

**НЕКОММЕРЧЕСКОЕ ОБРАЗОВАТЕЛЬНОЕ УЧРЕЖДЕНИЕ  
УЧЕБНО-НАУЧНО-ПРОИЗВОДСТВЕННЫЙ КОМПЛЕКС  
«МЕЖДУНАРОДНЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ КЫРГЫЗСТАНА»**

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\_\_\_\_\_ 2020 г.

**УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЙ КОМПЛЕКС**

Название дисциплины: Лексикология изучаемого языка

Название и код направления подготовки: «531000» Филология

Квалификация выпускника: Бакалавр

Форма обучения: Очная

Составитель (и): к.ф.н. доц. Ибраимова Г.О.

**График проведения модулей**

**5-семестр**

Недели	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Лекц. зан.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Прак.зан.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
								M1								M2

**6- семестр**

Недели	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Лек. Зан.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Прак. Зан.	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
								M1								M2

«РАССМОТРЕНО»

На заседании кафедры

«Филология»

НОУ УНПК «МУК»

Протокол № \_\_\_\_\_

от « \_\_\_\_\_ » \_\_\_\_\_ 20 \_\_\_\_\_ г.

Зав. каф. «Филология»

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Протокол № 5

от «15» октябре 2020 г.

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Бишкек 2020

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# **РАБОЧАЯ ПРОГРАММА ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ**

## **АННОТАЦИЯ**

В соответствии с рабочим планом дисциплина «Лексикология» изучается на 3 году обучения. Общая трудоемкость освоения составляет 5 кредита. Рабочая программа составлена в соответствии с Государственным образовательным стандартом высшего профессионального образования второго поколения и входит в перечень дисциплин базовой части профессионального цикла учебного плана по направлению подготовки по специальности 531100 –Лингвистика специализация: перевод переводоведение.

Программа и планы практических занятий включают как отечественные, так и зарубежные теоретические и практические достижения в области лингвистики и языкознания в целом и применительно к изучаемому языку. Содержание каждой темы может варьироваться в определенных пределах в зависимости от практического опыта обучающихся, качества их базовой подготовки, проявляемого интереса к тем или иным проблемам в связи с профессиональными интересами и выполняемыми должностными обязанностями, в связи со всеми изменениями, происходящими в лингвистике.

## **УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЙ КОМПЛЕКС ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ (МОДУЛЕЙ)**

### **1. Пояснительная записка**

Объектом лексикологии как науки является слово и словарный запас языка. Основное внимание в лексикологии уделяется на основные факторы и закономерности развития слов и фразеологизмов, рассмотрение основных способов, средств и устройств пополнения словарного запаса.

Курс пытается установить связь между теорией лексикологии и реальностью живой речи, с одной стороны, и процессом изучения языка и преподавания языка, с другой стороны, никогда не упуская из виду тот факт, что большинство предполагаемых читателей являются преподавателями и студентами.

С целью активизации самостоятельной работы студентов и проверки их знаний, умений и навыков по практическому курсу первого иностранного языка в каждом семестре проводится защита учебных работ и итоговый рейтинговый контроль в форме экзамена.

#### **1.1. Миссия и Стратегия**

Миссия: «Подготовка международно - признанных, свободно мыслящих специалистов, открытых для перемен и способных трансформировать знания в ценности на благо развития общества»

Стратегия развития НОУ УНПК «МУК» - создание динамичного и креативного университета с инновационными научно-образовательными программами и с современной инфраструктурой, способствующие достижению академических и профессиональных целей.

#### **1.2. Цели и задачи дисциплины**

Целями освоения дисциплины " Лексикология" на 3 курсе являются описание словарного состава современного английского языка в теоретически обобщенном и систематизированном виде.

**Основными задачами** курса являются:

- ознакомление студентов с теоретическими основами предмета, существующими трактовками основных проблем в сфере словарного состава, с методами лингвистического анализа, используемыми в лексикологии;
- развитие критического
- осмысления существующих теорий на основе использования общих принципов лингвистики, что является необходимым компонентом подготовки к будущей самостоятельной рабочей деятельности молодого специалиста;

Лексикология английского языка принадлежит к кругу дисциплин, основной целью которых является описание либо языкового строя в целом, либо отдельных его уровней в свете современных концепций науки о языке.

