-, the root press, the noun-forming suffixes -ion, -ist, and the

grammatical suffix of plurality -s. All these morphemes constitute the external structure of the word post-impressionists.

The internal structure of the word, or its meaning, is nowadays commonly referred to as the word's semantic structure. This is certainly the word's main aspect. Words can serve the purposes of human communication 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. [7, 8]

The structural types of Polysemantic words are divided into four groups according to their morphological structure, namely the number and type of morphemes which compose them. They are:

1. Simple polysemantic words. Their stem contains one free morpheme, e. g. hand, heart, boy and etc.

Hand has at least 9 meanings:

1) part of human body at end of arm (рука)

Ex: Mrs. Bennet put her hands over her ears to shut out the noise.

2) Somebody working on farm/ship (рабочий)

Ex: It was a large farm, with over 200 hired hands

3) help give somebody a hand (помощь)

Ex: Can you give me a hand with these boxes?

4) clapping (аплодировать)

Ex: A big hand for the band, ladies and gentleman!

5) set of cards you hold

6) advantages in situation

Ex: everything depends on how the company plays it hand.

7) part of clock/pointer (стрелка часов)

Ex: The hands on a clock are the long parts that move around and show the time.

8) Signature/handwriting (подпись)

Ex: but he will recognize my hand

9) a unit for measuring how tall a horse is. [29, 385]

The word “**HEART**” has six meanings in modern English.

1. heart – that part of the body which pumps blood:

Ex: When a men’s **heart** stops beating, he dies. – сердце

2. heart – center of the emotions, esp. love; deeper part of one’s nature.

Ex: A man with a kind **heart**. – добродушный

3. heart – central part.

Ex: In the **heart** of the forest. – в сердце леса

4. heart – the central part of something (of a vegetable).

Ex: A cabbage **heart** – сердцевина

5. heart – shaped thing, esp. the red design on some playing card. – червонная карта

Ex: the ten queen of heart

6. heart – as a term of endearment to a person

Ex: dear heart [20, 397-398]

2. Derived polysemantic words. Derivatives contain no less than two morphemes of which at least one is bound, e.g. handy, handful; sometimes both are bound: horror

Handy has 3 meanings:

1. useful:

Ex: The book is handy for quick reference.

2. close to you and therefore easy to reach or get to:

Ex: Keep your pills handy just in case you feel seasick.

3. good at doing or making things with your hands:

Ex: He’s very handy with a paintbrush (=good at painting)[29]

According to the Macmillan English dictionary (for advanced learners) **handful** contains three meanings:

1. a very small number of people or things:

Ex: The game was dominated by a handful of players

2. the quantity of something that you can hold in your hand:

Ex: a handful of coins

3. informal someone who is difficult to manage or control

Horror:

1. a strong feeling of shock or fear caused by something extremely unpleasant:

Ex: Millions watched in horror as the disaster unfolded on TV.

2. books and films that are intended to frighten people:

Ex: He had a horror of being in a confined space.

3. informal an unpleasant person or buffoon.[29, 406]

3. Compound polysemantic words. Compound words consist of not less than two free morphemes, the presence of bound morphemes is possible but not necessary, e. g. handball, gateway

Handball also has three meanings:

1. a game in which two teams of players use their hands to pass a ball and try to score goals
2. the ball used in handball
3. in football, the offence of touching the ball with your hands.

The polysemantic word **gateway** has four meanings:

1. an entrance that is opened and closed with a gate:

Ex: You'll see the house as soon as you go through the gateway.

2. a place that allows you to reach or enter a larger place:

Ex: Stranraer is the gateway to the whole of Ireland.

3. something that allows you to do or achieve something:

Ex: the gateway to mathematics/ the gateway to understanding life

4. a way of connecting two computer networks [29]

4. Compound derived polysemantic words. Compound derivatives consist of not less than two free morphemes and one bound morpheme referring to the whole combination. The pattern is (stem+stem) +suffix, e. g left-handed.

Left-handed is a good example of compound derived polysemantic word:

1. someone who is left-handed is born with a natural tendency to use their left hand to do things:

Ex: My mum's left-handed

2. used about things that are designed to be used by left hand:

Ex: a left-handed corkscrew

3. done with your left hand:

Ex: He writes left-handed [29]

We classify polysemantic words into four groups according to their morphological structure: hand – a simple (root) polysemantic word, handy, handful – a derived polysemantic word (root + affix), handball – compound polysemantic word (2 stems), left-handed – a compound-derived polysemantic word (2 stems + affix).

In order to make the research more exact and based on facts, not mere statements, we make quantitative and qualitative analyses. The aim of the research is the comparative typological analysis of the “polysemantic words” in English and Russian languages. The cultures of the two languages (English and Russian) have many differences.

In English Language	In Russian Language
<p>Free</p> <p>1. something that is free does not cost anything</p> <p>The swimming pool is free to hotel guests.</p> <p>2. not a prisoner or slave</p> <p>He opened the cage and set the eagle free.</p> <p>3. not held, tied or fixed to</p>	<p>Свободный, -ая, -ое; -ден, -дна</p> <p>1. —</p> <p>2. Пользующийся свободой (во 2 знач.).</p> <p>Свободный народ. Свободный труд.</p> <p>3. Не закрепленный,</p>

<p>somewhere</p> <p>With his free hand he carefully unfastened his belt.</p> <p>4. not limited or controlled by rules</p> <p>Officials want free access to all suspect nuclear sites.</p> <p>5. not containing or involving something unpleasant</p> <p>We want to give all children a world free from violence.</p> <p>6. available to see someone, do something, or go somewhere</p> <p>I'm busy now at the moment, but I'll be free this afternoon.</p> <p>7. time when you do not have any work to do, so you can do whatever you want</p> <p>I'll keep a day free next week for our meeting.</p> <p>8. if you are free with your</p>	<p>совершающийся легко, без помех.</p> <p>Свободные движения. Свободное дыхание.</p> <p>4. поля ф. Не запрещенный, беспрепятственный.</p> <p>Свободный проезд. Вход Свободный (без билетов)</p> <p>5. Непринужденный, не испытывающий стеснения.</p> <p>Слишком свободное поведение.</p> <p>6. Никем или ничем не занятый.</p> <p>Свободное место в вагоне. Телефон свободен. Здесь свободно?</p> <p>7. Относящийся к досугу, не к рабочему времени; не занятый работой, служебными обязанностями.</p> <p>Свободное время. С. вечер. Свободен по вечерам.</p> <p>8. Свободен. Может идти, его</p>
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<p>opinions or comments, you say so much that it annoys other people</p> <p>He's never been particularly free with his cash.</p> <p>9. science not combined with another substance, or not joined attached to anything else</p> <p>free radicals/ free hydrogen</p> <p>10. —</p> <p>11. —</p> <p>12. —</p>	<p>больше не задерживают.</p> <p>Разговор окончен, вы свободны. Я свободен? Можете идти, благодарю вас.</p> <p>9. —</p> <p>10. Просторный, не тесный.</p> <p>Свободное платье. В комнатах светло и свободно</p> <p>11. Не имеющий чего-н., такой, к-рому не присуще что-н. (книжн.).</p> <p>Спектакль свободен от недостатков</p> <p>12. Просто, легко, без помех</p> <p>Свободный перевод - вольный, не следующий строго за оригиналом.</p>
<p>Freely</p> <p>1. without being stopped or controlled by rules or laws</p> <p>The shares could be traded freely on the open market.</p>	<p>Свободно</p> <p>1. свободно, нареч. Просто, легко, без помех (прост.).</p> <p>Здесь свободно можно спрятаться. В таком лесу свободно заблудиться.</p>

<p>2. easily and smoothly, without being stopped or interrupted</p>	<p>2. Свободно (наречие)</p>
<p>The traffic is moving quite freely this morning.</p>	<p>Свободно говорить по-французски.</p>
<p>3. generously or in a willing way</p>	<p>3. Никем или ничем не занятый.</p>
<p>Please give freely to support our cause</p>	<p>Здесь свободно? (в знач. сказ.; это место не занято?)</p>
<p>4. not in an exact way, but giving a general idea of the meaning of something</p>	<p>4. —</p>
<p>Freely translated, “quid pro quo” means “something for something.</p>	
<p>5. without trying to hide anything</p>	<p>5. —</p>
<p>He freely admits he is jealous.</p>	
<p>6. something that is freely available is easy to obtain or buy</p>	<p>6. —</p>
<p>Players can move freely between clubs.</p>	
<p>7. —</p>	<p>7. Просторный</p> <p>В комнатах светло и свободно (в знач. сказ.)</p>

<p>Freestyle</p> <p>1. in swimming, using the crawl</p> <p>the 800 metres freestyle champion</p> <p>2. using whatever style or method you want to</p>	<p>Кроль, -я, м</p> <p>1. Стиль спортивного плавания, при к-ром полусогнутые руки поочередно выбрасываются над водой.</p> <p>Плыть кролем.[49]</p> <p>2. —</p>
<p>free-floating</p> <p>1. not fixed to anything, and able to move anywhere</p> <p>2. not connected with any particular company or organization</p> <p>3. not controlled or fixed by any particular system [29]</p>	<p>—</p>

In polysemantic words, however, we are faced not with the problem of analyses of individual meanings, but primarily with the problem of interrelation and interdependence of the various meanings in the semantic structure of one and the same word. The interdependence of various features of the word may be easily observed through a comparative analysis of these aspects in relation to any chosen individual feature. Thus choosing, for example: the semantic structure as a starting point we shall observe that there is a certain interdependence between the number of meanings in a word and its structural and derivational type, its structural and etymological character, its stylistic reference. The analysis may start with any other aspect of the word its structure, style or origin- it will generally reveal the same type of interdependence of all

the aspects, it is the frequency value of individual words that most graphically reveals the interdependence of all aspects. Words of highest frequency, those that come into the first 2000 of most frequently occurring words all tend to be polysemantic and structurally simple.

