**O‘ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI**

**XALQ TA’LIMI VAZIRLIGI**

**SAMARQAND VILOYATI XALQ TA’LIMI XODIMLARINI QAYTA TAYYORLASH VA ULARNING MALAKASINI OSHIRISH HUDUDIY MARKAZI**

**TILLARNI O‘ITISH METODIKASI KAFEDRASI**

**SAMARQAND – 2019**

**Umumkasbiy fanlar bloki**

**1.05.**

**O‘quv bloki nomi va**

**o‘quv moduli №**

**Chet (ingliz) tili fanini o‘qitish huquqini berish bo‘yicha kasbiy qayta tayyorlash**

**Qayta tayyorlov kursi yo‘nalishi**

**O‘QUV – USLUBIY MAJMUA**

**KOMMUNIKATIV LEKSIKA**

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**«TASDIQLAYMAN»**

 **Hududiy markaz direktori**

**\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_** **S.Usmonov**

**2019 yil “\_\_\_” \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_**

**«TILLARNI O‘QITISH METODIKASI» KAFEDRASI**

**KOMMUNIKATIV LEKSIKA**

**O‘QUV- MODULI BO‘YICHA O‘QUV USLUBIY MAJMUA**

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| «**KELISHILDI**»O‘quv va ilmiy ishlari bo‘yicha:direktor o‘rinbosari\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ A. Ibragimov | Kafedra mudiri\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ Yuldosheva S.A. |

**Samarqand – 2019 yil**

Ushbu chet (ingliz tili) fanini o‘qitish huquqini berish bo‘yicha kasbiy qayta tayyorlash kursi uchun “KOMMUNIKATIV LEKSIKA” moduli bo‘yicha o‘quv uslubiy majmuasi SamDU huzuridagi XTXQTMOHM Ilmiy metodik kengashining 2019-yil 26-aprelda o‘tkazilgan yig‘ilishida muhokama etilib, 4-sonli qarori bilan tasdiqlangan.

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| **Tuzuvchi-mualliflar:** |
| **F.Marupov, Z.Rustamova,** **A. Pardayeva, N. Kushakova** **N. Ruziyeva Sh. Kutbiddinova**  | **Tillarni o‘qitish metodikasi kafedrasi ingliz tili o‘qituvchilari**  |
| **G‘. Mirsanov** | **SamDCHTI dotsenti** |

Teacher’s name: Course type: Developing/ Review

Course name: Communicative Lexicology Room:

Date:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Вақт: 2 соат. **Length: 2 hours** | Талабаларсони:**Number of students**:  |
| Ўқувмашғулотинингшакливатури**Type of the lesson** Lecture  | **Дарс маърузаси:** **The theme of the lesson:** Interrelation between native and borrowed elements in English |
| Маърузарежасиўқувмашғулотинингтузилиши**Procedure/ Lesson outline** | 1. Words of native origin of English.2. General features of borrowings.3. The assimilation of borrowings.4. International words. |
| Ўқувмашғулотинингмақсади: * **Lesson aims**:to give general information about Communicative Lexicology andnative origin of language and borrowings
 |
| Педагогиквазифалар:**Objectives: based on the topic** | Ўқувфаолиятинингнатижалари**Learning outcomes:**By the end of the lesson the Ls will be able…* to know the native origin of English.
* to know the borrowings of English
* to know International words.
 |
| Таълим усулллари **Task types** | Lecture, explanation, demonstration, brainstorming, instructions |
| Таълим шакли **Interaction patterns** |  Frontal, collective, whole class |
| Таълим воситалари **Materials used:** | Aids, blackboard, cluster, projector |
| Таълимберишшароити**Equipment/ aids used**: | Auditorium, projector, computer |
| Мониторингвабаҳолаш**Types of assessment** |  |

Ўқувмашғулотинингтехнологикхаритаси

**DETAILED PROCEDURE OF THE LESSON**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Ишбосқичларивавақти**Steps and duration** | Фаолият**Process**  |
| Таълим берувчи**Teacher**  | Таълим олувчилар**Listeners** |
| 1-босқич **Part I (±15mins)** | 1.1. greets and checks the attendance. presents the theme of the lesson, its aim, plan and expected results.1.2. gives the list of used literature as a source.1.3. explains the criteria of assessment.  | Listen, make notes, answer if a question is asked by the lecturer |
| 2-босқич**Part II (±55mins)** | 2.1. T. activates students’ knowledge by quiz and brainstorming to create the environment for the lecture.2.2. T. tells about the outline of the lesson and organization of the process of the lesson according to its structure. | Ls answer the questions, tell their opinions and write necessary points of the lecture.  |
| 3-босқич**Part III (±10mins)** | 3.1. T draws a conclusion of the lesson, explains the importance of the lecture3.2. T announces the marks, analyzes the degree of achieved results3.3. T. gives tasks for self-study and explains the assessment criteria | Ls listen attentively, ask their questions, write the tasks, self-assessment |

**Words of native origin**

Words of native origin consist for the most part of very ancient elements—Indo-European, Germanic and West Germanic cognates. The bulk of the Old English word-stock has been preserved, although some words have passed out of existence. When speaking about the role of the native element in the English language linguists usually confine themselves to the small Anglo-Saxon stock of words, which is estimated to make 25—30% of the English vocabulary.

To assign the native element its true place it is not so important to count the number of Anglo-Saxon words that have survived up to our days, as to study their semantic and stylistic character, their word-building ability, frequency value, collocability.

Almost all words of Anglo-Saxon origin belong to very important semantic groups. They include most of the auxiliary and modal verbs **(shall, will, must, can, may,** etc.), pronouns (I, **you, he, my, his, who,** etc.), prepositions **(in, out, on, under,** etc.), numerals **(one, two, three, four,** etc.) and conjunctions **(and, but, till, as,** etc.). Notional words of Anglo-Saxon origin include such groups as words denoting parts of the body **(head, hand, arm, back,** etc.), members of the family and closest relatives **(farther, mother, brother, son, wife),** natural phenomena and planets **(snow, rain, wind, sun, moon, star,** etc.), animals **(horse, cow, sheep, cat),** qualities and properties **(old, young, cold, hot, light, dark, long),** common actions **(do, make, go, come, see, hear, eat,** etc.), etc.

Most of the native words have undergone great changes in their semantic structure, and as a result are nowadays polysemantic, e.g. the word **finger** does not only denote a part of a hand as in Old English, but also 1) the part of a glove covering one of the fingers, 2) a finger-like part in various machines, 3) a hand of a clock, 4) an index, 5) a unit of measurement. Highly polysemantic are the words **man, head, hand, go,** etc.

Most native words possess a wide range of lexical and grammatical valency. Many of them enter a number of phraseological units, e.g. the word **heel** enters the following units: **heel over head** or **head over heels—** 'upside down'; **cool one's heel**—'be kept waiting'; **show a clean pair of heels, take to one's heels**—'run away', **turn on one's heels**— 'turn sharply round', etc.

The great stability and semantic peculiarities of Anglo-Saxon words account for their great derivational potential. Most words of native origin make up large clusters of derived and compound words in the present-day language, e.g. the word **wood** is the basis for the formation of the following words: **wooden, woody, wooded, woodcraft, woodcutter, woodwork** and many others. The formation of new words is greatly facilitated by the fact that most Anglo-Saxon words are root-words.

New words have been coined from Anglo-Saxon simple word-stems mainly by means of affixation, word-composition and conversion.

Some linguists contend that due to the large additions to its vocabulary from different languages, English lost much of its old faculty to form new words. The great number of compound and derived words in modern English, the diversity of their patterns, the stability and productivity of the patterns and the appearance of new ones testify to the contrary. Such affixes of native origin as **-ness, -ish,-ed, un-, mis-** make part of the patterns widely used to build numerous new words throughout the whole history of English, though some of them have changed their collocability or have become polysemantic, e.g. the agent-forming suffix -er, which was in Old English mostly added to noun-stems, is now most often combined with verb-stems, besides it has come to form also names of instruments, persons in a certain state or doing something at the moment.

Some native words were used as components of compounds so often that they have acquired the status of derivational affixes (e. g. **-dom, -hood, -ly, over-, out-, under-),** others are now semi-affixational morphemes.1.

It is noteworthy that to the native element in English we must also refer some new simple words based on words of Anglo-Saxon origin. Words with a new non-derived stem branch off from primary simple words as a result of simplification of some derivatives in a cluster of words and their semantic isolation, as in **king, kind** *n****,* kind** *a* and **kin** *n,* from which all of them were derived (ср. *OE.* **cуninз, cynd, cynde, суn),** or **bless** and **bleed** derived from **blood (ср. *OE.* bledsian, blēdan, blōd).** Sometimes a word split into two or more words with different forms and meanings (i.e. etymological doublets) due to the difference in function and stress, as is the case with off and of (from *OE.* of which was stressed as an adverb and unstressed as a preposition). Dialectal forms of a word may develop into independent words, as in **one** and **an** (<*OE.* **an), whole** and **hale** (<*OE.* **hāl).** New root-words based on Anglo-Saxon words also came into being with the rise of homonyms owing to the split of polysemy.

The semantic characteristics, stability and wide collocability of native words account for their frequency in speech. However there are some words among them which are now archaic or poetic (e.g. **lore, methinks, quoth, whilom, ere, welkin,** etc.), or used only as historical terms (e.g. **thane, yeoman** denoting ranks, **stocks** — ‘an instrument of torture’, etc.).

What has been said above shows that the native element, has been playing a significant role in the English language. To fully estimate the importance of the native element in English, it is essential to study the role of English derivational means and semantic development in the life of borrowings, which will be dwelt upon in the sections below.

1. The native element comprises not only the ancient Anglo-Saxon core but also words which appeared later as a result of word-formation, split of polysemy and other processes operative in English.

2. Though not numerous in Modern English, words of Anglo-Saxon origin must be considered very important due to their marked stability, specific semantic characteristics, wide collocability, great derivational potential, wide spheres of application and high frequency value.

Borrowings

In its 15 century long history recorded in written manuscripts the English language happened to come in long and close contact with several other languages, mainly Latin, French and Old Norse (or Scandinavian). The great influx of borrowings from these sources can be accounted for by a number of historical causes. Due to the great influence of the Roman civilisation Latin was for a long Утеused in England as the language of learning and religion. Old Norse was the language of the conquerors who were on the same level of social and cultural development and who merged rather easily with the local population in the 9th, 10th and the first half of the 11th century. French (to be more exact its Norman dialect) was the language of the other conquerors who brought with them a lot of new notions of a higher social system — developed feudalism, it was the language of upper classes, of official documents and school instruction from the middle of the 11th century to the end of the 14th century.

In the study of the borrowed element in English the main emphasis is as a rule placed on the Middle English period. Borrowings of later periods became the object of investigation only in recent years. These investigations have shown that the flow of borrowings has been steady and uninterrupted. The greatest number has come from French. They refer to various fields of social-political, scientific and cultural life. A large portion of borrowings (41%) is scientific and technical terms.