Цель и задачи курса определяют следующие требования к знаниям и умениям студентов:

- иметь понятие о структуре и тематике курса
- знать методы и приемы работы со словарным составом языка,
- знать значение терминов, употребляемых в различных теориях
- уметь работать со словарями различных типов

### **1.3 Формируемые компетенции, а также перечень планируемых результатов обучения по дисциплине (модулю) (знания, умения владения), сформулированные в компетентностном формате.**

Дисциплина «Лексикология» направлена на формирование следующих компетенций:

- ОК-3 приобретает новые знания с большой степенью самостоятельности, используя современные и информационные технологии.
- ОК-5 анализирует и оценивает социально-экономические и культурные последствия новых явлений в науке, технике и технологии, профессиональной сфере.
- ОК-6 способен на научной основе оценивать свой труд, анализировать с большой степенью самостоятельности результаты своей деятельности .

#### ***инструментальными (ИК) (код и содержание):***

- ИК-1 способен к восприятию, обобщению и анализу информации, постановке цели и выбору путей их достижения.
- ИК-5 владеет основными методами, способами и средствами получения, хранения и переработки информации, навыками работы с компьютером как средством управления информацией, в том числе в глобальных компьютерных сетях и корпоративных информационных системах.

#### ***социально-личностными и общекультурными (СЛК):***

- СЛК-1 готов к социальному взаимодействию на основе принятых в обществе моральных и правовых норм, проявляет уважение к людям, толерантность к другой культуре, готовность к поддержанию партнерских отношений.

- СЛК-2 умеет критически оценивать свои достоинства и недостатки, намечает пути и выбирает средства развития достоинств и устранения недостатков

***профессиональными (ПК) (код и содержание):***

- ПК-1 владеет системой лингвистических знаний, включающей в себя знание основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлений и закономерностей функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностей.
- ПК-4 владеет методикой предпереводческого анализа текста, способствующей точному восприятию исходного высказывания.
- ПК-5 владеет методикой подготовки к выполнению перевода, включая поиск информации в справочной, специальной литературе и компьютерных сетях.
- ПК-6 знает основные способы достижения эквивалентности в переводе и умеет применять основные приемы перевода.
- ПК-7 осуществляет письменный перевод с соблюдением норм лексической эквивалентности, соблюдением грамматических, синтаксических и стилистических норм.
- ПК-9 умеет реферировать и аннотировать письменные тексты.
- ПК-10 умеет быстро переключается с одного рабочего языка на другой.
- ПК-18 умеет работать с основными информационно-поисковыми и экспертными системами, системами представления знаний, синтаксического и морфологического анализа, автоматического синтеза и распознавания речи, обработки лексикографической информации и автоматизированного перевода, автоматизированными системами идентификации и верификации личности .
- ПК-20 владеет стандартными способами решения основных типов задач в области лингвистического обеспечения информационных и других прикладных систем.
- ПК-21 умеет работать с электронными словарями и другими электронными ресурсами для решения лингвистических задач.

**В результате освоения дисциплины выпускник должен:**

**Знать:**

- основные способы достижения эквивалентности в переводе и применять основные приемы перевода (ПК-6);

**Уметь:**

- производить морфологический анализ слова, вычленять семы в структуре значения слова, группировать слова по сходству значения и по сходству формы.
- быстро переключается с одного рабочего языка на другой (ПК-10);

**Владеть:**

- целостной системой научных знаний об окружающем мире, способен ориентироваться в ценностях жизни, культуры (ОК-1);
- системой лингвистических знаний, включающей в себя знание основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлений и закономерностей функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностей (ПК-1);
- основными способами выражения семантической, коммуникативной и структурной преемственности между частями высказывания - композиционными элементами текста (введение, основная часть, заключение), сверхфразовыми единствами, предложениями (ПК-2);
- методикой предпереводческого анализа текста, способствующей точному восприятию исходного высказывания (ПК-4);

#### **1.4. Место дисциплины в структуре основной и образовательной программы**

Дисциплина «Лексикология» представляет собой дисциплину профессионального цикла вариативной части бакалавриатской программы «Перевод и переводоведение». Профессиональный цикл. Базовая дисциплина государственного образовательного стандарта высшего профессионального образования по направлению 531100 Лингвистика, занимает ведущее место, являясь одной из профилирующих фундаментальных дисциплин по подготовке бакалавров.