It should be noted, however, that structure and etymology by themselves are not always indicative of other aspects of the word – simple words are not necessarily polysemantic e. g. Lake, rabbit, wrist, coward, etc. Words that etymologically belong to late borrowings may be simple in structure.

The higher the frequency the more polysemantic is the word, the simpler it is in structure. Frequency most clearly reflects the close interconnection between polysemy and the structure of the word. The latest data of linguistic investigation show that the number of the number of morphemes the words consist of.

Derived and compound words rarely have high frequency of occurrence and are rarely polysemantic

To sum up all mentioned above, we can conclude that simple words are less motivated so, that's why most of them have a number of meanings. Semantically the majority of compounds are motivated units: their meaning is derived from the combined lexical meanings of their components. The semantic centre of the compound is the lexical meaning of the second component modified and restricted by the meaning of the first, e.g.:

a handbag = a bag carried in the hand;

an ear-ring = a ring to wear in the ear.

But the meaning of a compound is not a simple sum of lexical meanings of its components: the new meaning dominates over the individual meanings of the components.

2.2. Comparative study of the semantic structure of polysemantic words in Modern English and Russian (semantic classification)

In previous chapters we discussed the notion of polysemy and different approaches to its study. So, the ability of words to have more than one meaning is described by the term polysemy, a word having several meanings is called polysemantic one. Polysemy is characteristic of most words in many languages however different they may be. But it is more characteristic of the English vocabulary as compared with Russian, due to the monosyllabic character of English and the predominance of root words. The greater the relative frequency of the word, the greater the number of variants that constitute its semantic structure, i.e. the more polysemantic it is. The semantic structure of a word is the system and unity of all the types of meaning that a certain word possesses.

The system of meaning of a word is called its semantic structure, and not only due to the sum of meaning: each separate meaning is subject to further subdivision and possesses an inner structure of its own.

Shirokikh V. M. and Antrushina G. B. investigated the semantic structure of a word in two levels:

1. of different meanings;
2. of semantic components within each separate meaning.

Shirokikh V. M. described the semantic structure of polysemantic words by diachronic and synchronic approaches.

By diachronic approach we distinguish **the primary meaning**: table - a flat slab of stone and wood (плита), **secondary** meanings (all the other meanings): стол, пища, таблица - as they are derived from the primary meaning of the word and appeared later than the primary meaning. The terms «secondary» (вторичное) and «derived» (производное) meanings are to a certain extent synonymous. The term «secondary» denotes (implies) that this meaning appeared after the primary meaning. When we refer to the meaning «derived» we do not only stress the fact that the meaning appeared after the primary one, but also that it is dependent on the primary meaning

and somehow subordinate to it. E.g. in the case of the word table we may say that the meaning «food put on the table» is derived from the meaning «a piece of furniture on which meals are laid». As this particular meaning is derived through metonymic shift (change), we can also describe it as secondary and metonymic.

It follows that the main source of polysemy is a change in the semantic structure of the word.

Synchronically we understand polysemy as the coexistence of different meanings of the same word at a certain historical period of the development of the English language. Here the problems are as follows: are all the meanings equal in the semantic structure of this word? Is the order in which the meanings are enumerated in dictionaries arbitrary, or does it reflect the comparative value of individual meanings?

By synchronic approach we must distinguish the **basic (the central) meaning** of the word and **the minor meanings**. The basic meaning of the word is representative of the word in isolation, while the minor meanings are observed only in certain contexts, e.g.: table - «a piece of furniture» (central meaning). All the other meanings are minor.

A proper objective criterion of the comparative value of individual meanings is the frequency of their occurrence in speech, which may be different:

- table** 1) стол (52% of all the uses of the word);
2) таблица (35% of all the uses of the word);
3) all the other meanings (13%).

Of great importance is the stylistic stratification of meanings of a polysemantic word because not only words but individual meanings too may differ in their stylistic reference, e.g., there is nothing colloquial in the word yellow in the meaning «a certain colour», but when yellow is used in the meaning of «sensational», it is both slang and American.

If polysemy is analysed diachronically it is understood as the development of the semantic structure of the word or we establish how the meaning of the word has changed whether it has got new meanings in the course of the development of the language. From the point of view one of the meanings of the word will be primary meanings; that is such a meaning of a word which was first registered.

All other meanings are secondary meanings. The term secondary meanings shows that the meaning appeared in the language after the primary meaning was already established.

Example: The primary meaning of the word

- a) “**fox**” is лиса, лисица but such meanings of this word as лисий мех, первокурсник are secondary meanings.
- b) “**eye**” the primary is глаз, secondary is взгляд, глазок в двери, ушко иголки, петельки.
- c) “**father**” the primary meaning is отец secondary meaning is старейший член семьи, родоначальник, духовный отец and etc.
- d) “**fish**” the primary meaning is рыба, secondary meaning is наглец, нахал.

Synchronically polysemy is understood as the coexistence of various meanings of the word at a certain historical period of the development of English. Synchronically the main problem of polysemy to establish, whether, all the meanings of a word are equally important. We divide the meanings of a word into two:

- a) the major meaning of a word
- b) the minor meaning of a word

In most cases the surrounding context points out quite clearly which of the meanings of a word is intended. Example: 1. It is a fox. Here “it” shows that the word “fox” is used in the meaning “лиса”

2. He is a fox. The presence of “he” shows that “fox” is in the meaning of “хитрый”

3. She will fox him. We find the meaning from the position of “fox”. It stands after the auxiliary verb “will” and the direct object “him”. Here it is used in the meaning of “обманывать”.

The meaning which is not dependent on context is the major meaning of the word and the meaning which are dependent on the context are minor meanings. By context we mean the minimal stretch of speech determining each individual meaning of the word.

Example: “to make” means “to produce smth” meanings are minor meanings because they can be found only in a context.

The meaning of a word may be determined either by its grammatical context.

Example: The verb “to take” in such lexical distribution as;

take + tea (coffee, medicine) – its meaning is numb

take + care – заботиться;

take + off –раздеваться;

to take + tram, the metro, a bus - сесть на...,

The meaning “больной”of the adjective “ill” is brought out only by a syntactical pattern in which “ill” is used as a predicative.

Ex: The man is ill. While the syntactical pattern in which the word “ill” is used as an attribute, brings out the meaning –плохой, вредный;

An ill man- плохой человек

The semantic structure of words is never static, and the relationship between the diachronic and synchronic evaluation of individual meanings may be different in different periods of the historical development of language.

Thus, the primary meaning of the word may become synchronically one of the minor meanings, and diachronically a secondary meaning may function as the central meaning of the word, e.g., revolution in 1600 in the meaning «revolving motion» (восстание) was both primary (diachronically) and central (synchronically), while the meaning «a complete overthrow of the established government» (свержение) and other meanings were minor ones.

In Modern English the meaning «revolving motion» is primary diachronically, but it is no longer synchronically central, as the arrangement of meanings in the semantic structure of the word «revolution» has greatly changed, and the most frequent meaning is «a complete overthrow of the established government or regime».[45, 38-40]

The classification of V. M. Shirokikh is a good one but Antrushina G. B. studies deeply and writes about semantic component in semantic structure of a word is

usually termed denotative component (also, the term referential component may be used). The denotative component expresses the conceptual content of a word.

The following list presents denotative components of some English adjectives and verbs:

	Denotative components
lonely, adj.	» [alone]
notorious, adj.	» [widely]
celebrated, adj.	» [widely]
to glare, v.	» [to look]
to glance, v.	» [to look]
to shiver, v.	» [to tremble]
to shudder, v.	» [to tremble]

It is quite obvious that the definitions given in the right column only partially and incompletely describe the meanings of their corresponding words. To give a more or less full picture of the meaning of a word, it is necessary to include in the scheme of analysis additional semantic components which are termed connotations or connotative components.