The number and character of borrowed words tell us of the relations between the peoples, the level of their culture, etc. It is for this reason that borrowings have often been called the milestones of history. Thus if we go through the lists of borrowings in English and arrange them in groups according to their meaning, we shall be able to obtain much valuable information with regard to England’s contacts with many nations. Some borrowings, however, cannot be explained by the direct influence of certain historical conditions, they do not come along with any new objects or ideas. Such were for instance the words **air, place, brave, gay** borrowed from French.

It must be pointed out that while the general historical causes of borrowing from different languages have been studied with a considerable degree of thoroughness the purely linguistic reasons for borrowing are still open to investigation.

The number and character of borrowings do not only depend on the historical conditions, on the nature and length of the contacts, but also on the degree of the genetic and structural proximity of languages concerned. The closer the languages, the deeper and more versatile is the influence. This largely accounts for the well-marked contrast between the French and the Scandinavian influence on the English language. Thus under the influence of the Scandinavian languages, which were closely related to Old English, some classes of words were borrowed that could not have been adopted from non-related or distantly related languages (the pronouns **they, their, them,** for instance); a number of Scandinavian borrowings were felt as derived from native words (they were of the same root and the connection between them was easily seen), e.g. **drop***(AS*.**) — drip** *(Scand.),* **true *(AS.)-*tryst** *(Scand.);* the Scandinavian influence even accelerated to a certain degree the development of the grammatical structure of English.

Borrowings enter the language in two ways: through oral speech (by immediate contact between the peoples) and through written speech (by indirect contact through books, etc.).

Oral borrowing took place chiefly in the early periods of history, whereas in recent times written borrowing gained importance. Words borrowed orally (e.g. *L.* **inch, mill, street)** are usually short and they undergo considerable changes in the act of adoption. Written borrowings (e.g. *Fr.* **communiqué, belles-lettres, naïveté)** preserve their spelling and some peculiarities of their sound-form, their assimilation is a long and laborious process.

Though borrowed words undergo changes in the adopting language they preserve some of their former peculiarities for a comparatively long period. This makes it possible to work out some criteria for determining whether the word belongs to the borrowed element.

In some cases the pronunciation of the word (strange sounds, sound combinations, position of stress, etc.), its spelling and the correlation between sounds and letters are an indication of the foreign origin of the word. This is the case with **wal***tz* (G.),. *ps***ychology** *(Gr.),* **souffl*é****(Fr.),* etc. The initial position of the sounds [v], [dз]*,* [з] or of the letters x, j, **z** is a sure sign that the word has been borrowed, e.g. **volcano *(It.),* vase** *(Fr.),***vaccine** (L.)**, jungle** *(Hindi),* **gesture***(L.),***giant***(OFr.),* **zeal** *(L.),* **zero** *(Fr.),* **zinc** (G.), etc.

The morphological structure of the word and its grammatical forms may also bear witness to the word being adopted from another language. Thus the suffixes in the words neurosis (Gr.) and *violoncello (It.)* betray the foreign origin of the words. The same is true of the irregular plural forms *papyr***a**(from *papyrus, Gr.), pastora***li**(from *pastorale, It.), beaux* (from *beau, Fr.), bacteri***a***,* (from *bacterium, L.)* and the like.

Last but not least is the lexical meaning of the word. Thus the concept denoted by the words **ricksha(w), pagoda** *(Chin.)* make us suppose that we deal with borrowings.

These criteria are not always helpful. Some early borrowings have become so thoroughly assimilated that they are unrecognisable without a historical analysis, e.g. **chalk, mile** (L.), **ill, ugly***(Scand.),* **enemy**, **car***(Fr.),* etc. It must also be taken into consideration that the closer the relation between the languages, the more difficult it is to distinguish borrowings.

Sometimes the form of the word and its meaning in Modern English enable us to tell the immediate source of borrowing. Thus if the digraph **ch** is sounded as [∫], the word is a late French borrowing (as in *echelon, chauffeur, chef);* if it stands for [k], it came through Greek *(archaic, architect, chronology);* if it is pronounced as [t∫], it is either an early-borrowing (chase, *OFr.; cherry, L., OFr.; chime, L.),* or a word of Anglo-Saxon origin (choose, *child, chin).*

It is now essential to analyse the changes that borrowings have undergone in the English language and how they have adapted themselves to its peculiarities.

All the changes that borrowed elements undergo may be divided into two large groups.

On the one hand there are changes specific of borrowed words only. These changes aim at adapting words of foreign origin to the norms of the borrowing language, e.g. the consonant combinations [pn], [ps], [pt] in the words pneumatics, psychology, **Ptolemy** of Greek origin were simplified into [n], [s], [t], since the consonant combinations [ps], [pt], [pn], very frequent at the end of English words (as in **sleeps**, **stopped**, etc.), were never used in the initial position. For the same reason the initial [ks] was changed into [z] (as in *Gr.* **xylophone**).

The suffixes **-ar, -or, -ator** in early Latin borrowings were replaced by the highly productive Old English suffix **-ere,** as in *L.* **Caesar**>OE. **Casere**, *L.* sutor>*OE*. sūtere.

By analogy with the great majority of nouns that form their plural in **-s**, borrowings, even very recent ones, have assumed this inflection instead of their original plural endings. The forms Soviets, bolsheviks, kolkhozes, sputniks illustrate the process.

On the other hand we observe changes that are characteristic of both borrowed and native words. These changes are due to the development of the word according to the laws of the given language. When the highly inflected Old English system of declension changed into the simpler system of Middle English, early borrowings conformed with the general rule. Under the influence of the so-called inflexional levelling borrowings like **lазu**, *(MnE.* law), fēōlaza *(MnE.* fellow), stræt *(MnE.* street), disc *(MnE.* dish) that had a number of grammatical forms in Old English acquired only three forms in Middle English: common case and possessive case singular and plural (fellow, fellowes, fellowes).

It is very important to discriminate between the two processes — the adaptation of borrowed material to the norms of the language and the development of these words according to the laws of the language.

This differentiation is not always easily discernible. In most cases we must resort to historical analysis before we can draw any definite conclusions. There is nothing in the form of the words procession and,

**progression** to show that the former was already used in England in the 11th century, the latter not till the 15th century. The history of these words reveals that the word **procession** has undergone a number of changes alongside with other English words (change in declension, accentuation, structure, sounds), whereas the word **progression** underwent some changes by analogy with the word **procession** and other similar words already at the time of its appearance in the language.

Since the process of assimilation of borrowings includes changes in sound-form, morphological structure, grammar characteristics, meaning and usage Soviet linguists distinguish phonetic, grammatical and lexical assimilation of borrowings.

**Phonetic assimilation** comprising changes in sound-form and stress is perhaps the most conspicuous.

Sounds that were alien to the English language were fitted into its scheme of sounds. For instance, the long [e] and [ε] in recent French borrowings, alien to English speech, are rendered with the help of [ei] (as in the words **communiqué, chaussée, café).**

Familiar sounds or sound combinations the position of which was strange to the English language, were replaced by other sounds or sound combinations to make the words conform to the norms of the language, e.g. German **spitz [**∫pits**]** was turned into English [spits]. Substitution of native sounds for foreign ones usually takes place in the very act of borrowing. But some words retain their foreign pronunciation for a long time before the unfamiliar sounds are replaced by similar native sounds.

Even when a borrowed word seems at first sight to be identical in form with its immediate etymon as *OE.* **skill** <*Scand.* **skil; *OE.* scinn** <<*Scand.* **skinn;** *OE.* **ran** <*Scand.* **ran** the phonetic structure of the word undergoes some changes, since every language as well as every period in the history of a language is characterised by its own peculiarities in the articulation of sounds.

In words that were added to English from foreign sources, especially from French or Latin, the accent was gradually transferred to the first syllable. Thus words like **honour, reason** were accented on the same principle as the native **father, mother.**

**Grammatical Assimilation.** Usually as soon as words from other languages were introduced into English they lost their former grammatical categories and paradigms and acquired hew grammatical categories and paradigms by analogy with other English words, as in

*им.* **спутник** *Com. sing.* **Sputnik**

*род.* **спутника** *Poss. sing.* **Sputnik’s**

*дат.* **спутнику** *Com. pl.* **Sputniks**

*вин.* **спутник** *Poss. pl.* **Sputniks’**

*вин.* **спутником**

*предл. о***спутнике**

However, there are some words in Modern English that have for centuries retained their foreign inflexions. Thus a considerable group of borrowed nouns, all of them terms or literary words adopted in the 16th century or later, have preserved their original plural inflexion to this day, e.g. **phenomenon** *(L.)* — **phenomena; addendum *(L.)* — addenda; parenthesis** *(Gr.)* — **parentheses.** Other borrowings of the same period have two plural forms — the native and the foreign, e.g. **vacuum *(L.)* — vacua, vacuums, virtuoso *(It.)* — virtuosi, virtuosos.**

All borrowings that were composite in structure in their native language appeared in English as indivisible simple words, unless there were already words with the same morphemes in it, e.g. in the word **saunter** the French infinitive inflexion**-er** is retained (cf. *OFr.* **s'aunter),** but it has changed its quality, it is preserved in all the other grammatical forms of the word (cf. **saunters, sauntered, sauntering),** which means that it has become part of the stem in English. The French reflexive pronoun **s-** has become fixed as an inseparable element of the word. The former Italian diminishing suffixes **-etto, -otta, -ello(a), -cello** in the words **ballot, stiletto, umbrella** cannot be distinguished without special historical analysis, unless one knows the Italian language. The composite nature of the word **portfolio** is not seen either *(cf. It.* **portafogli <porta** — imperative of ‘carry’ + **fogli** — ’sheets of paper’). This loss of morphological seams in borrowings may be termed simplification by analogy with a similar processin native words.

It must be borne in mind that when there appears in a language a group of borrowed words built on the same pattern or containing the same morphemes, the morphological structure of the words becomes apparent and in the course of time their word-building elements can be employed to form new words.

ometimes in borrowed words foreign affixes are replaced by those available in the English language, e.g. the inflexion **-us** in Latin adjectives was replaced in English with the suffixes **-ous** or **-al:** *L.* **barbarus >>*E.* barbarous; *L.* botanicus >*E.* botanical; *L.* balneus >*E.* balneal.**

**Lexical Assimilation.** When a word is taken over into another language, its semantic structure as a rule undergoes great changes.

Polysemantic words are usually adopted only in one or two of their meanings. Thus the word **timbre** that had a number of meanings in French was borrowed into English as a musical term only. The words **cargo** and **cask,** highly polysemantic in Spanish, were adopted only in one of their meanings — ‘the goods carried in a ship’, ‘a barrel for holding liquids’ respectively.

• In some cases we can observe specialisation of meaning, as in the word **hangar,** denoting a building in which aeroplanes are kept (in French it meant simply ’shed’) and **revue,** which had the meaning of ‘review’ in French and came to denote a kind of theatrical entertainment in English.

In the process of its historical development a borrowing sometimes acquired new meanings that were not to be found in its former semantic structure. For instance, the verb **move** in Modern English has developed the meanings of ‘propose’, ‘change one’s flat’, ‘mix with people’ and others that the French **mouvoir**does not possess. The word **scope,** which originally had the meaning of ‘aim, purpose’, now means ‘ability to understand’, ‘the field within which an activity takes place, sphere’, ‘opportunity, freedom of action’. Asa rule the development of new meanings takes place 50 — 100 years after the word is borrowed.