Дисциплина базируется на таких вузовских дисциплинах профессионального цикла, как «Практический курс первого иностранного языка», «Практический курс второго иностранного языка», «Практикум по культуре речевого общения первого иностранного языка», «Практикум по культуре речевого общения второго иностранного языка», «Теорию перевода», «Практический курс перевода первого иностранного языка», «Практический курс перевода второго иностранного языка», «Введение в теорию межкультурной коммуникации», которые читаются на 1-4 курсах бакалавриата.

## **2. Структура дисциплины (модулей)**

### ***Структура дисциплины для очной формы обучения***

Изучение курса «Лексикология» предусматривает 2 кредита в 5 семестре, 3 кредита в 6 семестре (общ. 150 часов), соответствующий к общим целям ГОС ВПО.

Распределение трудоемкости дисциплины по видам учебной работы:

Общая трудоемкость дисциплины – 60 ч за 5 семестр и 90 за 6 семестр.

Аудиторные занятия – 32 ч за 5 семестр и 48 за 6 семестр

Лекции-16 за 5 семестр и 24 за 6 семестр

Семинарские -16 и 24 за 6 семестр

СРСП - 9 ч за 5 семестр и 14 за 6 семестр

СРС – 19 ч за 5 семестр и 28 за 6 семестр

в том числе: самостоятельное изучение отдельных тем модулей, подготовка к промежуточной аттестации и рубежному контролю – экзамену.

№ п/п	Раздел, Темы Дисциплины	Семестр	Неделя семестра	Виды учебной работы, включая самостоятельную работу студентов и трудоёмкость (в часах)				Формы текущего контроля успеваемости (по неделям семестра) Форма промежуточной аттестации (по семестрам)
				Лекц ии	Сем.з ан.	СРС	СРС П	
1	The object of Lexicology	5	1,2	2	2	1	-	Asking questions , doing exercises
2	The Historical Survey of the English Vocabulary	5	3,4	2	2	1	1	Asking questions, doing exercises
3	Borrowings	5	5,6	2	2	4	1	Asking questions, doing exercises
4	General Characteristics of the Word formation in English	5	7,8	2	2	2		Asking questions, doing exercises
	<b>Модуль №1</b> <b>Письменная работа</b> <b>(Тест)</b>					1	1	
5	Affixation in English Phraseology	5	9,10	2	2	2	1	Asking questions, doing exercises
6	Word Composition	5	11, 12	2	2	2	1	Asking questions, doing exercises
7	Conversion	5	13, 14	2	2	2	1	Asking questions, doing exercises
	<b>Модуль №2</b> <b>Письменная работа</b> <b>(Тест)</b>					2	1	
8	Shortening	5	15, 16	2	2	2	1	Asking questions, doing exercises
	<b>Экзамен</b>		<b>16</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>9</b>	
9	Blending, Sound Imitation	6	17, 18, 19	1	2	2	2	Asking questions, doing exercises
10	Sound and Stress interchange	6	20, 21, 22	1	2	2	2	Asking questions, doing exercises
11	<i>Back formation</i>	6	23, 24, 25,	1	2	2	2	Asking questions, doing exercises
12	Semasiology	6	26, 27	1	2	4	2	Asking questions, doing exercises

	<b>Модуль №1</b> <b>Письменная работа</b> <b>(Тест)</b>		28,	1			2	
13	<i>Change of meaning</i>	6	29, 30, 31	1	2	2		Asking questions, doing exercises
14	Polysemy, Homonym ,Synonym, Antonym	6	32, 33,	1	2			Asking questions, doing exercises
15	Phraseology	6	34, 35,, 36	1	2		2	Asking questions, doing exercises
	<b>Модуль №2</b> <b>Письменная работа</b> <b>(Тест)</b>		37				2	
16	Lexicography	6	38, 39, 40	1	2			Asking questions, doing exercises
	<b>Итого</b>		<b>32</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>14</b>	

**3. Содержание дисциплины.** Содержание дисциплины состоит из разделов, соответствующих структуре дисциплины, подразделов и отдельных тем с той степенью подробности, которая, по мнению преподавателя-составителя, оптимально способствуют достижению цели и реализации поставленных задач.