Let us complete the semantic structures of the words given above introducing connotative components into the schemes of their semantic structures.

	Denotative	+	Connotative	
lonely, adj.	====> alone, without		melancholy, sad	Emotive connotation
notorious, adj.	====> widely known		for criminal acts or bad traits of	Evaluative connotation, negative
celebrated, adj.	-- widely known		for special achievement in science, art.	Evaluative connotation, positive

to glare, v.	—	to look +	steadily, lastingly in anger, rage, etc.	1. Connotation of duration 2. Emotive connotation
to glance, v.	====>	to look +	briefly, passingly	Connotation of duration
to shiver, v.	—	to tremble +	[lastingly] +(usu) with the cold	1. Connotation of duration 2. Connotation of cause
to shudder, v.	—	[to tremble +	[briefly with horror, disgust, etc.	1. Connotation of duration 2. Connotation of cause 3. Emotive

The above examples show how by singling out denotative and connotative components one can get a sufficiently clear picture of what the word really means. The schemes presenting the semantic structures of glare, shiver, shudder also show that a meaning can have two or more connotative components.

The given examples do not exhaust all the types of connotations but present only a few: emotive, evaluative connotations, and also connotations of duration and of cause. [7, 135-138]

Stylistic connotations is what the word conveys about the speaker's attitude to the social circumstances and the appropriate functional style (slay vs kill), evaluative connotation may show his approval or disapproval of the object spoken of (clique vs group), emotional connotation conveys the speaker's emotions (mummy vs mother), the degree of intensity (adore vs love) is conveyed by expressive or intensifying connotation.

The word's semantic structure is an organized whole comprised by recurrent meanings and assume in different context, together with emotional or stylistic colouring and other connotations, if any research into the structure of polysemy

involves a determination of the relationship among the separate meanings of a word. There are two perspectives that may underline such an investigation.

Firstly the substantive character of the links among the various meanings has to be studied. One of the questions that arises here relates to the distinction between literal and figurative meaning. It is commonly merely negatively defined as non-literal meaning, it has to be investigated whether it is possible to give an independent characterization of figurativeness. Also note that diachronic studies of semantic importance in this perspective: semasiological mechanisms such as metaphor and metonymy not merely characterize diachronic shifts of meaning, but at the same time furnish a characterization of the synchronic, links that tie together the readings of a word. (this is not to say that any historical process has a synchronic reflection: in the case of dead metaphors, for example: the original metaphorical link is no longer synchronically present).

Secondly differences in the status of the various meanings have to be considered. While a naive view of lexical semantic structure might hold that all meanings have an equal status within the lexical concept, it is now generally accepted that some meanings are more central to the category than others.

An immediately related question is which meanings of an item are permanently stored in the mental lexicon and which are derived by means of rules stored representations. Note that this question is not simply an academic one; it is of some importance for any attempt to give a formal representation of lexical meaning. Polysemy and semantic structure exist only in language, not in speech. The sheer total of many contexts in which the word may occur permits us to observe and record cases of identical meaning and cases that differ in meaning. They are registered and classified by lexicographers and found in dictionaries.

For example: we read that to bother has two variants as a verb:

- 1 - to worry or to cause trouble;
- 2 - to take the trouble;

It is very important to distinguish between the lexical meaning of a word in speech and its semantic structure in language. The meaning in speech is contextual. If one examines¹. For example the word “**bother**” in the following;

Any woman will love any man who bothers her enough (H. Philips). One sees in a definite context that particularizes it and makes possible only, one meaning: “to cause trouble”. This notion receives the emotional colouring of many revealing the protagonist's view of love as cynical and pessimistic. This colouring in the word “**bother**” is combined with a colloquial stylistic tone. Actually used it has only one meaning, it is monosemantic but it may render a complicated notion or emotion with many features. The semantic structure of correlated words of two different languages can never cover each other. The major meaning is in most identical in two languages but others usually differ. The meaning “male child” can be found both in the English word “boy” and its Russian equivalent “мальчик”, but the meaning “servant” can not be found in the Russian word “мальчик”.

The problem in polysemy is that of interrelation of different lexico-semantic variants. There may be no single semantic component common to all lexico-semantic variants but every variant has something in common with at least one of the others.

All lexico-semantic variants of a word taken together form its semantic structure or semantic paradigm. The word face, for example, according to the dictionary data has the following semantic structure:

1. The front part of the head: He fell on his face,
2. Look, expression: a sadface, smiling faces, she is a good judge of faces.
3. Surface, facade: face of a clock, face of a building, He laid his cards face down.
4. fig. Impudence, boldness, courage; put a good/brave/ boldface on smth, put a new face on smth, the face of it, have the face to do, save one's face.
5. Style of typecast for printing: bold-face type.

In polysemy we are faced with the problem of interrelation and interdependence of various meanings in the semantic structure of one and the same word.

No general or complete scheme of types of lexical meanings as elements of a word's semantic structure has so far been accepted by linguists. There are various points of view. The following terms may be found with different authors: direct / figurative, other oppositions are: main / derived; primary / secondary; concrete/ abstract; central/ peripheral; general/ special; narrow / extended and so on.

Meaning is direct when it nominates the referent without the help of a context, in isolation; meaning is figurative when the referent is named and at the same time characterised through its similarity with other objects, e.g. tough meat - direct meaning, tough politician - figurative meaning. Similar examples are: head - head of a cabbage, foot -foot of a mountain, face - put a new face on smth.

As a rule the contextual meaning represents only one of the possible lexico-semantic variants of the word. So polysemy does not interfere with the communicative function of the language because the situation and the context cancel all the unwanted meanings, as in the following sentences: The steak is tough- This is a tough problem - Prof. Holborn is a tough examiner.

By the term "context" we understand the minimal stretch of speech determining each individual meaning of the word. The context individualises the meanings, brings them out. The two main types of linguistic contexts which serve to determine individual meanings of words are the lexical context and the grammatical context.

These types are differentiated depending on whether the lexical or the grammatical aspect is predominant in determining the meaning.

In lexical context of primary importance are lexical groups combined with the polysemantic words under consideration.

The adjective heavy in isolation possesses the meaning "of great weight, weighty". When combined with the lexical group of words denoting natural phenomena as wind, storm, etc. it means "striking, following with force, abundant", e.g. heavy rain, wind, storm, etc. In combination with the words industry, arms, artillery and the like, heavy has the meaning "the larger kind of something as heavy industry, artillery"

In grammatical context it is the grammatical (mainly the syntactic) structure of the context that serves to determine various individual meanings of a polysemantic word. Consider the following examples: 1) I made Peter study; He made her laugh; They made him work (sing, dance, write...) 2) My friend made a good teacher 3) He made a good husband.

In the pattern "to make + N(Pr)+ V inf the word make has the meaning "to force", and in the pattern "to make + A + N" it has the meaning "to turn out to be". Here the grammatical context helps to determine the meaning of the word "to make".

So, linguistic (verbal) contexts comprise lexical and grammatical contexts. They are opposed to extra linguistic contexts (non-verbal). In extra- linguistic contexts the meaning of the word is determined not only by linguistic factors but also by the actual situation in which the word is used.

Extension (widening of meaning). The extension of semantic capacity of a word, i.e. the expansion of polysemy in the course of its historical development, e.g. manuscript originally "smth hand-written".

Narrowing of meaning. The restriction of the semantic capacity of a word in the historical development, e.g. meat in OE meant "food and drink".

Elevation (or amelioration). The semantic change in the word which rises it from humble beginning to a position of greater importance, e.g. minister in earlier times meant merely "a servant".

Degradation (or degeri.eration). The semantic change, by which, for one reason or another, a word falls into disrepute, or acquires some derogatory emotive charge, e.g. silly originally meant "happy".

So, in conclusion we can say that polysemy and semantic structure exist only in language, not in speech. The seem total of many context in which the word may occur permits us to observe and record cases of identical meaning and cases that differ in meaning.

2.3. Isomorphic and allomorphic features of the polysemantic words in Modern English and Russian.

While comparing languages one has to establish both isomorphic and allomorphic features of the languages compared. In previous sections we've comparatively studied structural and semantic classification of polysemantic words in Modern English and Russian languages and we've detected some isomorphic and allomorphic features. When two languages are compared one of them serves as a metalanguage or in other word prototype. Metalanguage is a language that the investigation is written or described in, for example we investigate English and Russian and describe in English. [21, 10-11]

The term isomorphism was introduced by a Polish linguist Kurilovich who borrowed it from mathematics. It means similarity, likeness or even identity of structure. In typology we speak about isomorphism of some language units or even systems if they have likeness in arrangement. Isomorphism: English – will/shall read Russian – буду читать. Isomorphic phenomena are common features in languages under Contrastive analysis. Isomorphic in English and Russian is, for example, the existence of consonants and vowels, and the categories of number, person, tense, as well as parts of speech, the existence of sentences, etc.