The semantic structure of borrowings changes in other ways as well. Some meanings become more general, others more specialised, etc. For instance, the word **terrorist,** that was taken over from French in the meaning of ‘Jacobin’, widened its meaning to ‘one who governs, or opposes a government by violent means’. The word **umbrella,** borrowed in the meaning of a ’sunshade’ or ‘parasol’ (from *It.* **ombrella <ombra** — ’shade1) came to denote similar protection from the rain as well.

Usually the primary meaning of a borrowed word is retained throughout its history, but sometimes it becomes a secondary meaning. Thus the Scandinavian borrowings **wing, root, take** and many others have retained their primary meanings to the present day, whereas in the *OE.* **fēolaze** *(MnE.* **fellow)** which was borrowed from the same source in the meaning of ‘comrade, companion’, the primary meaning has receded to the background and was replaced by the meaning that appeared in New English ‘a man or a boy’.

Sometimes change of meaning is the result of associating borrowed words with familiar words which somewhat resemble them in sound but which are not at all related. This process, which is termed folketymology, often changes the form of the word in whole or in part, so as to bring it nearer to the word or words with which it is thought to be connected, e.g. the French verb **sur(o)under** had the meaning of ‘overflow’. In English **-r(o)under** was associated by mistake with **round** — *круглый*and the verb was interpreted as meaning ‘enclose on all sides, encircle’ *(MnE.* **surround).** Old French **estandard *(L.* estendere** — ‘to spread’) had the meaning of ‘a flag, banner’. In English the first part was wrongly associated with the verb **stand** and the word **standard** also acquired the meaning of ’something stable, officially accepted’.

Folk-etymologisation is a slow process; people first attempt to give the foreign borrowing its foreign pronunciation, but gradually popular use evolves a new pronunciation and spelling.

Another phenomenon which must also receive special attention is the formation of derivatives from borrowed word-stems. New derivatives are usually formed with the help of productive affixes, often of Anglo-Saxon origin. For instance: **faintness, closeness, easily, nobly,** etc. As a rule derivatives begin to appear rather soon after the borrowing of the word. Thus almost immediately after the borrowing of the word **sputnik** the words **pre-sputnik, sputnikist, sputnikked, to out-sputnik** were coined in English. Many derivatives were formed by means of conversion, as in **to manifesto** (1748) <**manifesto** *(It.,* 1644); **to encore** (1748) <**encore** *(Fr.,* 1712); **to coach** (1612) <**coach** *(Fr.,* 1556).

Similarly hybrid compounds were formed, e. g. **faint-hearted, ill-tempered, painstaking.**

Even a superficial examination of borrowed words in the English word-stock shows that there are words among them that are easily recognised as foreign (such as **decolleté, façade, Zeitgeist, voile)** and there are others that have become so firmly rooted in the language, so thoroughly assimilated that it is sometimes” extremely difficult to distinguish them from words of Anglo-Saxon origin (these are words like **pupil, master, city, river,** etc.).

Unassimilated words differ from assimilated ones in their pronunciation, spelling, semantic structure, frequency and sphere of application. However, there is no distinct border-line between the two groups. There are also words assimilated in some respects and unassimilated in others, they may be called partially assimilated. Such are **communiqué, détente** not yet assimilated phonetically, **phenomenon *(pl.* phenomena), graffito *(pl.* graffiti)** unassimilated grammatically, etc. So far no linguist has been able to suggest more or less comprehensive criteria for determining the degree of assimilation of borrowings.

The degree of assimilation depends in the first place upon the time of borrowing. The general principle is: the older the borrowing, the more thoroughly it tends to follow normal English habits of accentuation, pronunciation, etc. It is natural that the bulk of early borrowings have acquired full English citizenship and that most English speaking people are astonished on first hearing, that such everyday words as **window, chair, dish, box** have not always belonged to their language. Late borrowings often retain their foreign peculiarities.

However mere age is not the sole factor. Not only borrowings long in use, but also those of recent date may be completely made over to conform to English patterns if they are widely and popularly employed. Words that are rarely used in everyday speech, that are known to a small group of people retain their foreign -peculiarities. Thus many 19th century French borrowings have been completely assimilated (e.g. **turbine, clinic, exploitation, diplomat),** whereas the words adopted much earlier **noblesse** [no'bles] *(ME.),* **ennui** [ã:'nwi:] (1667), **eclat** [eit'kla:] (1674) have not been assimilated even in point of pronunciation.

Another factor determining the process of assimilation is the way in which the borrowing was taken over into the language. Words borrowed orally are assimilated more readily, they undergo greater changes, whereas with words adopted through writing the process of assimilation is longer and more laborious.

**LESSON PLAN 2**

Teacher’s name: Course type: Developing/ Review

Course name: Communicative Lexicology Room:

Date:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Вақт: 2 соат. **Length: 2 hours** | Талабаларсони:**Number of students**:  |
| Ўқувмашғулотинингшакливатури**Type of the lesson** Lecture  | **Дарс маърузаси:** **The theme of the lesson:** Interrelation between native and borrowed elements in English |
| Маърузарежасиўқувмашғулотинингтузилиши**Procedure/ Lesson outline** | 1. Interrelation between native words and borrowings.
2. Influence of Borrowings on the Semantic Structure of Words.
3. Influence of Borrowings on the Lexical Territorial Divergence.
4. Influence of Borrowings on the Word-Structure, Word-Clusters and the System of Word-Building.
5. Influence of Borrowings on the Phonetic Structure of Words and the Sound System.
 |
| Ўқувмашғулотинингмақсади: **Lesson aims**:to give general information about Interrelation between native words and borrowings, Influence of Borrowings on the Semantic Structure of Words, Influence of Borrowings on the Lexical Territorial Divergence, Influence of Borrowings on the Word-Structure, Word-Clusters and the System of Word-Building, Influence of Borrowings on the Phonetic Structure of Words and the Sound System |
| Педагогиквазифалар:**Objectives: based on the topic** | Ўқувфаолиятинингнатижалари**Learning outcomes:**By the end of the lesson the Ls will be able…* to know Interrelation between native words and borrowings
* to know the Influence of Borrowings on the Semantic Structure of Words.
* to know the Influence of Borrowings on the Lexical Territorial Divergence.
* to know the Influence of Borrowings on the Word-Structure, Word-Clusters and the System of Word-Building
* to know the Influence of Borrowings on the Phonetic Structure of Words and the Sound System
 |
| Таълим усулллари **Task types** | Lecture, explanation, demonstration, brainstorming, instructions |
| Таълим шакли **Interaction patterns** |  Frontal, collective, whole class |
| Таълим воситалари **Materials used:** | Aids, blackboard, cluster, projector |
| Таълимберишшароити**Equipment/ aids used**: | Auditorium, projector, computer |
| Мониторингвабаҳолаш**Types of assessment** |  |

Ўқувмашғулотинингтехнологикхаритаси

**DETAILED PROCEDURE OF THE LESSON**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Ишбосқичларивавақти**Steps and duration** | Фаолият**Process**  |
| Таълим берувчи**Teacher**  | Таълим олувчилар**Listeners** |
| 1-босқич **Part I (±15mins)** | 1.1. greets and checks the attendance. presents the theme of the lesson, its aim, plan and expected results.1.2. gives the list of used literature as a source.1.3. explains the criteria of assessment.  | Listen, make notes, answer if a question is asked by the lecturer |
| 2-босқич**Part II (±55mins)** | 2.1. T. activates students’ knowledge by quiz and brainstorming to create the environment for the lecture.2.2. T. tells about the outline of the lesson and organization of the process of the lesson according to its structure. | Ls answer the questions, tell their opinions and write necessary points of the lecture.  |
| 3-босқич**Part III (±10mins)** | 3.1. T draws a conclusion of the lesson, explains the importance of the lecture3.2. T announces the marks, analyzes the degree of achieved results3.3. T. gives tasks for self-study and explains the assessment criteria | Ls listen attentively, ask their questions, write the tasks, self-assessment |

**Interrelation between native and borrowed words**

 The number of borrowings in Old English was meagre. In the Middle English period there was an influx of loans. It is often contended that since the Norman conquest borrowing has been the chief factor in the enrichment of the English vocabulary and as a result there was a sharp decline in the productivity of word-formation. Historical evidence, however, testifies to the fact that throughout its entire history, even in the periods of the mightiest influxes of borrowings, other processes, no less intense, were in operation — word-formation and semantic development, which involved both native and borrowed elements.

 If the estimation of the role of borrowings is based on the study of words recorded in the dictionary, it is easy to overestimate the effect of the loan words, as the number of native words is extremely small compared with the number of borrowings recorded. The only true way to estimate the relation of the native to the borrowed element is to consider the two as actually used in speech. If one counts every word used, including repetitions, in some reading matter, the proportion of native to borrowed words will be quite different. On such a count, every writer-uses considerably more native words than borrowings. Shakespeare, for example, has 90%, Milton 81 %, Tennyson 88%.This shows how important is the comparatively small nucleus of native words.

Different borrowings are marked by different frequency value. Those well established in the vocabulary may be as frequent in speech as native words, whereas others occur very rarely.

The great number of borrowings in English left some imprint upon the language. The first effect of foreign influence is observed in the volume of its vocabulary. Due to its history the English language, more than any other modern language, has absorbed foreign elements in its vocabulary. But the adoption of foreign words must not be understood as mere quantitative change. Any importation into the lexical system brings about semantic and stylistic changes in the words of this language and changes in its synonymic groups.

It has been mentioned that when borrowed words were identical in meaning with those already in English the adopted word very often displaced the native word. In most cases, however, the borrowed words and synonymous native words (or words borrowed earlier) remained in the language, becoming more or less differentiated in meaning and use. Cf., e.g., the sphere of application and meaning of **feed** and **nourish, try** and **endeavour, meet** and **encounter.**

As a result the number of synonymic groups in English greatly increased. The synonymic groups became voluminous and acquired many words rarely used. This brought about a rise in the percentage of stylistic synonyms.

**Influence of Borrowings on the Semantic Structure of Words.** As a result of the differentiation in meaning between synonymous words many native words or words borrowed earlier narrowed their meaning or sphere of application. Thus the word **stool** of Anglo-Saxon origin, which in Old English denoted any article of furniture designed for sitting on, under the influence of the French borrowing **chair** came to be used as the name for only one kind of furniture.

Due to borrowings some words passed out of the literary national language and have become dialectal, as **ea** *suv oqimi (ОЕ.* **ēа** — *suv oqmi,daryo),* **heal, hele** — *yashirmoq, qamrab olmoq (ОЕ.* **helan),** etc.