	<b>Themes for study</b>	
1	The object of Lexicology	The term «lexicology» is of Greek origin / from «lexis» - «word» and «logos» - «science»/ . Lexicology is the part of linguistics, which deals with the vocabulary and characteristic features of words and word-groups. The term «vocabulary» is used to denote the system of words and word-groups that the language possesses.
2	The historical survey of the English Vocabulary	Three main periods. They are: Old English, Middle English and New English or Modern English.
3	Borrowings	Borrowing words from other languages has always been one of the important means of replenishing of the English vocabulary. There are many words in English that are of foreign origin. The language from which the loan word was taken into English is called the source of borrowing.
4	General Characteristics of the Word formation in English	The main unit of the lexical system of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning is a word. This unit is used in grammatical functions



		characteristic of it. It is the smallest language unit which can stand alone as a complete utterance.
5	Affixation in English Phraseology	Affixation is one of the most productive ways of word-building throughout the history of English. It consists in adding an affix to the stem of a definite part of speech. Affixation is divided into suffixation and prefixation.
6	Word composition	Word Composition is the way of wordbuilding when a word is formed by joining two or more stems to form one word.
7	Conversion	Conversion is a characteristic feature of the English word-building system. It is also called affixless derivation or zero-suffixation. The term «conversion» first appeared in the book by Henry Sweet «New English Grammar» in 1891.
8	Shortening	In the process of communication, words and word-groups can be shortened. The causes of shortening can be linguistic and extra-linguistic.
9	Blending, Sound imitation	Blending is the process of combining parts of two words to form one word. It refers to joining the beginning of one word and the end of another to make a new word with a new meaning. Sound imitation is formation of words from sounds that resemble those associated with the object or action to be named or that seem suggestive of its qualities.
10	Sound and stress interchange	Sound interchange is the way of word building when some sounds are changed to form a new word. It is non-productive in Modern English; it was productive in Old English and can be met in other Indo-European languages.
11	Back formation	It is the way of word-building when a word is formed by dropping the final morpheme to form a new word. It is opposite to suffixation that is why it is called back formation.
12	Semasiology	The part of Lexicology, which studies the meaning, and the development of meaning of words is called <b>Semasiology</b> . There are different approaches to the problem of word meaning in modern Semasiology: the referential or denotational approach; functional or contextual approach; and the new cognitive approach.
13	Change of meaning	The meaning of a word can change in the course of time. Changes of lexical meanings can be proved by comparing contexts of different times. Transfer of the meaning is called lexico-semantic word-

		building. In such cases the outer aspect of a word does not change.
14	Polysemy Homonym ,Synonym, Antonym	The word « <b>polysemy</b> » means «plurality of meanings» it exists only in the language, not in speech. A word which has more than one meaning is called polysemantic.
15	Phraseology	The vocabulary of a language is enriched not only by words but also by phraseological units. Phraseological units are word-groups that cannot be made in the process of speech, they exist in the language as ready-made units. They are compiled in special dictionaries.
16	Lexicography	The theory and practice of compiling dictionaries is called lexicography. The history of compiling dictionaries for English comes as far back as the Old English period, where we can find glosses of religious books / interlinear translations from Latin into English..

#### 4. Краткий конспект лекций.

##### Lecture 1. The object of Lexicology

The term «lexicology» is of Greek origin / from «lexis» - «word» and «logos» - «science»/ . Lexicology is the part of linguistics, which deals with the vocabulary and characteristic features of words and word-groups.

The term «vocabulary» is used to denote the system of words and word-groups that the language possesses.

The term «word» denotes the main lexical unit of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning. This unit is used in grammatical functions characteristic of it. It is the smallest unit of a language, which can stand alone as a complete utterance.

The term «word-group» denotes a group of words which exists in the language as a ready-made unit, has the unity of meaning, the unity of syntactical function, e.g. the word-group «as loose as a goose» means «clumsy» and is used in a sentence as a predicative / He is as loose as a goose/. Lexicology can study the development of the vocabulary, the origin of words and word-groups, their semantic relations and the development of their sound form and meaning. In this case it is called historical lexicology.

Another branch of lexicology is called descriptive and studies the vocabulary at a definite stage of its development.

##### Lecture 2. The Historical Survey of the English Vocabulary

We divide the history of the English language into **three** main periods. They are: Old English, Middle English and New English or Modern English.

1. **OLD ENGLISH** covers the period from the fifth (5<sup>th</sup>) century to the end of the eleventh (11<sup>th</sup>) century.
2. **MIDDLE ENGLISH** lasts from the twelfth (12<sup>th</sup>) to the fifteenth (15<sup>th</sup>) century.
3. **NEW ENGLISH**, which means the English of the last six centuries to nowadays.