Allomorphic features are observed in one language and missing in the other. For example: the gerund or the diphthongs and analytical verb forms in English, which are allomorphic phenomenon in Russian

The **Paradigmatic** aspect of typology deals with the form of meanings of the words. If we combine meaning of equivalent words in two languages we can find 4 types of relations:

- 1) A=B
- 2) A<B
- 3) A>B
- 4) A=0

These relations are called “full” or “absolute” equivalents and the scope of meaning coincides absolutely

The word in the target English language is wider or narrower. We don't have equivalents. These relations are called **Linguistic lacunas**. Such words can be translated into other languages but they are rendered not by a word by an explanatory translation or periphrasis.

Chess = шахматы

telegram = телеграмма

Лестница = a ladder, stairs, staircase, fire-escape

Put=постелить, повесить, положить, поставить
сутки, кипяток.

Relations are divided into inclusion and crossing.

Crossing is connected with the existence of some specific meaning in each of the words. (голос - voice, vote and voice - speaking, залог).

Открывать – open, find out, discover

Party – вечеринка, политическая партия.

There are 2 reasons for the existence of such lacunas:

1. The absence of the denoted phenomena (колхоз, eleven plus examination)
2. Purely linguistic factors because each language reflects reality in its own way.

Sometimes words seem to have equivalents but they have quite a different meaning. Languages differ in semantic structures of the words. Some languages prefer more general meaning English and some prefer more concrete meanings Russian.

Syntagmatic aspect

Very often when the word is polysemantic its real meaning becomes clear only in the context. According to Amosova there are 3 types of contexts:

1. Purely lexical when the meaning is actualized due to its combination with the neighboring word.

2. Syntactical context when the meaning of the word depends on the syntactic construction it is used in. syntactical context also includes cases of transitive use of verbs, In English only.
3. Lexico-syntactical context when both lexical combustibility and syntactical structures are important. E.g. “the sun sets”, “he is setting potatoes”, “a peasant woman is setting her hens”.

All these contexts should be taken into consideration because they make the system of lexical units and their semantic potential more expressive. [10, 21]

First of all isomorphic feature in English and Russian is, that the existence of monosemantic and polysemantic words:

	In English language	In Russian language
Monosemantic word	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. hydrogen 2. penicillin 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. водород 2. пенициллин
Polysemantic word	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. head 1) that part of body which contains the eyes, nose, mouth and brain: 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Голова -ы, вин. голову, мн. головы, голов, головам, ж. 1) Часть тела человека (или животного), состоящая из черепной коробки и лица (у животного морды); у беспозвоночных - передний, относительно обособленный участок тела с органами чувств и ротовым отверстием.

	<p>They cut his head off. Many nobles lost their heads during the French Revolution.</p> <p>2) As a measure</p> <p>The Queen's horse won by a head.</p> <p>3) Intellect:</p> <p>He made the story up out of his head, It was an original story, not one that he had heard or read.</p> <p>4) that side of a coin on which the head of a person appears:</p> <p>Heads or tails? Said when spinning a coin to decide something by chance.</p> <p>5) Person:</p> <p>50 dinners at \$1.50 a head</p> <p>6) pl unchanged unit of a flock or herd:</p> <p>50 head of cattle: a large head(number) of game.</p>	<p>С высоко поднятой головой (также перен.: гордо).</p> <p>2) Единица счета скота, животных.</p> <p>Стадо в 200 голов. * Головой или на голову выше кого - о том, кто намного превосходит кого-н. в умственном отношении.</p> <p>3) Ум, рассудок.</p> <p>Человек с головой (умный; разг.). В голову ничего не идет кому-н. (не может ни о чем думать, сосредоточиться).</p> <p>4) Черепная коробка.</p> <p>Ранен в голову и в лицо. Таблетки от головы.</p> <p>5) —</p> <p>6) —</p>
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	<p>7) natural aptitude or talent:</p> <p>He has a good head for business</p> <p>8) something like a head in form or position</p> <p>The head of a pin, The head of a nail.</p> <p>9) top:</p> <p>at the head of the page, standing at the head of the staircase.</p> <p>10) upper end:</p> <p>The head of a lake, the end at which a river enters it.</p> <p>11) Mass of leaves or flowers at the top of a stem or stalk:</p> <p>A fine head of cabbage, a head of a lettuce.</p> <p>12) ruler chief:</p> <p>Heads of government, the crowned heads of Europe</p>	<p>7) Человек как носитель каких-н. идей, взглядов, способностей, свойств.</p> <p>Светлая, умная голова. (вин. голову).</p> <p>8) —</p> <p>9) —</p> <p>10) —</p> <p>11) Пищевой продукт в форме шара, конуса.</p> <p>Голова сахару. Голова сыру.</p> <p>12) м. (вин. голову). Руководитель, начальник (разг.).</p> <p>Всему делу голова кто-н. Сам себе голова.</p>
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	<p>13) front part: at the head of the procession, marching at the head of regiment.</p> <p>14) Cape or promontory: Beachy head, headland in 20 below.</p> <p>15) Body of water kept at a certain height: They kept up a good head of steam.</p> <p>16) Main division in discourse: A speech arranged under five heads.</p> <p>17) Foam of liquid: The head on a glass of beer.</p> <p>18) Point rising from a boil or other swelling: The boil came to a head[20]</p>	<p>13) (вин. голову и голову), чего. Передняя часть чего-н. движущегося и вытянутого. Голова пехотной колонны. Голова кометы. Вагон в голове состава. Идти в голове (впереди цепочки людей, отряда; также перен.: возглавлять какое-н. дело, начинание).</p> <p>14) —</p> <p>15) —</p> <p>16) —</p> <p>17) —</p> <p>18) —</p>
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	19) —	<p>19) В царской России: название некоторых военных, административных и выборных начальствующих должностей, а также лиц, занимающих эти должности. Стрелецкий голова Волостной голова Городской голова.[49]</p>
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From this table, we can analyse and conclude that in both languages word can be monosemantic and polysemantic, but Russian is more concrete and that's why one word has no more 9 meanings like the word head, English is vice versa and a polysemantic word contains a number of meanings for example the word head has 18 meanings.

Studying the structural types of polysemantic words in Modern English and Russian proves allomorphic feature in English structural classification of polysemantic word.

In English there are four word groups according to their morphological structure: hand – simple polysemantic word, handy, - derived polysemantic word, handball – compound polysemantic word, left-handed – a compound-derived polysemantic word.

In Russian words divided into two groups: Свободный, свободно – simple polysemantic words and Свободомысль – compound polysemantic word.

Semantic classification of English polysemantic words is identical with Russian polysemantic word stock. For example in both languages meanings divided into the primary (basic) and secondary (minor) meaning:

a) “**fox**” is лиса, лисица but such meanings of this word as лисий мех, первокурсник are secondary meanings.

b) “**eye**” the primary is глаз, secondary is взгляд, глазок в двери, ушко иголки, петельки.

One of the main problems in linguistic typology is the notion of language type. Up today there is no unity of opinion on the notion of language type. Here different view points may be distinguished.

Investigating of kindred languages show that there are certain properties characterising different language types in every language. As we know, in English analytical forms dominate. But there are some features of agglutinating type. The morphemes "en", "es" (dresses, children, oxen) may express plurality. The same can be said about the absence of grammatical category of gender and the absence of agreement of nouns, adjectives, possessive pronouns.

E.g. the new town - the new towns

In Russian where the features of synthetical structure dominate one can find features of analytical structure. Analytical forms are found in the formation of future tense forms and degrees of comparison of adjectives.

Under the type of separate language we understand stable totality of the main features of language which have certain relations between them. Presence or absence of any feature is conditioned by the presence or absence of other features. [10, 13].

CHAPTER 3. LINGUODIDACTIC PROBLEMS OF TEACHING ENGLISH POLYSEMANTIC WORDS AT RUSSIAN SCHOOLS.

3.1. Methodical recommendations for teaching English polysemantic words at Russian schools.

Practicing polysemy is distinguishing between the various meanings of a single word form with several but closely related meanings. In my opinion the most important aspect of vocabulary teaching for intermediate learners is to foster learner independence so that learners will be able to deal with new lexis and expand their vocabulary beyond the end of the course. Therefore guided discovery, contextual guesswork and using dictionaries should be the main ways to deal with discovering meaning. Teachers can help students with specific techniques and practice in contextual guesswork, for example, the understanding of discourse markers and identifying the function of the word in the sentence. In my opinion the most important aspect of teaching polysemy for learners is to foster independence so that learners will be able to deal with new lexis and expand their vocabulary beyond the end of the course. Therefore guided discovery, contextual guesswork should be the main ways to deal with discovering meaning.