Another instance of foreign influence upon the semantic structure of some English words is semanticborrowing, i.e. the borrowing of meaning from a word in a foreign language. This often takes place in English words having common roots with some words in another language (international words today reflect this process best), e.g. the

words **pioneer** and **cadres** which are international words have acquired new meanings under the influence of the Russian *pioner* and *qadirlar.* Sometimes English words acquire additional meanings under the influence of related words having quite different roots, e.g. the political meanings of **shock** and **deviation** have come from the Russian *zarbali* and *yon bosh.*

**Influence of Borrowings on the Lexical Territorial Divergence.** Abundant borrowing intensified the difference between the word-stock of the literary national language and dialects. On the one hand, a number of words were borrowed into the literary national language which are not to be found in the dialects (such as literary words, scientific and political terminology, etc.). In a number of cases the dialects have preserved some Anglo-Saxon words which were replaced by borrowings in the literary language. Thus the Scotch dialect has preserved such words as ken — *bilmoq (ОЕ.* **cennan); eke** — *qoshish (ОЕ.* **ēаса); eath** — *silliq, yengil*(*ОE*. ēаđе); **fleme** — *qaytarmoq, haydamoq (ОЕ.* flyman).

On the other hand, a number of words were borrowed into dialects and are used throughout the country. Thus, the Scottish and Irish dialects have suffered much greater Celtic influence than the literary national language or the Southern dialect, as the Celtic languages were longer spoken in Scotland and Ireland — some sections of the population use them even now. The Irish dialect, for example, has the following words of Celtic origin: **shamrock** — *uch bargli,* **dun** — *adr,* **colleen** — *qiz bola,* **shillelagh** — *tayoq,* etc. In the Northern, Scottish and Eastern dialects there are many more Scandinavian borrowings than in the national literary language as most Scandinavian settlements were found in the north of the country, *e.g.* **busk** — ‘get ready’; **fell** — ‘hill’; **mun** — ‘mouth’; **wapentake** — ‘division of shire’.

Some Scandinavian borrowings ousted native words in dialects. Since many of these words were of the same root a great number of etymological doublets appeared, e.g. **dag** — **dew, kirk — church, benk — bench, kist — chest, garth — yard, loup — leap,** etc.

**Influence of Borrowings on the Word-Structure, Word-Clusters and the System of Word-Building.** The great number of borrowings could not but leave a definite imprint on the morphological structure of words in English. A number of new structural types appeared in the language. This took place when the morphological structure of borrowings, obscured at the time of adoption, became transparent **in** the course of time and served as a pattern for new formations.

Among the affixes which can be considered borrowed by Englishsome are highly-productive and can combine with native and borrowed items (e.g. **re-, inter-, -able, -er, -ism,** etc.), others are not so productive.

Some lists of foreign affixes include 200 — 500 items, although the actual number is much smaller. In these lists no distinction is made between living affixes and those found only in borrowed words which are indivisible in English morphemically and deri- \ationally, such as L. **ab-, ad-, amb-; *Gr.* ana-, apo-, cata-** inwords like **abstract, admire, ambition, anatomy, etc,** and combine only with Romanic stems **(со-, de-, trans-, -al, -cy, -ic, -ical,** etc.), still others are often met with in borrowed words, but do not form any new words in English (**-ous, -ive, -ent,** etc.).

Some borrowed affixes have even ousted those of native origin, e.g. in Modern English the prefix **pre-** expressing priority of action has replaced the native prefix **fore-,** which was highly productive in Middle English and early New English, especially in the 16-17th centuries.

Another imprint of borrowings on “the structural types of words in English is the appearance of a great number of words with bound morphemes, such as **tolerate, tolerable, tolerance, toleration,** etc. Clusters of words in English also underwent some changes — both quantitative and qualitative — due to the influx of borrowings. On the one hand, many clusters of words were enlarged. Not only were new derivatives formed with the help of borrowed affixes, but some borrowings entered the clusters of words already existing in English. Mention has already been made of Scandinavian borrowings like **drip, tryst.**Some Latin and French borrowings entered the clusters of words borrowed from Romanic languages before, e.g. when the French borrowings **exploitation, mobilisation, militarism, employee, personnel, millionaire** were taken over into English in the 19th century, they occupied the position of derivatives of the words **exploit, mobilise,** etc. borrowed much earlier.

On the other hand, the influx of borrowings in English has changed the very nature of word-clusters which now unite not only words of the same root-morpheme, but also of different synonymous root-morphemes, as in **spring** — **vernal, two — second, dual, sea — maritime,** etc.

**Influence of Borrowings on the Phonetic Structure of Words and the Sound System.** As a result of intense borrowing there appeared in the English language a number of words of new phonetic structure with strange sounds and sound combinations, or familiar sounds in unusual positions. Such are the words with the initial [ps], [pn], [pt] (as in *Gr.* **psilanthropism)** which are used in English alongside with the forms without the initial sound [p].

If there were many borrowed words containing a certain phonetic peculiarity, they influenced to some extent the sound system of the language.

Thus abundant borrowing from French in the Middle English period accounts for the appearance of a new diphthong in English — [oi], which, according to Prof. B. A. Ilyish, could not have developed from any Old English sound or sound combination, but came into English together with such French words as **point, joint, poise.** The initial [sk], which reappeared in English together with Scandinavian and other borrowings, is nowadays a common beginning for a great number of words.

Abundant borrowing also brought about some changes in the distribution of English sounds, e.g. the Old English variant phonemes [f] and [v] developed into different phonemes, that is [v] came to be used initially (as in **vain, valley, vulgar)** and [f] in the intervocal position (as**in effect, affect, affair)** which was impossible in Old English. The affricate [dз], which developed at the beginning of the Middle English period and was found at the end or in the middle of words (as in **bridge — *OE. bricz*; singe** — *OE.* **senczean),** under the influence of numerous borrowings came to be used in the initial position (as in **jungle, journey, gesture).**

**LESSON PLAN 3**

Teacher’s name: Course type: Developing/ Review

Course name: Communicative Lexicology Room:

Date:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Вақт: 2 соат. **Length: 2 hours** | Талабаларсони:**Number of students**:  |
| Ўқувмашғулотинингшакливатури**Type of the lesson** Lecture  | **Дарс маърузаси:** **The theme of the lesson:** Main types of English dictionaries |
| Маърузарежасиўқувмашғулотинингтузилиши**Procedure/ Lesson outline** | 1. Main types of English dictionaries.
2. Explanatory dictionaries.
3. Translation dictionaries.
4. Specialized dictionaries.
 |
| Ўқувмашғулотинингмақсади: **Lesson aims**: to give general information about Main types of English dictionaries, Explanatory dictionaries, Translation dictionaries, Specialized dictionaries.  |
| Педагогиквазифалар:**Objectives: based on the topic** | Ўқувфаолиятинингнатижалари**Learning outcomes:**By the end of the lesson the Ls will be able…* to know the Main types of English dictionaries.
* to know the Explanatory dictionaries.
* to know the Translation dictionaries.
* to know the Specialized dictionaries.
 |
| Таълим усулллари **Task types** | Lecture, explanation, demonstration, brainstorming, instructions |
| Таълим шакли **Interaction patterns** |  Frontal, collective, whole class |
| Таълим воситалари **Materials used:** | Aids, blackboard, cluster, projector |
| Таълимберишшароити**Equipment/ aids used**: | Auditorium, projector, computer |
| Мониторингвабаҳолаш**Types of assessment** |  |

Ўқувмашғулотинингтехнологикхаритаси

**DETAILED PROCEDURE OF THE LESSON**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Ишбосқичларивавақти**Steps and duration** | Фаолият**Process**  |
| Таълим берувчи**Teacher**  | Таълим олувчилар**Listeners** |
| 1-босқич **Part I (±15mins)** | 1.1. greets and checks the attendance. presents the theme of the lesson, its aim, plan and expected results.1.2. gives the list of used literature as a source.1.3. explains the criteria of assessment.  | Listen, make notes, answer if a question is asked by the lecturer |
| 2-босқич**Part II (±55mins)** | 2.1. T. activates students’ knowledge by quiz and brainstorming to create the environment for the lecture.2.2. T. tells about the outline of the lesson and organization of the process of the lesson according to its structure. | Ls answer the questions, tell their opinions and write necessary points of the lecture.  |
| 3-босқич**Part III (±10mins)** | 3.1. T draws a conclusion of the lesson, explains the importance of the lecture3.2. T announces the marks, analyzes the degree of achieved results3.3. T. gives tasks for self-study and explains the assessment criteria | Ls listen attentively, ask their questions, write the tasks, self-assessment |

**MAIN TYPES OF ENGLISH DICTIONARIES.**

 ENCYCLOPAEDIC AND LINGUISTIC DICTIONARIES. The choice of words: thing-books vs wordbooks; all words of the language vs. words of designative character (names for substances, diseases, animals, institutions, terms of science, biographical data). The information about a word in an entry: spelling, pronunciation, meaning, examples of use vs extensive extralinguistic information. Cf the entries for CAT: CAT (family Felidae), any of a group of carnivorous mammals that includes the true cats—lion, tiger, jaguar, leopard, puma, and domestic cat—and the cheetah (see photograph). Cats typically have soft fur, often strikingly patterned. See also domestic cat. The history of the cat family can be traced through the fossil record to the Late Eocene Epoch (43.6 to 36.6 million… (Encyclopaedia Britannica)

cat [kæt] 1. small , domestic, fur-covered animal often kept as a pet, to catch mice, etc. (=wild cat) any animal of the group that includes tigers, lions, panthers and leopards. bell the cat see bell (2). Let the cat out of the bag see bag (1). Like a cat on hot bricks, very nervous or jumpy… (A.S. Hornby. Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary of current English).

Most well-known encyclopaedias: The Encyclopaedia Britannica (in 24 vos.); Encyclopaedia Britannica Macropaedia and Micropaedia. The Encyclopaedia Americana (in 30 vols); Collier’s Encyclopaedia (in 24 vols)(for teachers and students); Chamber’s encyclopaedia (familry type reference book); Everyman’s

Encyclopaedia (for all-round use). Specialized encyclopaedias : The Oxford Companion to English Literature, the Oxford Companion to Theatre, Cassell’s Encyclopaedia of World Literature, etc.

Overlapping of information: the word origin in encyclopaedic dictionaries; the encyclopaedic definitions in linguistic dictionaries; encyclopaedic parts (appendici) in linguistic dictionaries, e.g. geographical names, names and dates of birth and life of famous people.

American dictionaries tend to be encyclopaedic; British dictionaries tend to exclude the extralinguistic information from the entries.

 TYPES OF LINGUISTIC DICTIONARIES. Criteria for classification:

a. The nature of word lists: general (unrestricted) and restricted dictionaries.

b. The kind of information: explanatory, translation, pronouncing , etymological, ideographic dictionaries, etc.

c. The language in which the information is given: Monolingual vs bilingual dictionaries.

c. The prospective user, e.g. advanced learners of English; children, students, etc.

Example: A.P.Cowie, R. Mackin. Oxford dictionary of Current Idiomatic English. Vol.1. Verbs with prepositions and particles. Oxford University Press, 1975.