During the *Old English* period, most additions to the English vocabulary were based on native English words. Old words were given new meanings. New words were formed by the addition of prefixes or suffixes, or by compounding. Latin was the most influential of foreign languages. The Scandinavians also influenced the language of English during the Old English period.

The *Middle English* period was marked by a great extension of foreign influence on English. The Norman Conquest in 1066 brought England under French rule. The English language was for a time of secondary importance. *French* became the language of the upper classes in England. Many English words were borrowed from *French*. The French language they spoke is now called *Anglo-French*. The lower classes continued to speak *English*.

*Modern English* (or New English) has been a period of wider borrowing. English derives much of its learned vocabulary from *Latin* and *Greek*. English has also borrowed words from nearly all the languages of *Europe*. From the period of *Renaissance* up to the present, many new words have come into the language to match the new objects and experiences.

## 2. The Anglo-Saxon invasion and its influence on the development of the English language.

In the 5th century British Isles were attacked by the Germanic tribes from the Continent. The **Jutes**, the **Saxons** and the **Angles** began to **migrate** to Britain. It took more than a hundred and fifty years for them to conquer the country.

When the Anglo-Saxon tribes came to Britain they brought their dialects. They now refer to as Old English. They formed the foundation for the complete development of Modern English. The Anglo-Saxon element is still at the core of the language.

For example: go, food, sheep, sun, north, man, long, and so on.

But a number of Anglo-Saxon words were lost. For instance, names of weapons no longer used, garments no longer worn, customs no longer practised, etc.

## 3. The Norman Conquest of England and the Norman-French element in the English vocabulary

The conquest of England by the *Normans* began in 1066 with the battle at Hastings. The English fought against the Normans. The conquest was completed in 1071.

What did the Norman Conquest *do* to England? It gave England *French kings* and *nobles*. The Normans also brought with them the *French language*. After the Norman Conquest there were *three* languages in England. There was *Latin*, the language of Church and all learned men, and the kings.

Then there was *French*, the language of the kings and nobles who spoke and wrote it.

Finally, there was the *English language*, the language of the masses. Some men knew all three languages, many knew two. But most of the people knew only one. The poor people, the peasants, understood only English.

## Lecture 3. Borrowings

Borrowing words from other languages has always been one of the important means of replenishing of the English vocabulary. There are many words in English that are of foreign

origin. The language from which the loan word was taken into English is called the source of borrowing. The original language to which the word may be traced is called the origin of borrowing, e.g. the word “infantry” (пехота) has French as its source of borrowing and Italian is its origin. In etymological dictionaries the source comes first.

Main groups of loan words in English are represented by borrowings from Latin, Scandinavian and French. Though, a lot of other languages (Celtic, Greek, Russian, Italian, Spanish, Arabic) also contributed to the development of the English vocabulary. The history of the vocabulary of a language is closely related to the history of the people speaking the language.

### **Latin Borrowings**

Latin borrowings are numerous in English. They constitute about  $\frac{1}{4}$  of the English vocabulary as to historical period of their adoption. Latin borrowings may be divided into 3 groups:

1. ancient borrowings which goes back as far as the 1<sup>st</sup> century B.C. when the Anglo-Saxon tribes were still on the continent and came into contact with the Romans through trade. The Latin borrowings of this period are: dish, cup, butter, cheese, wine, cherry, plum, hare, spices, pepper and kitchen.
2. Borrowings which came to Britain in the 6<sup>th</sup>-7<sup>th</sup> centuries when Christianity was introduced: abbot, alter, angel, bishop, saint, candle, monk, nun, pope, Christ, school.
3. Words borrowed during the revival of Classical learning and art – the Renaissance in the 14<sup>th</sup> century and since then the invasion of classical terms has never stopped. Many of them are distinctly learned words: senior, major, minor, junior, accept, educate, basis, area, idea, aggravate. Most of them are only partially assimilated but Latin borrowings of the first two periods are completely assimilated borrowings which belong to the basic word stock now.