Perhaps the majority of language teachers today, when asked to identify the methodology they employ in their classrooms, mention "communicative" as the methodology of choice. However, when pressed to give a detailed account of what they mean by "communicative," explanations vary widely. Does communicative language teaching, or CLT, mean teaching conversation, an absence of grammar in a course, or an emphasis on open-ended discussion activities as the main features of a course? What does mean communicative language teaching? Communicative language teaching can be understood as a set of principles about the goals of language teaching, how learners learn a language, the kinds of classroom activities that best facilitate learning, and the roles of teachers and learners in the classroom. Let us examine each of these issues in turn.

The Goals of Language Teaching

Communicative language teaching sets as its goal the teaching of communicative competence. What does this term mean? Perhaps we can clarify this term by first comparing it with the concept of grammatical competence. Grammatical competence refers to the knowledge we have of a language that accounts for our ability to produce sentences in a language. It refers to knowledge of the building blocks of sentences (e.g., parts of speech, tenses, phrases, clauses, sentence patterns) and how sentences are formed. Grammatical competence is the focus of many grammar practice books, which typically present a rule of grammar on one page, and provide exercises to practice using the rule on the other page. The unit of analysis and practice is typically the sentence. While grammatical competence is an important dimension of language learning, it is clearly not all that is involved in learning a language since one can master the rules of sentence formation in a language and still not be very successful at being able to use the language for meaningful communication. It is the latter capacity which is understood by the term communicative competence.

Communicative competence includes the following aspects of language knowledge:

- Knowing how to use language for a range of different purposes and functions
- Knowing how to vary our use of language according to the setting and the participants (e.g., knowing when to use formal and informal speech or when to use language appropriately for written as opposed to spoken communication)
- Knowing how to produce and understand different types of texts (e.g., narratives, reports, interviews, conversations)
- Knowing how to maintain communication despite having limitations in one's language knowledge (e.g., through using different kinds of communication strategies)

How Learners Learn a Language

Our understanding of the processes of second language learning has changed considerably in the last 30 years and CLT is partly a response to these changes in understanding. Earlier views of language learning focused primarily on the mastery of grammatical competence. Language learning was viewed as a process of mechanical habit formation. Good habits are formed by having students produce correct sentences and not through making mistakes. Errors were to be avoided through controlled opportunities for production (either written or spoken). By memorizing dialogs and performing drills, the chances of making mistakes were minimized. Learning was very much seen as under the control of the teacher.

In recent years, language learning has been viewed from a very different perspective. It is seen as resulting from processes such as:

- Interaction between the learner and users of the language
- Collaborative creation of meaning
- Creating meaningful and purposeful interaction through language
- Negotiation of meaning as the learner and his or her interlocutor arrive at understanding
- Learning through attending to the feedback learners get when they use the language
- Paying attention to the language one hears (the input) and trying to incorporate new forms into one's developing communicative competence
- Trying out and experimenting with different ways of saying things

The Kinds of Classroom Activities That Best Facilitate Learning

With CLT began a movement away from traditional lesson formats where the focus was on mastery of different items of grammar and practice through controlled

activities such as memorization of dialogs and drills, and toward the use of pair work activities, role plays, group work activities and project work.

The following scheme has three appendices which we can refer to as needed. The first appendix is a complete listing of all the textbooks and references that are cited in the manual. ICE publication numbers are given for those books which are available to us through Peace Corps Information

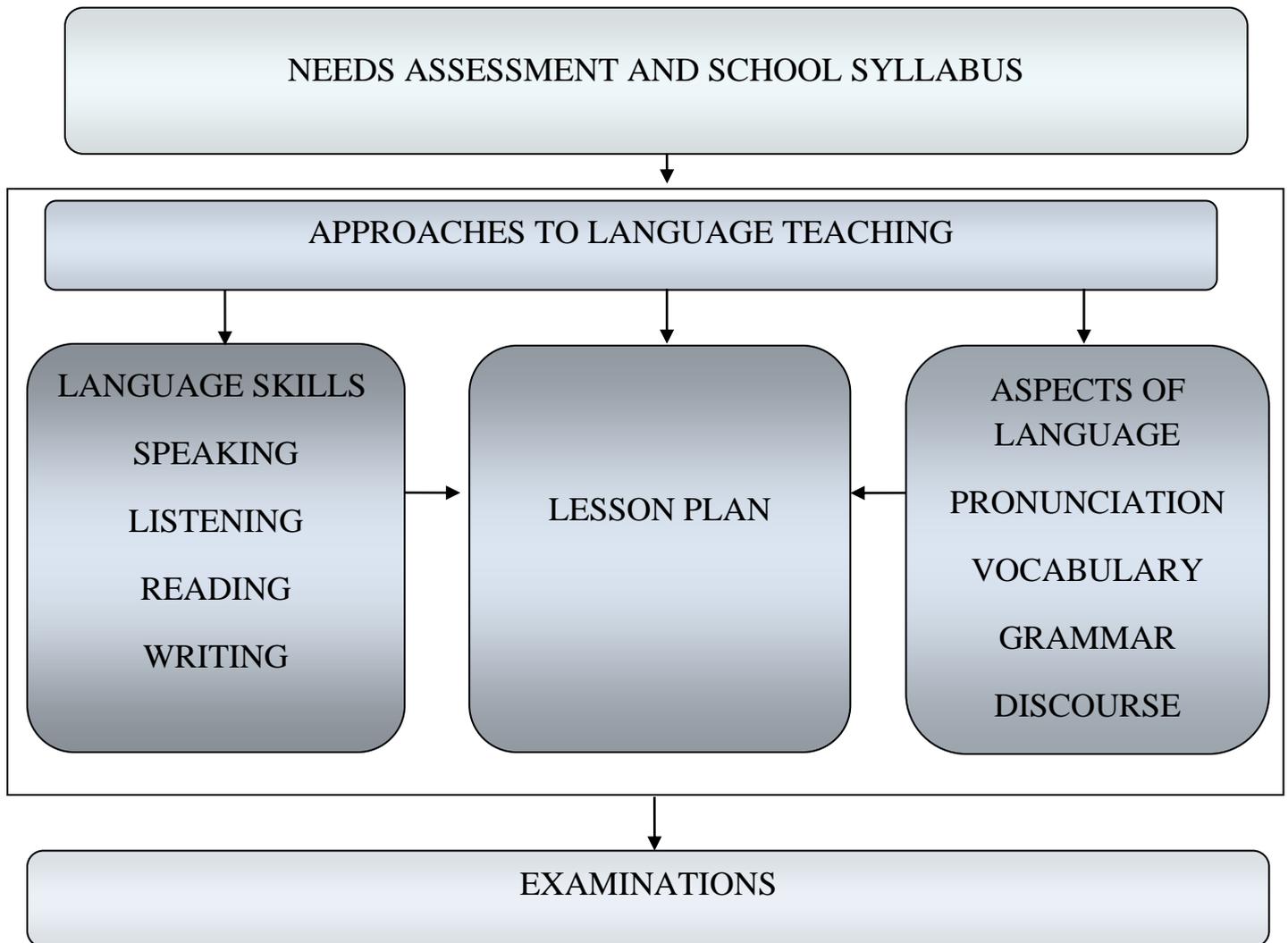
Collection and Exchange. The second appendix lists organizations and publications which are dedicated to the teaching of English as a foreign or second language. Finally there is an appendix which explains acronyms (like EFL and ESL) which are common in this field.

Still another way to orient you to this manual is to relate the contents of the various chapters to the structure of your language courses. In the simplest terms, you can think of the courses which you teach as a process with a beginning, a middle, and an end.

The beginning is the needs assessment and school syllabus. These set the long-range objectives for us to the middle is the part which we are most concerned with on a day-to-day basis. We need lesson plans to help us organize our class time in an efficient and purposeful way. In making our lesson plans we can draw on a variety of approaches to language teaching for ideas on techniques for presenting the materials and activities which compose the lessons. We can supplement the materials and activities which we find in our textbooks with selections from the chapters of this manual which discuss the language skills and aspects of language.

At the end of the process are the examinations. We need periodic tests to help us and our students judge their progress through the course. Very likely there will also be a final examination.

An overview of this process is shown in the figure below



Several new syllabus types were proposed by advocates of CLT. These included:

A skills-based syllabus: This focuses on the four skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking, and breaks each skill down into its component microskills. For example, the skill of listening might be further described in terms of the following microskills:

- Recognizing key words in conversations
- Recognizing the topic of a conversation
- Recognizing speakers' attitude toward a topic
- Recognizing time reference of an utterance
- Following speech at different rates of speed
- Identifying key information in a passage

Advocates of CLT however stressed an **integrated -skills** approach to the teaching of the skills. Since in real life the skills often occur together, they should also be linked in teaching, it was argued.

Since the advent of CLT, teachers and materials writers have sought to find ways of developing classroom activities that reflect the principles of a communicative methodology. This quest has continued to the present, as we shall see later in the booklet. The principles on which the first generation of CLT materials are still relevant to language teaching today, so in this chapter we will briefly review the main activity types that were one of the outcomes of CLT.