1. Explanatory dictionaries. Deal with the form, usage and meaning of lexical units. Synchronic vs diachronic presentation of word meanings: from basic to derived vs from historically earlier to those that appeared later, e.g. table ‘a piece of furniture’ / ‘a slab of stone’. Diachronic: NED (The New English Dictionary on Historical Principles); SOD (The Shorter Oxford Dictionary on Historical Principles) Synchronic: COD (the Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English); Webster dictionaries; Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary (COBUILD – Collins Birmingham University International Language Database)

2 Translation dictionaries. The New English-Russian Dictionary. (In 3 vols.) Ed. By E.M.Mednikova & Ju.D.Apresjan. (250 000 words; V.K.Muller. English-Russian Dictionary. 53000 words; A.M.Taube, A.V.Litvinova, A.D.Miller, R.S.Daglish. Russian-English Dictionary. (34 000 words); English-Russian Dictionary ed. Under general direction of A.I.Smirnitsky; A Phrase and Sentence Dictionary of Spoken Russian. Russian-English- English-Russian. N.Y.: Dover Publications. E.g. любопытный curious. Ишькакойлюбопытный, всюдусвойноссует. He’s so damned curious, he sticks his nose in everywhere. Odd. Этолюбопытноесовпадение. It’s an odd coincidence.

3 Specialized dictionaries.

a. Phraseological dictionaries. Dictionaries published abroad contain all sorts of “anomalies”: idioms, colloquial word groups, proverbs. An Anglo-Russian Phraseological Dictionary by A.V.Koonin.

b. Pharasal verbs dictionaries. Longman Dictionary of Phrasal verbs.

c. New Words dictionaries. The Barnhart Dictionary of New English (1 st ed. L. 1973).

d. Slang dictionaries. Dictionary of Slang and Unconventional English by E.Partridge; The Dictionary of American Slang by H.Wentworth and S.B.Flexner.

e. Usage dictionaries : give advice to native learners about what is right and what is wrong.

Dictionary of Usage and Abusage by E.Partridge: the difference between words, e.g. daily vs diurnal; restrictions on the usage of certain words, e.g. responsible should be restricted to human beings; the meaning of “difficult” words, e.g. vicinage ‘neighbourhood’; words easily confused, e.g. venal and venial ; the use of certain constructions, e.g. split infinitive , etc. f. Frequency dictionaries: to make lists of words suitable as the basis for teaching English to foreign learners. M. West’s General Service List.

g. Pronouncing dictionaries: record variants of contemporary pronunciation. English Pronouncing Dictionary by Daniel Jones.

h. Etymological dictionaries: The word’s primary meaning; the immediate source of borrowing and its origin. Etymological English Dictionary by W.W.Skeat.

i. Ideographic dictionaries. P.M. Roget’s Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases. A new parameter: The form of the dictionaries: ‘hard’ dictionaries and ‘soft’ (electronic) dictionaries, e.g. Linguo, Multitran. Electronic encyclopaedias.

**LESSON PLAN 4**

Teacher’s name: Course type: Developing/ Review

Course name: Communicative Lexicology Room:

Date:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Вақт: 2 соат. **Length: 2 hours** | Талабаларсони:**Number of students**:  |
| Ўқувмашғулотинингшакливатури**Type of the lesson** Lecture  | **Дарс маърузаси:** **The theme of the lesson:** Main types of English dictionaries |
| Маърузарежасиўқувмашғулотинингтузилиши**Procedure/ Lesson outline** | 1. Main types of English vocabularies.
2. Encyclopaedic dictionaries.
3. Linguistic dictionaries.
4. General dictionaries.
 |
| Ўқувмашғулотинингмақсади: **Lesson aims**: to give general information about Main types of English dictionaries, Ex Encyclopaedic dictionaries, Linguistic dictionaries, General dictionaries.  |
| Педагогиквазифалар:**Objectives: based on the topic** | Ўқувфаолиятинингнатижалари**Learning outcomes:**By the end of the lesson the Ls will be able…* to know the Main types of English dictionaries.
* to know the Encyclopaedic dictionaries.
* to know the Linguistic dictionaries.
* to know the General dictionaries.
 |
| Таълим усулллари **Task types** | Lecture, explanation, demonstration, brainstorming, instructions |
| Таълим шакли **Interaction patterns** |  Frontal, collective, whole class |
| Таълим воситалари **Materials used:** | Aids, blackboard, cluster, projector |
| Таълимберишшароити**Equipment/ aids used**: | Auditorium, projector, computer |
| Мониторингвабаҳолаш**Types of assessment** |  |

Ўқувмашғулотинингтехнологикхаритаси

**DETAILED PROCEDURE OF THE LESSON**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Ишбосқичларивавақти**Steps and duration** | Фаолият**Process**  |
| Таълим берувчи**Teacher**  | Таълим олувчилар**Listeners** |
| 1-босқич **Part I (±15mins)** | 1.1. greets and checks the attendance. presents the theme of the lesson, its aim, plan and expected results.1.2. gives the list of used literature as a source.1.3. explains the criteria of assessment.  | Listen, make notes, answer if a question is asked by the lecturer |
| 2-босқич**Part II (±55mins)** | 2.1. T. activates students’ knowledge by quiz and brainstorming to create the environment for the lecture.2.2. T. tells about the outline of the lesson and organization of the process of the lesson according to its structure. | Ls answer the questions, tell their opinions and write necessary points of the lecture.  |
| 3-босқич**Part III (±10mins)** | 3.1. T draws a conclusion of the lesson, explains the importance of the lecture3.2. T announces the marks, analyzes the degree of achieved results3.3. T. gives tasks for self-study and explains the assessment criteria | Ls listen attentively, ask their questions, write the tasks, self-assessment |

**MAIN TYPES OF ENGLISH DICTIONARIES**

There are many different types of English dictionaries. First of all they may all be roughly divided into two groups — e n c y c l o p a e d i c and l i n g u i s t i c . The two groups of reference books differ essentially in the choice of items included and in the sort of information given about them. Linguistic d i c t i o n a r i e s are wоrd-books, their subject’ matter is lexical units and their linguistic properties such as pronunciation, meaning, peculiarities of use, etc. T h e e n c y c l o p a e d i c d i c t i o n a r i e s , the biggest of which are sometimes called simply encyclopaedias are t h i n g books, that give information about the extra-linguistic world, they deal with concepts (objects and phenomena), their relations to other objects and phenomena, etc. It follows that the encyclopaedic dictionaries will never enter items like father, go, that, be, if, black, but only those of designative character, such as names for substances, diseases, plants and animals, institutions, terms of science, some important events in history and also geographical and biographical entries.

Although some of the items included in encyclopaedic and linguistic dictionaries coincide, such as the names of some diseases, the information presented in them is altogether different. The former give much more extensive information on these subjects. For example, the entry influenza in a linguistic dictionary presents the word’s spelling and pronunciation, grammar characteristics, synonyms, etc. In an encyclopaedia the entry influenza discloses the causes, symptoms, characteristics and varieties of this disease, various treatments of and remedies for it, ways of infection, etc.

Though, strictly speaking, it is with linguistic dictionaries that lexicology is closely connected and in our further consideration we shall be concerned with this type of reference books only, it may be useful for students of English to know that the most well-known encyclopaedias in English are The Encyclopaedia Britannica (in 24 volumes) and The Encyclopedia Americana (in 30 volumes). Very popular in Great Britain and the USA are also Collier’s Encyclopedia (in 24 vols) intended for students and school teachers, Chamber’s Encyclopaedia (in 15 vols) which is a family type reference book, and Everyman’s Encyclopaedia (in 12 vols) designed for all-round use. Besides the general encyclopaedic dictionaries there are reference books that are confined to definite fields of knowledge, such as The Oxford Companion to English Literature, Oxford Companion to Theatre, Cassell's Encyclopaedia of World Literature, etc.

There are also numerous ‘dictionaries presenting information about notable persons (scientists, writers, kings, presidents, etc.) often called Who’s Who dictionaries. As concept and word-meaning are closely bound up the encyclopaedic and linguistic dictionaries often overlap. Encyclopaedias sometimes indicate the origin of the word, which belongs to the domain of linguistics. On the other hand, there are elements of encyclopaedic character in many linguistic dictionaries. Some of these are unavoidable. With terms, for instance, a lexicographic definition of meaning will not differ greatly from a short logical definition of the respective concept in encyclopaedic dictionaries. Some dictionary-compilers include in their word-lists such elements of purely encyclopaedic nature as names of famous people together with their birth and death dates or the names of major cities and towns, giving not only their correct spelling and pronunciation, but also a brief description of their population, location, etc.

For practical purposes it is important to know that American dictionaries are characterised by encyclopaedic inclusion of scientific, technical, geographical and bibliographical items whereas it is common practice with British lexicographers to exclude from their dictionaries information of this kind to devote maximum space to the linguistic properties of words. Thus a linguistic dictionary is a book of words in a language, usually listed alphabetically, with definitions, pronunciations, etymologies and other linguistic information or with their equivalents in another language (or other languages).

Linguistic dictionaries may be divided into different categories by different criteria. According to the nature of their word-list we may speak about general d i с t i о n a r i e s , on the one hand, and restriсted, on the other. The terms g e n e r a l and r e s t r i c t e d do not refer to the size of the dictionary or to the number of items listed. What is meant is that the former contain lexical units in ordinary use with this or that proportion of items from various spheres of life, while the latter make their choice only from a certain part of the word-stock, the restriction being based on any principle determined by the compiler. To r e s t r i c t e d d i c t i o n a r i e s belong -terminological, phraseological, dialectal word-books, dictionaries of new words, of foreign words, of abbreviations, etc.

As to the information they provide all linguistic dictionaries fall into those presenting a wide range of data, especially with regard to the ’semantic aspect of the vocabulary items entered (they are called explanatory) and those dealing with lexical units only in relation to some of their characteristics, e.g. only in relation to their etymology or frequency or pronunciation. These are termed specialised dictionaries. Dictionaries with the same nature of word-lists may differ widely in the kind of information they afford, and the other way round, dictionaries providing data of similar nature may have a different kind of word-list. For example, dictionaries of u n r e s t r i c t e d word-lists may be quite different in the type of information they contain (explanatory, pronouncing, etymological, ideographic, etc.), terminological dictionaries can also be explanatory, parallel, ideographic, presenting the frequency value of the items entered, etc. On the other hand, translation dictionaries may be general in their word-list, or terminological, phraseological, etc. Frequency dictionaries may have general and terminological word-lists.

All types of dictionaries, save the translation ones, may be m о n o l i n g u a l or b i l i n g u a l , i.e. the information about the items entered may be given in the same language or in another one.

Care should be taken not to mix up the terms m o n o l i n g u a l and e x p l a n a t o r y , on the one hand, and b i l i n g u a l and t r a n s l a t i o n dictionaries on the other. The two pairs of terms reflect different dimensions of dictionaries. The terms m o n o l i n g u a l and b i l i n g u a l pertain to the language in which the information about the words dealt with is couched. The terms e x p l a n a t o r y and t r a n s l a t i o n dictionaries characterise the kind of information itself.

Thus among dictionaries of th3 same type, say phraseological or terminological, we may find both monolingual and bilingual word-books. For example, Kluge’s Etymologisches Wörterbuch der deutschen Sprache is bilingual, but it is not its purpose to supply translation of the items entered.

It is important to realise that no dictionary, even the most general one, can be a general-purpose word-book, each one pursues a certain aim, each is designed for a certain set of users. Therefore the selection of material and its presentation, the language in which it is couched depend very much upon the supposed users, i.e. whether the dictionary is planned to serve scholarly users or students or the general public.