Accuracy Versus Fluency Activities

One of the goals of CLT is to develop fluency in language use. Fluency is natural language use occurring when a speaker engages in meaningful interaction and maintains comprehensible and ongoing communication despite limitations in his or her communicative competence. Fluency is developed by creating classroom activities in which students must negotiate meaning, use communication strategies, correct misunderstandings, and work to avoid communication breakdowns.

Fluency practice can be contrasted with accuracy practice, which focuses on creating correct examples of language use. Differences between activities that focus on fluency and those that focus on accuracy can be summarized as follows:

Activities focusing on fluency

- Reflect natural use of language
- Focus on achieving communication
- Require meaningful use of language
- Require the use of communication strategies
- Produce language that may not be predictable
- Seek to link language use to context

Activities focusing on accuracy

- Reflect classroom use of language
- Focus on the formation of correct examples of language
- Practice language out of context
- Practice small samples of language

- Do not require meaningful communication
- Control choice of language

Information-Gap Activities

An important aspect of communication in CLT is the notion of information gap. This refers to the fact that in real communication, people normally communicate in order to get information they do not possess. This is known as an information gap. More authentic communication is likely to occur in the classroom if students go beyond practice of language forms for their own sake and use their linguistic and communicative resources in order to obtain information. In so doing, they will draw available vocabulary, grammar, and communication strategies to complete a task. The following exercises make use of the information-gap principle:

Students are divided into A-B pairs. The teacher has copied two sets of pictures. One set (for A students) contains a picture of a group of people. The other set (for B students) contains a similar picture but it contains a number of slight differences from the A-picture. Students must sit back to back and ask questions to try to find out how many differences there are between the two pictures. Students practice a role play in pairs. One student is given the information she/he needs to play the part of a clerk in the railway station information booth and has information on train departures, prices, etc. The other needs to obtain information on departure times, prices, etc. They role-play the interaction without looking at each other's cue cards.

Jigsaw activities

These are also based on the information-gap principle. Typically, the class is divided into groups and each group has part of the information needed to complete an activity. The class must fit the pieces together to complete the whole. In so doing, they must use their language resources to communicate meaningfully and

so take part in meaningful communication practice. The following are examples of jigsaw activities:

The teacher plays a recording in which three people with different points of view discuss their opinions on a topic of interest. The teacher prepares three different listening tasks, one focusing on each of the three speaker's points of view. Students are divided into three groups and each group listens and takes notes on one of the three speaker's opinions. Students are then rearranged into groups containing a student from groups A, B, and C. They now role-play the discussion using the information they obtained.

The teacher takes a narrative and divides it into twenty sections (or as many sections as there are students in the class). Each student gets one section of the story. Students must then move around the class, and by listening to each section read aloud, decide where in the story their section belongs. Eventually the students have to put the entire story together in the correct sequence.

Other Activity Types in CLT

Many other activity types have been used in CLT, including the following:
Task-completion activities: puzzles, games, map-reading, and other kinds of classroom tasks in which the focus is on using one's language resources to complete a task.

Information-gathering activities: student-conducted surveys, interviews, and searches in which students are required to use their linguistic resources to collect information.

Opinion-sharing activities: activities in which students compare values, opinions, or beliefs, such as a ranking task in which students list six qualities in order of importance that they might consider in choosing a date or spouse.
Information-transfer activities: These require learners to take information that is presented in one form, and represent it in a different form. For example, they may read instructions on how to get from A to B, and then draw a map showing the sequence, or they may read information about a subject and then represent it as a graph.

Reasoning-gap activities: These involve deriving some new information from given information through the process of inference, practical reasoning, etc. For example, working out a teacher's timetable on the basis of given class timetables.

Role plays: activities in which students are assigned roles and improvise a scene or exchange based on given information or clues.

Emphasis on Pair and Group Work

Most of the activities discussed above reflect an important aspect of classroom tasks

tasks in CLT, namely that they are designed to be carried out in pairs or small groups. Through completing activities in this way, it is argued, learners will obtain several benefits:

- They can learn from hearing the language used by other members of the group.
- They will produce a greater amount of language than they would use in teacher-fronted activities.
- Their motivational level is likely to increase.
- They will have the chance to develop fluency.

Teaching and classroom materials today consequently make use of a wide variety of small-group activities.

Polysemy in Teaching English on Intermediate Level

Practicing polysemy is distinguishing between the various meaning of a single word form with several and closely related meanings (head: of a person, of a pin, of an organization). In my opinion the most important aspect of vocabulary teaching for intermediate learners is to foster learner independence so that learners will be able to deal with new lexis and expand their vocabulary beyond the end of the course. Therefore guided discovery, contextual guesswork and using dictionaries should be the main ways to deal with discovering meaning. Teachers can help students with specific techniques and practice in contextual guesswork, for example, the understanding of discourse markers and identifying the function of the word in the sentence.

In my opinion the most important aspect of teaching polysemy for learners is to foster independence so that learners will be able to deal with new lexis and expand their vocabulary beyond the end of the course. Therefore guided discovery, contextual guesswork should be the main ways to deal with discovering meaning.

So, the exercise should be of various kinds, they have to be creative and develop pupils' critical thinking and memory. Teacher should encourage his/her pupils; get them interested in learning the language on deeper level. Below, there are exercises, which are suitable for this level of language learning. They will help pupils to adopt more material, to be able to differentiate polysemantic meanings of the words through the context of the sentences.

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

Intermediate level includes the 5th — 9th form pupils. They already have some basic knowledge in studying a foreign language. If pupils have had good achievements in language learning, they are usually interested in the subject and work willingly both in class and at home. The desire to learn depends fully on the teacher's ability to involve each pupil in language activities during the lesson. Pupils give preferences to those exercises which require thinking.

Exercise 1

Give all the meanings you know to the following verbs, illustrating them with examples: to get; to go; to bring; to make; to do; to let; to buy; to begin; to feel.

Exercise 2

The noun leg has several meanings: 1) one of the long parts of your body that your feet are joined to; 2) one of the series of games in a football competition played between two teams; 3) one of the upright parts that support a piece of furniture; 4) the part of your trousers that covers your leg; 5) one part of a long journey or race.

Match the meanings of the word face with the sentences given below:

- 1) One of the legs on the table was a bit wobbly.
- 2) Here, pull up your pant legs and let me see if your knees are hurt.
- 3) The legs of my jeans were covered in mud.
- 4) Leeds will have to win the second leg if they are to go forward to the finals.
- 5) The men looked pensive as the carriage approached the final leg of the trip to the big house on the hill.
- 6) When this can expand no further, it splits and is rolled off, like a nylon stocking from a leg.
- 7) Raise the leg a fraction higher and repeat this tiny movement 15 times, holding each raise for 1 second.
- 8) Officers then shot Mao in the leg several times and he collapsed.

- 9) Breathing through his mouth, he manipulated his probe between her legs.
- 10) Another screaming beast collapsed on broken hind legs.

Exercise 3

Define the meaning of the noun head as used in the sentences below. How many different meanings did you find? Make up a dialogue on this word in pairs.

- 1) According to Rice, the head of the planning committee, the project is 25% completed.
- 2) Collins suffered severe head injuries in the accident.
- 3) He turned his head to kiss her.
- 4) I picked up a hammer and hit the head of the nail as hard as I could.
- 5) Hwang is head of the local Communist Party, and is also a farmer.
- 6) People going out in conditions like this need their heads examined.
- 7) She was outside cutting the dead heads off the roses.
- 8) She saw her father, a head above the rest of the crowd.
- 9) Keep arms hanging, head down and neck and shoulders relaxed.

Exercise 4

How many meaning of the following words do you know? Name them:
head, bench, to feel, to dress, hand, leg, power.

Exercise 5

Match the idiomatic expressions of the noun head with their meaning.

- 1) heads up!
- 2) heads will roll;
- 3) to be/fall head over heels in love;
- 4) to be/stand head and shoulders above somebody;
- 5) to give somebody their head;
- 6) to hold up your head;
- 7) to go over somebody's head;
- 8) to keep your head above water;
- 9) to put your heads together;
- 10) to turn/stand something on its head;

- a) to discuss a difficult problem together;
- b) to be too difficult for someone to understand;
- c) to manage to continue to live on your income or keep your business working when this is difficult because of financial problems;
- d) to be much better than other people;
- e) to show pride or confidence, especially in a difficult situation;
- f) to make people think about something in the opposite way to the way it was originally intended;
- g) to give someone the freedom to do what they want to do;
- h) to love or suddenly start to love someone very much;
- i) used to say that someone will be punished severely for something that has happened;
- j) used to warn people that something is falling from above.

Lesson plan

Teacher: Rahimova Sevara

Date: __/__/__/

Group: _____

Subject: English (integrated skills lesson)

Theme: “**Holidays and Festivals**”

Culture focus: Famous holiday locations, history of Halloween differences between aims of the holiday.

Activities: Discussion, planning in groups, listening, answers the questions and make up topic

Materials: holiday photos, video, postcards of famous festivals

Preparation: prepare photos of interesting holiday location, test to the video

Level: Intermediate

Objectives:

- Activate students’ passive vocabulary
- To teach how to use polysemantic words
- Raise students’ awareness on the matter of international taboos, types of

festivals and holidays

- Learn how to use the studied vocabulary, using it in the speech and writing
- Develop students' interest to different country's culture

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)

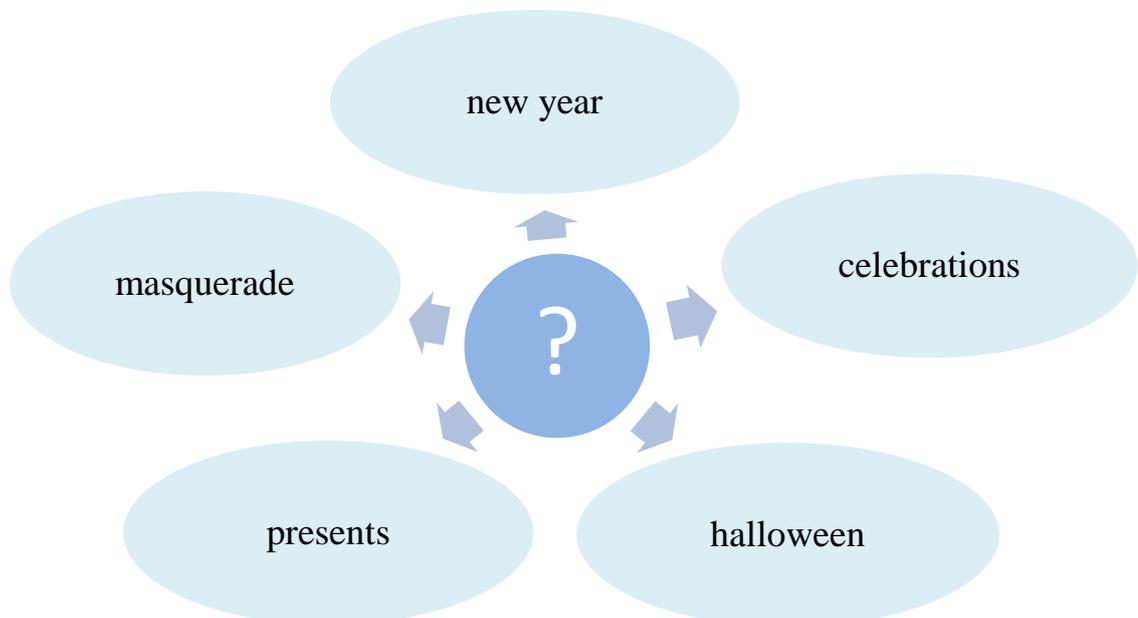
2. The presentation of the new material

- a) Pre-activities

Brainstorming

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

But first of all, I want you to connect the words which you can see on the blackboard.



1. In what kind of relationships are these words?
2. What do you know about holidays in Great Britain?
3. Which kinds of festivals do you know around the world?
4. What is the difference between holiday and festival?
5. Which holidays do you prefer more?
6. What do you think why we have holidays? (5 min)

Theme: Holidays and festivals

b) During – activities

Let me introduce the new vocabulary to you. Open your notebooks and write down today's date and theme. A lot of words in English language are polysemantic. It means that one and the same word may have more than one meaning. For example, the word take has fifty one meanings. You should guess the meaning from the context. You must have noticed it while translating different sentences. The bright example of polysemantic word is the verb to get. So let's study its meaning.

1) “достать”. For example:

Can you get the ticket for this festival?

2) “брать, получать”. For example:

Nick gets a big present from his groupmates.

3) “заработать”. For example:

Sonya gets a living working a nurse at the hospital.

4) “доставить, приносить”. For example:

Would you be so kind to get me a chair?

5) “принуждать, заставляя”. For example:

I got him to speak at last.

6) “понимать”. For example:

I don't get you. You are talking too quickly.

7) “добираться; достигать”. For example:

He got home early after the night shift.

8) “быть принужденным”. For example:

Now you have to do pair work, so you should make up dialogue on different situation with polysemantic words and it must be funny the first 3 pair students will have good marks. (5 min)

We have finished the work on our vocabulary and let's move forward to a new activity. First of all let's divide into 4 groups, and then one member from each team come to the blackboard and take a picture, which I prepare for you. Four pictures of different holidays and festivals on the backside you can see information about this holiday. Your task is to retell the text and to find more polysemantic words and write more polysemantic words on the blackboard in 3 minutes. For each task team gets a point and at the end of our lesson we reward the winner team.

1. Diwali, India

Diwali - Festival of lights is one of the biggest festival of Hindus, celebrated with great enthusiasm and happiness in India, Guyana, Trinidad & Tobago, Malaysia, Nepal, Singapore, Sri Lanka and Fiji. The festival is celebrated for five continuous days, where the third day is celebrated as the main Diwali festival or 'Festival of lights'. Different colorful varieties of fireworks are always associated with this festival. On this auspicious day, people light up diyas and candles all around their house. They perform Laxmi Puja in the evening and seek divine blessings of Goddess of Wealth. The festival of Diwali is never complete without exchange of gifts. People present diwali gifts to all near and dear ones. **The exact day of the festival is decided by the position of the moon.** According to the Hindu calendar, Amavasya or 'no moon day' is considered as the perfect day to celebrate Diwali. This dark night comes after every fortnight and in the month of Kartik, it marks this festival of lights and diyas. As per the English calendar, the festival generally comes in the month of November and December. For all Hindu people, the festival holds an imperative meaning since the festival is reckoned with Lord Rama's victory as the King of Ayodhya after his return to the kingdom from 14 years of exile along with his wife Sita & brother Laxman after killing the demon, King

Ravana. The festival is celebrated by lighting diyas and candles to drive away the darkness of Amavasya.

2.The Chinese New Year, China

The Chinese New Year sees streets filled with millions of people to celebrate happiness. It usually starts with a banquet which boasts special dishes. People wear red clothes to warn off any evil spirits. In Hong Kong extremely beautiful fireworks lights up the evening sky. Floats and traditional performers for instance the dragon dancers make the event even more amazing **Chinese New Year**, also known as the Lunar New Year or the Spring Festival, is the most important of the traditional Chinese holidays. The festival traditionally **begins on the first day of the first month in the Chinese calendar and ends on the 15th**; this day is called Lantern Festival.

Chinese New Year is the longest and most important festivity in the Lunar Calendar. The origin of Chinese New Year is itself centuries old and gains significance because of several myths and traditions. Ancient Chinese New Year is a reflection on how the people behaved and what they believed in the most.

3.Burning Man Festival in Black Rock Desert, USA

Burning Man Festival is an annual event held in the Black Rock Desert in northern Nevada, in the United States. The event **starts on the Monday before and ends on the day of the American Labor Day holiday**. It takes its name from the ritual burning of a large wooden effigy on Saturday evening. The event is described by many participants as an experiment in community, radical self-expression, and radical self-reliance.

The festival began as a bonfire ritual on the summer solstice in 1986 when Larry Harvey, Jerry James, and a few friends met on Baker Beach in San Francisco and burned a 9-foot (2.7-meter) wooden man as well as a smaller wooden dog. Harvey has described his inspiration for burning these effigy figures as a spontaneous act of radical self-expression.

The event did have earlier roots, though. Sculptor Mary Grauberger, a friend of

Harvey's girlfriend Janet Lohr, held solstice bonfire gatherings on Baker Beach for several years prior to 1986, some of which Harvey attended. When Grauberger stopped organizing it, Harvey "picked up the torch and ran with it," so to speak. He and Jerry James built an 8-foot (2.4-meter) wooden effigy for 1986, which was much smaller and more crudely made than the neon-lit figure featured in the current ritual. In 1987, the effigy grew to almost 15 feet (4.6 meters) tall, and by 1988, it had grown to around 40 feet (12 meters).

Harvey swears that he did not see the movie *The Wicker Man* until many years later, so it played no part in his inspiration. Accordingly, rather than allow the name "Wicker Man" to become the name of the ritual, he started using the name "Burning Man".

4.Venice Carnival, Italy,

Thousands of tourists come to Venice to see and take part in its magnificent Carnival, walking round in fancy dress in this city's magical scenery means taking part in a truly exceptional happening. Those mysterious, disturbing Venetian masks, eyeing you from the city's alleyways are part of what we imagine the Venetian world would have been like 300 years ago. They are an irresistible attraction for what is undoubtedly one of the world's most unique experiences: the re-living of 18th century Venice.