Thus to characterise a dictionary one must qualify it at least from the four angles mentioned above: 1) the nature of the word-list, 2) the information supplied, 3) the language of the explanations, 4) the prospectiveuser.

**LESSON PLAN 5**

Teacher’s name: Course type: Developing/ Review

Course name: Communicative Lexicology Room:

Date:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Вақт: 2 соат. **Length: 2 hours** | Талабаларсони:**Number of students**:  |
| Ўқувмашғулотинингшакливатури**Type of the lesson** Lecture  | **Дарс маърузаси:** **The theme of the lesson:** Methods of lexical research |
| Маърузарежасиўқувмашғулотинингтузилиши**Procedure/ Lesson outline** | 1. Methods of lexical research.2. Contrastive analysis.3. Statistical methods of analysis.4. Immediate Constituents analysis. |
| Ўқувмашғулотинингмақсади: **Lesson aims**: to give general information about Methods of lexical research, Contrastive analysis, Statistical methods of analysis, Immediate Constituents analysis.  |
| Педагогиквазифалар:**Objectives: based on the topic** | Ўқувфаолиятинингнатижалари**Learning outcomes:**By the end of the lesson the Ls will be able…* to know the Methods of lexical research.
* to know the Contrastive analysis.
* to know the Statistical methods of analysis.
* to know the Immediate Constituents analysis.
 |
| Таълим усулллари **Task types** | Lecture, explanation, demonstration, brainstorming, instructions |
| Таълим шакли **Interaction patterns** |  Frontal, collective, whole class |
| Таълим воситалари **Materials used:** | Aids, blackboard, cluster, projector |
| Таълимберишшароити**Equipment/ aids used**: | Auditorium, projector, computer |
| Мониторингвабаҳолаш**Types of assessment** |  |

Ўқувмашғулотинингтехнологикхаритаси

**DETAILED PROCEDURE OF THE LESSON**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Ишбосқичларивавақти**Steps and duration** | Фаолият**Process**  |
| Таълим берувчи**Teacher**  | Таълим олувчилар**Listeners** |
| 1-босқич **Part I (±15mins)** | 1.1. greets and checks the attendance. presents the theme of the lesson, its aim, plan and expected results.1.2. gives the list of used literature as a source.1.3. explains the criteria of assessment.  | Listen, make notes, answer if a question is asked by the lecturer |
| 2-босқич**Part II (±55mins)** | 2.1. T. activates students’ knowledge by quiz and brainstorming to create the environment for the lecture.2.2. T. tells about the outline of the lesson and organization of the process of the lesson according to its structure. | Ls answer the questions, tell their opinions and write necessary points of the lecture.  |
| 3-босқич**Part III (±10mins)** | 3.1. T draws a conclusion of the lesson, explains the importance of the lecture3.2. T announces the marks, analyzes the degree of achieved results3.3. T. gives tasks for self-study and explains the assessment criteria | Ls listen attentively, ask their questions, write the tasks, self-assessment |

**Methods and Procedures of Lexicological Analysis**

It is commonly recognised that acquaintance with at least some of the currently used procedures of linguistic investigation is of considerable importance both for language learners and for prospective teachers as it gives them the possibility to observe how linguists obtain answers to certain questions and is of help in the preparation of teaching material. It alsohelps language learners to become good observers of how language works and this is the only lasting way to become better users of language.

The process of scientific investigation may be subdivided into several stages. O b s e r v a t i o n is an early and basic, phase of all modern scientific investigation, including linguistic, and is the centre of what is called the inductive method of inquiry. The cardinal role of all inductive procedures is that statements of fact must be based on o b s e r v a t i o n , not on unsupported authority, logical conclusions or personal preferences. Besides, linguists as a rule largely confine themselves to making factual statements, i.e. statements capable ofobjective verification. In other words a linguist assumes that a question cannot be answered unless there are procedures by which reliable and verifiable answers can be obtained.

The next stage after observation is c l a s s i f i c a t i o n or orderly arrangement of the data obtained through observation. For example, it is observed that in English nouns the suffixal morpheme -er is added to verbal stems (speak + -er, writ(e) + -er, etc.), noun stem’s (village + -er, London + -er, etc.), and that -er also occurs in non-derived words such as mother, father, etc. Accordingly all the nouns in -er may be classified into two types — derived and simple words and the derived words may be subdivided into two groups according to their stems. It should be pointed out that at this stage the application of different methods of analysis is common practice.

The following stage is usually that of g e n e r a l i s a t i o n , i.e. the collection of data and their orderly arrangement must eventually lead to the formulation of< a generalisation or hypothesis, rule, or law. In our case we can formulate a rule that derived nouns in -er may have either verbal or noun stems. The suffix -er in combination with adjectival or adverbial stems cannot form nouns (cf. (to) dig — digger but big —bigger).

Moreover, the difference in the meaning of the suffixal nouns observed by the linguist allows him to infer that if -er is added to verbal stems, the nouns thus formed denote an active doer — teacher, learner, etc., whereas when the suffix -er is combined with noun-stems the words denote residents of a place or profession (e.g. villager, Londoner).

One of the fundamental tests of the validity of a generalisation is whether or not the generalisation is useful in making reliable p r e d i c t i o n s . For example, proceeding from the observation and generalisation discussed above we may ‘predict’ with a considerable degree of certainty that if a new word with a suffix -er appears in modern English and the suffix is added to a verbal stem, the word is a noun denoting an active doer (cf., e.g., the new words of the type (moon-)crawler, (moon-)walker (lunar-)rouer which appeared when the Soviet moon car was launched.

Moreover we may predict if we make use of statistical analysis that such words are more likely to be coined than the other types of nouns with the -er suffix. Any linguistic generalisation is to be followed by the v e r i f у i n g p r o c e s s . Stated, simply, the linguist is required, as are other scientists, to seek verification of the generalisations that are the result of his inquiries. Here too, various procedures of linguistic analysis are commonly applied.

It may be inferred from the above that acquaintance with at least some of the methods of lexicological investigation, is essential for classification, generalisation and above all for the verification of the hypothesis resulting from initial observation. We may also assume that application of various methods of analysis should be an essential part of the learning process and consequently of teacher’s training. The methods and procedures briefly discussed below are as follows:

1. Contrastive analysis,

2. Statistical methods of analysis,

3. Immediate Constituents analysis,

4 Distributional analysis and co-occurrence,

5.Transformational analysis,

6. Componental analysis,

7. Method of semantic differential.

 1. Contrastive Analysis It is common knowledge that one of the major problems in the learning of the second language is the interference caused by the difference between the mother tongue of the learner and the target language. All the problems of foreign language teaching will certainly not be solved by contrastive linguistics alone. There is no doubt, however, that contrastive analysis has a part to play in evaluation of errors, in predicting typical errors and thus must be seen in connection with overall endeavours to rationalise and intensify foreign language teaching.

Linguistic scholars working in the field of applied linguistics assume that the most effective teaching materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner.

They proceed from the assumption that the categories, elements, etc. on the semantic as well as on the syntactic and other levels are valid for both languages, i.e. are adopted from a possibly universal inventory. For example, linking verbs can be found in English, in French, in Russian, etc. Linking verbs having the meaning of ‘change’, ‘become’ are differently represented in each of the languages. In English, e.g., become, come, fall, get, grow, run, turn, wax, in German — werden, in French — devenir, in Russian — становиться.

The task set before the linguist is to find out which semantic and syntactic features characterise 1. the English set of verbs (cf. grow thin, get angry, fall ill, turn traitor, run dry, wax eloquent), 2. the French (Russian, German, etc.) set of verbs, 3. how the two sets compare. Cf., e.g., the English word-groups grow thin, get angry, fall ill and the Russian verbs похудеть, рассердиться, заболеть.

Contrastive analysis can be carried out at three linguistic levels: phonology, grammar (morphology and syntax) and lexis (vocabulary). In what follows we shall try to give a brief survey of contrastive analysis mainly at the level of lexis.

Contrastive analysis is applied to reveal the features of sameness and difference in the lexical meaning and the semantic structure of correlated words in different languages.

It is commonly assumed by non-linguists that all languages have vocabulary systems in which the words themselves differ in sound-form but r e f e r to reality in the same way. From this assumption it follows that for every word in the mother tongue there is an exact equivalent in the foreign language. It is a belief which is reinforced by the small bilingual dictionaries where single word translations are often offered. Language learning however cannot be just a matter of learning to substitute a new set of labels for the familiar ones of the mother tongue.

 2. Statistical Analysis are presumed to be amply sufficient for the daily needs of an average member of the English speech community. Thus it is evident that the problem of selection of teaching vocabulary is of vital importance.

It is also evident that by far the most reliable single criterion is that of frequency as presumably the most useful items are those that occur most frequently in our language use. As far back as 1927, recognising the need for information on word frequency for sound teaching materials, Ed. L. Thorndike brought out a list of the 10,000 words occurring most frequently in a corpus of five million running words from forty-one different sources. In 1944 the extension was brought to 30,000 words.

Statistical techniques have been successfully applied in the analysis of various linguistic phenomena: different structural types of words, affixes, the vocabularies of great writers and poets and even in the study of some problems of historical lexicology.

Statistical regularities however can be observed only if the phenomena under analysis are sufficiently numerous and their occurrence very frequent. Thus the first requirement of any statistic investigation is the evaluation of the size of the sample necessary for the analysis.

To illustrate this statement we may consider the frequency of word occurrences.

It is common knowledge that a comparatively small group of words makes up the bulk of any text. It was found that approximately 1,300 —1,500 most frequent words make up 85% of all words occurring in the text. If, however, we analyse a sample of 60 words it is hard to predict the number of occurrences of most frequent words. As the sample is so small it may contain comparatively very few or very many of such words. The size of the sample sufficient for the reliable information as to the frequency of the items under analysis is determined by mathematical statistics by means of certain formulas. It goes without saying that to be useful in teaching statistics should deal with meanings as well as sound-forms as not all word-meanings are equally frequent. Besides, the number of meanings exceeds by far the number of words. The total number of different meanings recorded and illustrated in OED for the first 500 words of the Thorndike Word List is 14,070, for the first thousand it is nearly 25,000. Naturally not all the meanings should be included in the list of the first two thousand most commonly used words. Statistical analysis of meaning frequencies resulted

in the compilation of A General Service List of English Words with Semantic Frequencies. The semantic count is a count of the frequency of the occurrence of the various senses of 2,000 most frequent words as found in a study of five million running words.

Statistical methods have been also applied to various theoretical problems of meaning. An interesting attempt was made by G. K. Zipf to study the relation between polysemy and word frequency by statistical methods. Having discovered that there is a direct relationship between the number of different meanings of a word and its relative frequency of occurrence, Zipf proceeded to find a mathematical formula for this correlation. He came to the conclusion that different meanings of a word will tend to be equal to the square root of its relative frequency (with the possible exception of the few dozen most frequent words). This was summed up in the following formula where m stands for the number of meanings, F for relative frequency — tn — F

3. Immediate Constituents Analysis hierarchically arranged sets of binary constructions. For example in the word-group a black dress in severe style we do not relate a to black, black to dress, dress to in, etc. but set up a structure which may be represented as a black dress / in severe style. Thus the fundamental aim of IC analysis is to segment a set of lexical units into two maximally independent sequences or ICs thus revealing the hierarchical structure of this set. Successive segmentation results in Ultimate Constituents (UC), i.e. two-facet units that cannot be segmented into smaller units having both sound-form and meaning. The Ultimate Constituents of the word-group analysed above are: a | black | dress | in | severe | style. The meaning of the sentence, word-group, etc. and the IC binary segmentation are interdependent. For example, fat major’s wife may mean that either ‘the major is fat’ or ‘his wife is fat’. The former semantic interpretation presupposes the IC analysis into fat major’s | wife, whereas the latter reflects a different segmentation into IC’s and namely fat | major’s wife.

It must be admitted that this kind of analysis is arrived at by reference to intuition and it should be regarded as an attempt to formalise one’s semantic intuition.

It is mainly to discover the derivational structure of words that IC analysis is used in lexicological investigations. For example, the verb denationalise has both a prefix de- and a suffix -ise (-ize). To decide whether this word is a prefixal or a suffixal derivative we must apply IC analysis.

The binary segmentation of the string of morphemes making up the word shows that \*denation or \*denational cannot be considered independent sequences as there is no direct link between the prefix de- and nation or national. In fact no such sound-forms function as independent units in modern English. The only possible binary segmentation is de | nationalise, therefore we may conclude that the word is a prefixal derivative.

There are also numerous cases when identical morphemic structure of different words is insufficient proof of the identical pattern of their derivative structure which can be revealed only by IC analysis. Thus, comparing, e.g., snow-covered and blue-eyed we observe that both words contain two root-morphemes and one derivational morpheme. IC analysis, however, shows that whereas snow-covered may be treated as a compound consisting of two stems snow + covered, blue-eyed is a suffixal derivative as the underlying structure as shown by IC analysis is different, i.e. (blue+eye)+-ed.

It may be inferred from the examples discussed above that ICs represent the word-formation structure while the UCs show the morphemic structure of polymorphic words.

**LESSON PLAN 6**

Teacher’s name: Course type: Developing/ Review

Course name: Communicative Lexicology Room:

Date:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Вақт: 2 соат. **Length: 2 hours** | Талабаларсони:**Number of students**:  |
| Ўқувмашғулотинингшакливатури**Type of the lesson** Lecture  | **Дарс маърузаси:** **The theme of the lesson:** Methods of lexical research |
| Маърузарежасиўқувмашғулотинингтузилиши**Procedure/ Lesson outline** | 1. Methods of lexical research.2. Distributional Analysis.3. Transformational Analysis.4. Componental Analysis.5. Method of Semantic. |
| Ўқувмашғулотинингмақсади: **Lesson aims**: to give general information about Methods of lexical research, Distributional Analysis,Transformational Analysis,Componental Analysis, Method of Semantic. |
| Педагогиквазифалар:**Objectives: based on the topic** | Ўқувфаолиятинингнатижалари**Learning outcomes:**By the end of the lesson the Ls will be able…* to know the Methods of lexical research.
* to know the Distributional Analysis.
* to know the Transformational Analysis.
* to know theComponental Analysis.
* to know theMethod of Semantic.
 |
| Таълимусулллари**Task types** | Lecture, explanation, demonstration, brainstorming, instructions |
| Таълимшакли**Interaction patterns** |  Frontal, collective, whole class |
| Таълим воситалари **Materials used:** | Aids, blackboard, cluster, projector |
| Таълимберишшароити**Equipment/ aids used**: | Auditorium, projector, computer |
| Мониторингвабаҳолаш**Types of assessment** |  |

Ўқувмашғулотинингтехнологикхаритаси

**DETAILED PROCEDURE OF THE LESSON**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Ишбосқичларивавақти**Steps and duration** | Фаолият**Process**  |
| Таълим берувчи**Teacher**  | Таълим олувчилар**Listeners** |
| 1-босқич **Part I (±15mins)** | 1.1. greets and checks the attendance. presents the theme of the lesson, its aim, plan and expected results.1.2. gives the list of used literature as a source.1.3. explains the criteria of assessment.  | Listen, make notes, answer if a question is asked by the lecturer |
| 2-босқич**Part II (±55mins)** | 2.1. T. activates students’ knowledge by quiz and brainstorming to create the environment for the lecture.2.2. T. tells about the outline of the lesson and organization of the process of the lesson according to its structure. | Ls answer the questions, tell their opinions and write necessary points of the lecture.  |
| 3-босқич**Part III (±10mins)** | 3.1. T draws a conclusion of the lesson, explains the importance of the lecture3.2. T announces the marks, analyzes the degree of achieved results3.3. T. gives tasks for self-study and explains the assessment criteria | Ls listen attentively, ask their questions, write the tasks, self-assessment |

 4. Distributional Analysis

Distributional analysis in its various forms is commonly used nowadays by lexicologists of different schools of thought. By the term d i s t r i b u t i o n we understand the occurrence of a lexical unit relative to other lexical units of the same level (words relative to words / morphemes relative to morphemes, etc.). Co-occurrence words by this term we understand the position which lexical units occupy or may occupy in the text or in the flow of speech. It is readily observed that a certain component of the word-meaning is described when the word is identified distributionally. For example, in the sentence The boy — home the missing word is easily identified as a verb — The boy went, came, ran, etc. home. Thus, we see that the component of meaning that is distributionally identified is actually the part-of-speech meaning but not the individual lexical meaning of the word under analysis. It is assumed that sameness / difference in distribution is indicative of sameness / difference in part-of-speech meaning. It is also observed that in a number of cases words have different lexical meanings in different distributional patterns. Compare, e.g., the lexical meaning of the verb to treat in the following: to treat somebody well, kindly, etc. — ‘to act or behave towards’ where the verb is followed by a noun + an adverb and to treat somebody to ice-cream, champagne, etc. — ‘to supply with food, drink, entertainment, etc. at one’s own expence’ where the verb is followed by a noun+the preposition to + another noun. Compare also the meaning of the adjective ill in different distributional structures, e.g. ill look, ill luck, ill health, etc. (ill+N — ‘bad’) and fall ill, be ill, etc. (V+ill — ’sick’). The interdependence of distribution and meaning can be also observed at the level of word-groups. It is only the distribution of otherwise completely identical lexical units that accounts for the difference in the meaning of water tap and tap water. Thus, as far as words are concerned the meaning by distribution may be defined as an abstraction on the syntagmatic level.

It should also be noted that not only words in word-groups but also whole word-groups may acquire a certain denotational meaning due to certain distributional pattern to which this particular meaning is habitually attached. For example, habitually the word preceding ago denotes a certain period of time (an hour, a month, a century, etc. ago) and the whole word-

group denotes a certain temporal unit. In this particular distributional pattern any word is bound to acquire an additional lexical meaning of a certain period of time, e.g. a grief ago (E. Cummings), three cigarettes ago (A. Christie), etc. The words a grief and a cigarette are understood as indicating a certain period of time and the word-groups as denoting temporal units. This is also true of the meaning of the most unusual word-groups or sentences, e.g. griefs of joy (E. Cummings) (cf. days of joy, nights of grief, etc.), to deify one’s razorblade (E. Cummings) (cf. to sharpen the knife).

Distributional pattern as such seems to possess a component of meaning not to be found in individual words making up the word-group or the sentence. Thus, the meaning ‘make somebody do smth by means of something’ cannot be traced back to the lexical meanings of the individual words in ‘to coax somebody into accepting the suggestion’. The distributional pattern itself seems to impart this meaning to the whole irrespective of the meaning of the verb used in this structure, i.e. in the pattern V+N+into+V ing verbs of widely different lexical meaning may be used.

Distribution of stems in a compound makes part of the lexical meaning of the compound word. Compare, e. g., different lexical meanings of the words formed by the same stems bird and cage in bird-cage and cage-bird. It is also assumed that productivity largely depends on the distributional meaning of the lexical units. Distributional meaning of the lexical units accounts for the possibility of making up and understanding a lexical item that has never been heard or used before but whose distributional pattern is familiar to the speaker and the hearer. Thus, though such words as kissable, hypermagical, smiler (She is a charming smiler), etc. cannot be found in any dictionary their meaning is easily understood on the analogy with other words having the same distributional pattern, e. g- (v + -able- -> A as in readable, eatable and kissable).

 5. Transformational Analysis but also in the analysis of the factors that account for their polysemy. For example, if we compare two compound words dogfight and dog-cart, we shall see that the distributional pattern of stems is identical and may be represented as n+n. The meaning of these words broadly speaking is also similar as the first of the stems modifies, describes, the second and we understand these compounds as ‘a kind of fight’ and ‘a kind of cart’ respectively. The semantic relationship between the stems, however, is different and hence the lexical meaning of the words is also different. This can be shown by means of a transformational procedure which shows that a dogfight is semantically equivalent to ‘a fight between dogs’, whereas a dogcart is not ‘a cart between dogs’ but ‘a cart drawn by dogs’.

Word-groups of identical distributional structure when re-patterned also show that the semantic relationship between words and consequently the meaning of word-groups may be different. For example, in the word-groups consisting of a possessive pronoun followed by a noun, e.g. his car, his failure, his arrest, his goodness, etc., the relationship between his and the following nouns is in each instant different which can be demonstrated by means of transformational procedures. his car (pen, table, etc.) may be re-patterned into he has a car (a pen, a table, etc.) or in a more generalised form may be represented as A possesses B. his failure (mistake, attempt, etc.) may be represented as he failed (was mistaken, attempted) or A performs В which is impossible in the case of his car (pen, table, etc.). his arrest (imprisonment, embarrassment, etc.) may be re-patterned into he was arrested (imprisoned and embarrassed, etc.) or A is the goal of the action B. his goodness (kindness, modesty, etc.) may be represented as he is good (kind, modest, etc.) or В is the quality of A. It can also be inferred from the above that two phrases which are transforms of each other (e.g. his car -> he has a car; his kindness -> he is kind, etc.are correlated in meaning as well as in form.

Regular correspondence and interdependence of different patterns is viewed as a criterion of different or same meaning. When the direction of. conversion was discussed it was pointed out that transformational procedure may be used as one of the criteria enabling us to decide which of the two words in a conversion pair is the derived member.

Transformational analysis may also be described as a kind of translation. If we understand by translation transference of a message by different means, we may assume that there exist at least three types of translation:

1. i n t e r l i n g u a l translation or translation from

2. i n t e r s e m i o t i c translation or transference of a message from one kind of semiotic system to another. For example, we know that a verbal message may be transmitted into a flag message by hoisting up the proper flags in the right sequence, and at last

 3. i n t r a l i n g u a l translation which consists essentially in rewording a message within the same language — a kind of paraphrasing. Thus, e.g., the same message may be

transmitted by the following his work is excellent -> his excellent work -> the excellence of his work.