Carnival starts around two weeks before Ash Wednesday and ends on Shrove Tuesday (Fat Tuesday or Mardi Gras), the day before Ash Wednesday.

Carnevale is the top festival celebration in Venice. This congregation of masked people, called Venice Carnival, began in the 15th century, but the tradition can be traced back to the beginning of the 14th Century. Now somewhat commercialized, Venice Carnevale is still considered a memorable attraction for tourists.

Very good job, you can take your seats.

So, I think you a little be tired now we have the video of the history of Halloween. After watching video I distribute for you test, in order to check up your listening skills.

c) Post - activities

Quiz Questions

1. When did Halloween begin to merge to with Catholic festivals?
 - a) In the 12th century
 - b) In the 19th century
 - c) In the 17th century
2. What was all Saints day originally called?
 - a) Hallowmas
 - b) All Hollows eve
 - c) Alloween
3. What is the custom of playing pranks at Halloween called?
 - a) Treat or trick
 - b) Trick or treat
 - c) Trick or trash
4. Which group of people introduced the holiday to the United States?
 - a) Irish people
 - b) Italians
 - d) Mexicans
5. Why did Pagans used to gather and light fires at Halloween?
 - a) To see where they were going in the dark
 - b) To dnve spints back to the underworld
 - c) To keep warm
6. When is All Saints Day celebrated?
 - a) November 2
 - b) October 31
 - c) November 1

Now we have enough time to create mini presentation of our national festival “Navruz”. Each team must draw the picture and write short advert. (7-10 min)

I ask students what they have learned from the lesson. (3 min)

Home task

Write down the home task

Find out any interesting holiday or festival write about this holiday.

The student on duty please can you give me the register; I'm going to assess our brilliant and active students. (3 min)

Thank you for the lesson and good bye.

Conclusion

So far we have been discussing the concept of meaning, different types of word-meanings and the changes they undergo in the course of the historical development of the English language. When analysing the word-meaning we observe, however, that words as a rule are not units of a single meaning. Monosemantic words, words having only one meaning are comparatively few in number, these are mainly scientific terms. The bulk of English words are polysemantic, that is to say possess more than one meaning. Having analysed polysemantic words in modern English and Russian in detail, we can conclude that:

1. I've investigated polysemantic words in modern English and Russian very carefully and my definition of this kind, Polysemantic words are language units, which include more than two semantically close to each other meanings. If semantic cohesion disappears, polysemy causes homonymy.

2. Polysemy is inherent in the very nature of words and concepts as every object and every notion has many features and a concept reflected in a word always contains a generalisation of several traits of the object. Some of these traits or components of meaning are common with other objects. Hence the possibility of using the same name in secondary nomination for objects possessing common features which are sometimes only implied in the original meaning. A word when acquiring new meaning or meanings may also retain, and most often retains the previous meaning.

3. The modern approach to semantics is based on the assumption that the inner form of the word (i. e. its meaning) presents a structure which is called the semantic structure of the word. So the system of meaning of a word is its semantic structure and not only due to the sum of meaning: each separate meaning is subject to further subdivision and possesses an inner structure of its own. Therefore, the semantic structure of a word should be investigated at both these levels:

- a) of different meanings;
- b) of semantic components within each separate meaning.

4. First, we do know that the word is a unit of speech which, as such, serves the purposes of human communication. Thus, the word can be defined as a unit of communication. Secondly, the word can be perceived as the total of the sounds which comprise it. Third, the word, viewed structurally, possesses several characteristics. The modern approach to word studies is based on distinguishing between the external and the internal structures of the word.

- a) By external structure of the word we mean its morphological structure.
- b) The internal structure of the word, or its meaning, is nowadays commonly referred to as the word's semantic structure. This is certainly the word's main aspect.

The structural types of Polysemantic words are divided into four groups according to their morphological structure, namely the number and type of morphemes which compose them: hand – a simple (root) polysemantic word, handy, handful – a derived polysemantic word (root + affix), handball – compound polysemantic word (2 stems), left-handed – a compound-derived polysemantic word (2 stems + affix).

5. The system of meaning of a word is called its **semantic structure**, and not only due to the sum of meaning: each separate meaning is subject to further subdivision and possesses an inner structure of its own.

The problem in polysemy is that of interrelation of different lexico-semantic variants. There may be no single semantic component common to all lexico-semantic variants but every variant has something in common with at least one of the others. All lexico-semantic variants of a word taken together form its semantic structure or semantic paradigm. The problem of polysemy is mainly the problem of interrelation and interdependence of the various meaning of the same word. Polysemy viewed diachronically is a historical change in the semantic structure of the word resulting in new meanings being added rearrangement of these meanings in its semantic structure. Polysemy viewed synchronically is understood as coexistence of the various meanings of the same word at a certain historical period and the arrangement of these meanings in the semantic structure of the word. As the semantic structure is never static the relationship between the diachronic and synchronic evaluation of individual

meanings of the same word may be different in different periods of the historical development of language. The semantic structure of polysemantic words is not homogeneous as far as the status of individual meanings is concerned.

Some meaning is representative of the word in isolation, others are perceived only in certain contexts. The whole of the semantic structure of correlated polysemantic words of different languages can never be identical. Words are felt never as correlated if their basic meanings coincide.

6. While comparing languages one has to establish both isomorphic and allomorphic features of the languages compared. First isomorphic feature in modern English and Russian languages is, that the existence of monosemantic and polysemantic words, but Russian is more concrete and that's why one word has no more 9 meanings like the word head, English is vice versa and a polysemantic word contains a number of meanings.

Studying the structural types of polysemantic words in Modern English and Russian proves allomorphic feature in English structural classification of polysemantic word.

In English there are four word groups according to their morphological structure: simple polysemantic word, derived polysemantic word, compound polysemantic word and compound-derived polysemantic word. In Russian words divided into two groups: simple polysemantic words and compound polysemantic word.

Semantic classification of English polysemantic words is identical with Russian polysemantic word stock. For example in both languages meanings divided into the primary (basic) and secondary (minor) meaning

7. Having compared English and Russian polysemantic words, we can conclude that both languages have polysemantic words and this phenomenon explained by, however, that structure and etymology by themselves are not always indicative of other aspects of the word – simple words are not necessarily polysemantic e. g. Lake, rabbit, wrist, coward, etc. Words that etymologically belong to late borrowings may be simple in structure.

The higher the frequency the more polysemantic is the word, the simpler it is in structure. Frequency most clearly reflect the close inter connection between polysemy and the structure of the word. The latest data of linguistic investigation show that the number of the number of morphemes the words consist of. Derived and compound words rarely have high frequency of occurrence and are rarely polysemantic

To sum up all mentioned above, we can conclude that simple words are less motivated so, that's why most of them have a number of meanings. Semantically the majority of compounds are motivated units: their meaning is derived from the combined lexical meanings of their components. The semantic centre of the compound is the lexical meaning of the second component modified and restricted by the meaning of the first.

8. Practicing polysemy is distinguishing between the various meaning of a single word form with several but closely related meanings. In my opinion the most important aspect of vocabulary teaching for intermediate learners is to foster learner independence so that learners will be able to deal with new lexis and expand their vocabulary beyond the end of the course. Therefore guided discovery, contextual guesswork and using dictionaries should be the main ways to deal with discovering meaning. Teachers can help students with specific techniques and practice in contextual guesswork, for example, the understanding of discourse markers and identifying the function of the word in the sentence . Perhaps the majority of language teachers today, when asked to identify the methodology they employ in their classrooms, mention "communicative" as the methodology of choice. What does mean communicative language teaching? Communicative language teaching can be understood as a set of principles about the goals of language teaching, how learners learn a language, the kinds of classroom activities that best facilitate learning, and the roles of teachers and learners in the classroom.

9. We've have worked out some useful exercises based on communicative methods. They are language exercises, speech and conditional speech exercises.

This research also highlights the significance of polysemy in grammar. Most grammatical forms are polysemantic. It is sometimes maintained that the case of

grammatical polysemy can be observed in various structural meanings inherent in the given form, one of them being always invariable, found in any context of the use of the form. The semantic structure of polysemantic words is not homogeneous as far as the status of individual meaning is concerned. Some meanings are representatives of the word in isolation, others are perceived only in certain contexts. Context is a minimal stretch of speech necessary to determine individual meanings.

In the conclusion, I can say that the problem of polysemy may cause difficulties during the translation or communication. To overcome them pupils need to see and practice words in context, since it is the context that allows them to understand the meaning of the word.

Most English words are polysemantic. It should be commented that the wealth of representative resources of a language largely depends on the extent to which polysemy has developed in the language. Uninformed in linguistic people claim that a language is lacking in words if the need arises for the same word to be laid on to several different phenomena. In real fact it is exactly the opposite: if each word is found to be capable of conveying at least two concepts instead of one, the expressive potential of the whole vocabulary increases twofold. Hence, well-developed polysemy is a great advantage in a language.

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