 6. Componental Analysis

The analysis of the word girl would also yield the sememes ‘human’and ‘female’, but instead of the sememe ‘adult’ we shall find the sememe ‘young’ distinguishing the meaning of the word woman from that of girl. The comparison of the results of the componental analysis of the words boy and girl would also show the difference just in one component, i..e. the sememe denoting ‘male’ and ‘female’ respectively. It should be pointed out that componental analysis deals with individual meanings. Different meanings of polysemantic words have different componental structure. For example, the comparison of two meanings of the noun boy (1. a male child up to the age of 17 or 18 and 2. a male servant (any age) esp. in African and Asian countries) reveals that though both of them contain the semantic components ‘human’ and ‘male’ the component ‘young’ which is part of one meaning is not to be found in the other. As a rule when we discuss the analysis of word-meaning we imply the basic meaning of the word under consideration. In its classical form componental analysis was applied to the so-called c l o s e d subsystems of vocabulary, mostly only to kinship and colour terms. The analysis as a rule was formalised only as far as the symbolic representation of meaning components is concerned. Thus, e.g. in the analysis of kinship terms, the component denoting sex may be represented by A — male, A — female, В may stand for one generation above ego, В — for the generation below ego, С — for direct lineality, С — for indirect lineality, etc. Accordingly the clusters of symbols ABC and ABC represent the semantic components of the word mother, and father respectively.

In its more elaborate form componental analysis also proceeds from the assumption that word-meaning is not an unanalysable whole but can be decomposed into elementary semantic components. It is assumed, however, that these basic semantic elements which might be called semantic features can be classified into several subtypes thus ultimately constituting a highly structured system. In other words it is assumed that any item can be described in terms of categories arranged in a hierarchical way; that is a subsequent category is a subcategory of the previous category.

The most inclusive categories are parts of speech — the major word classes are nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs. All members of a major class share a distinguishing semantic feature and involve a certain type of semantic information. More revealing names for such features might be “thingness” or “substantiality” for nouns, “quality” for adjectives, and so on. All other semantic features may be classified into semantic m a r k e r s — semantic features which are present also in the lexical meaning of other words and d i s t i n g u i s h e r s — semantic features which are individual, i.e. which do not recur in the lexical meaning of other 255 words. Thus, the distinction between markers and distinguishers is that markers refer to features which the item has in common with other items, distinguishers refer to what differentiates an item from other items. The componental analysis of the word, e.g., spinster runs: noun, count-noun, human, adult, female, who has never married. Noun of course is the part of speech, meaning the most inclusive category; count-noun is a marker, it represents a subclass within nouns and refers to the semantic feature which the word spinster has in common with all other countable nouns (boy, table, flower, idea, etc.) but which distinguishes it from all uncountable nouns, e.g. salt, bread, water, etc; human is also a marker which refers the word spinster to a subcategory of countable nouns, i.e. to nouns denoting human beings; adult is another marker pointing at a specific subdivision of human beings into adults & young or not grown up. The word spinster possesses still another marker — female — which it shares with such words as woman, widow, mother, etc., and which represents a subclass of adult females. At last comes the distinguisher who has never married which differentiates the meaning of the word from other words which have all other common semantic features. Thus, the componental analysis may be represented as a hierarchical structure with several subcategories each of which stands in relation of subordination to the preceding subclass of semantic features.

 7. Method of Semantic

Differential The responses of the subjects produce a semantic profile representing the emotive charge of the word. The degree of agreement between the answers is treated as a significant and reliable factor. It may be argued that the data with which they deal in these investigations are essentially subjective. Objectivity, however, concerns the role of the observer. In other words, each person records his own, entirely subjective reactions, but by the time the analysis has been completed the result will represent a kind of semantic average reached by purely objective statistical methods.

Some conclusions of considerable interest may be drawn from these experiments.

1. It was found that synesthesia or transfer across sensory modalities is apparently a common occurrence. For example, terms, such as “dark — heavy”, “slow — low” tend to be grouped together by a vast majority of subjects and likewise terms such as “bright — light”, “quick — sharp". Synesthesia is also commonly observed in regard to colour responses to music, when, e.g., the hearing of a certain sound induces the visualisation of a certain colour. As a result physical sensations are felt as connected with psychological phenomena.

It seems clear from their studies that imagery found in synesthesia is intimately tied up with language metaphor and that both represent semantic relations. In fact words like warm, cold, heavy, light, bright, dull are universally applied to psychological qualities of temperament or intellect, e.g. to the quality of a voice as well as to sensations. Practically everyone speaks of warmth in a voice, narrowness of mind and smoothness of manners. Logically it would seem that thermal cold in the skin has nothing to do with coldness heard in a voice or seen in a face. All languages, however, have words that designate physical-psychological pairings. This does not imply that the pairings are identical in all languages. A word denoting a given physical property may develop psychological meanings that are peculiar to this or that language. There is, however, an undeniable kinship in the range of meanings. All seem to involve hightened activity and emotional arousal. No case was discovered in which the word with the denotational meaning ‘hot’ named a remote, calm manner.

2. The comparison of responses by native speakers of different languages to denotationally “equivalent” words revealed that they have different semantic profiles. It follows that learners of a foreign language can hardly expect that words will have the same connotation for them as they do for native speakers. This naturally concerns first of all the emotive charge of the lexical units. Thus, e.g., it was found that the word rain tends to be described as rather happy by all the subjects of the Southwest Indian groups. The same word was described as rather sad by the overwhelming majority of English subjects. The new technique, however, has not been properly developed or extended to an adequate sample of vocabulary and consequently is of little use in lexicological analysis.

1.Acquaintance with the currently used procedures of linguistic investigation shows that contrastive analysis and statistical analysis are widely used in the preparation of teaching material and are of primary importance for teachers of English.

2. The selection of this or that particular procedure largely depends on the goal set before the investigator. The Immediate Constituent analysis is mainly applied to find out the derivational structure of lexical units. The distributional and the transformational procedures are of help in the investigation of sameness / difference of meaning of words and word-groups and also in the analysis of word-formation. Componental analysis brings to light the set of sememes which make up the denotational meaning of lexical units. Componental analysis may be combined with transformational procedures and also with the distributional and co-occurrence analysis.

3. The method of semantic differential is regarded as an interesting attempt to get a better insight into the problem of the connotational meaning.

This method, however, has not been as yet properly elaborated and therefore is scarcely ever used in applied lexicology.

**Lexical terms**

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Active listening. Process of analyzing and evaluating what another person is saying in an effort to understand the speaker's feelings or the true meaning of the message.

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**МОДУЛНИ ЎҚИТИШДА ФОЙДАЛАНИЛАДИГАН**

**ИНТЕРФАОЛ ТАЪЛИМ МЕТОДЛАРИ**

### “Инглиз тили амалий курси: коммуникатив лексика”модулини ўқитиш жараёнида фойдаланиш учун тавсия этиладиган илғор таълим технологиялари

#### BRAINSTORMING

**What:** Brainstorming, a useful tool to develop creative solutions to a problem, is a lateral thinking process by which students are asked to develop ideas or thoughts that may seem crazy or shocking at first. Participants can then change and improve them into original and useful ideas. Brainstorming can help define an issue, diagnose a problem, or possible solutions and resistance to proposed solutions.

**How:**Define the problem clearly lay out any criteria to be met. Keep the session focused on the problem, but be sure that no one criticizes or evaluates ideas during the session, even if they are clearly impractical. Criticism dampens creativity in the initial stages of a brainstorming session. Ideas should be listed, rather than developed deeply on the spot; the idea is to generate possibilities. Accordingly, participants should be encouraged to pick up on ideas offered to create new ones. One person should be appointed as note-taker, and ideas should be studied and evaluated after the session.

### OPPOSITES



Showing a word’s antonym or opposite is a sure-fire way to teach its meaning without a word of explanation. Suppose your student doesn’t know the word “least.” Just jot down something like this on the whiteboard:

**Least  <——–> Most**

Alternatively, you could use hand gestures: Spread out your arms for “most” and bring them in for “least.” Hand gestures are also good for opposites like “fast/slow,” “cheap/expensive” and “big/small.”

And, speaking of opposites, what’s the opposite of an answer? That’s right, a question! Introduce question structures by showing the question’s answer. For example:

**Q:***\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_?*

**A:** *I work for a securities firm.*

#### STORYBOARDING

**What:** Story-boarding can be compared to spreading students’ thoughts out on a wall as they work on a project or solve a problem. Story boards can help with planning, ideas, communications and organization.

**Benefits:** This method allows students to see the interconnections, how one idea relates to another, and how pieces come together. Once the ideas flow, students become immersed in the problem and hitch-hike other ideas.

**How:** Use a cork board or similar surface to pin up index cards or use Post-it notes on a whiteboard. Begin with a set of topic cards, and under each place header cards for general points, categories, etc. Under these, place sub-heading cards that will be contain ideas and details generated that support the headers.

During a story board session, consider all ideas relevant, no matter how impractical they appear.

#### [QUESTIONING ACTIVITY](http://www.creativityatwork.com/2007/01/01/teaching-for-creativity-asking-questions/)

**What:** In this exercise in questioning, students create a list of 100 questions. There are no directions regarding what questions to ask and no judgments or criticism of questions.

**Benefits:**Students will ask a wide range of questions, increasing student productivity and motivation. As students focus on what they want to discover and generate their own questions, they pursue answers without prodding. Questions can be general or based on a particular topic or reading; instructors can give several examples from their own lists.

#### PICTURES



Pictures are great for presenting many nouns, adjectives and simple sentence patterns. If you are using a textbook in class, make use of the pictures in it; they are sometimes very simple and effective. With younger students, solicit words by asking “What do you see?” Be sure to call on many students and meet all of their suggestions with positive feedback. With older students, you can have them predict what a chapter will be about based on the pictures from the opening page.

But what if your textbook doesn’t have any good pictures? Or if you’re not using a textbook?

In those cases, try using realia, such as pictures from newspapers or magazines. (We’ll touch a little more on realia later in the post.) If your school has them, flashcards or picture dictionaries also work well for teaching nouns, adjectives and verbs across a wide range of themes.

Here are a few ideas of how to incorporate pictures into your teaching:

**Use personal pictures:** Whenever possible, use pictures of yourself or photos around town/school (that students would recognize) in PowerPoints or games. This will make it much more interesting and memorable for the students, so words will stick that much easier.

**Include celebrities for interest:** Likewise, if you use pictures of a well-known celebrity (whether local or global) in activities, presentations or games, students will perk up and you’ll have captured their attention more than before.

**Draw stick figures:**When all else fails, or you need a quick solution, use the simple drawing or stick figure. Stick figures take only a second to draw, can be used to teach just about anything, and are guaranteed to get a chuckle (or at least mine are).

### GAP FILLS



Like opposites, gap fills help you introduce or reinforce grammar by accessing the knowledge your students already have. They’re perfect for things like pronouns, prepositions and articles. Let’s say your lesson today is about “in,” “on” and “at.”

Having three sentences on the board like the following is all you’ll need to make their meaning clear:

Mary always goes to the beach \_\_\_ the summer.

Richard has a meeting with his boss \_\_\_ October 7. They’re meeting \_\_\_ 2:30 p.m.

If you wish, you could expand on this by creating a chart (like in #3) with “in,” “on” and “at” at the top. Then you can have your students come up with time expressions that go under each category. It’s interactive, easy and reinforces what you made clear via the gap fills.

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