### **Scandinavian Borrowings**

Scandinavian borrowings in English amount to over 650 words which denote most common objects, properties and actions and belong to the basic word stock of Modern English. Britain devastated by the inroads of different Scandinavian tribes (the Danes) for about 3 centuries from the 8<sup>th</sup> to the 11<sup>th</sup> century. The Danish invasion resulted in the occupation of a great part of the country by Scandinavian settlers, who spoke Old Norse – the Germanic language very close to Old English. The effect of the Danish conquest was the contribution of many Scandinavian words to the English vocabulary: law, husband, fellow, sky, skin, wing, root, skill, anger, finger, gate, to die, to cast, to hit, to take, to call, to want, loose, wrong, low, ill, ugly, rotten, happy, they. A characteristic feature of Scandinavian borrowings is the preservation of the initial sounds [sk]=sk=sc: skirt, skill, scatter; or [g] before front vowels: get, give, forget, anger...

### **French Borrowings**

French borrowings are especially numerous in English. They may be roughly divided into old, or Norman borrowings, and new, or Parisian, borrowings.

After the Norman Conquest in 1066 French or rather Northern-French became the official language in England. The first French borrowings were terms connected with war, fare, court, law, soldiers, army, crown, country, piece, justice, office, government, parliament and state. There was almost no end to the French words that continued to pour into English up to the 16<sup>th</sup> century: chair, table, furniture, dinner, supper, soup, jelly, sausage, to fry, to boil, joy,

pleasure, delight, comfort, dress, colour, flower, fruit, desire, castle, mention (особняк), beauty. These early Norman borrowings are usually fully assimilated words. In the 17<sup>th</sup> century, there was a change in the character of French borrowings. New borrowings mainly from the Parisian dialect preserved their French forms as a rule: campaign, garage, ballet, rouge, and bucket, and matinee, machine. Besides Latin, Scandinavian, French borrowings the English language contains words borrowed from almost every language on the globe.

### **Celtic Borrowings**

Celtic borrowings are of primary historical importance for English. When the Anglo-Saxons came to the British Isles in the 5<sup>th</sup> century A.D. they met with the Celts or Britains – the native inhabitants of the British Isles whom they pushed away to the North and the West. The whole number of Celtic words in English whether borrowed directly or indirectly is 165 according to Walter Skeat's counts: banner (булка домашнего хлеба), bard, glad, clad, cradle, loch/lock (lake).

Celtic elements are mostly found in place names, e.g. aber (the mouth of the river) – Aberdeen; avon (a river) – Stratford-on-Avon; inch (an island) – Inchcape.

### **Greek Borrowings**

Greek borrowings were usually adopted through Latin and French. Many Latin Christian terms were of Greek origin: abbot, bishop, school, Christ, monk; chair, police, policy, chronicle came to English from Greek through Latin and French.

The direct borrowing of the Greek words into English started only in the period of the Renaissance: literature owes the following terms – tragedy, comedy, drama... Greek elements, affixes and roots are widely used in English to create new terms: telephone, photography, telegramme etc.

### **Italian Borrowings**

Italian borrowings are mostly musical terms: allegro, aria, finale, piano, opera, solo, sonata, soprano, trill, violin, macaroni, spaghetti, influenza, umbrella, manifest etc.

### **Spanish Borrowings**

The Spanish element in English like the Italian is mainly modern, e.g. cigar, embargo, junta, mosquito etc. The following words were introduced through Spanish to Europe from America: coco, chilly, chocolate, tomato, potato, tobacco, canoeing, yucca etc.

### **Russian Borrowings**

Russian borrowings may be subdivided into 2 principle groups:

- Borrowings that took place before 1917 such as: izba, ruble, kopeck, tsar, borzoi, Cossack etc.
- And borrowings after 1917. The so-called sovietisms: Bolshevik, soviet, Komsomol, udarnik; later – sputnik, lunnik; recent – perestroika, glasnost, Gorbotchov etc.

## **Etymological doublets.**

Sometimes a word is borrowed twice from the same language. As the result, we have two different words with different spellings and meanings but historically they come back to one and the same word. Such words are called etymological doublets. In English there are some groups of them:

Latino-French doublets.

Latin English from Latin English from French

uncia inch ounce

moneta mint money

camera camera chamber

Franco-French doublets

doublets borrowed from different dialects of French.

Norman Paris

canal channel

captain chieftain

catch chaise

Scandinavian-English doublets

Scandinavian English

skirt shirt

scabby shabby

There are also etymological doublets which were borrowed from the same language during different historical periods, such as French doublets: gentil - любезный, благородный, etymological doublets are: gentle - мягкий, вежливый and genteel - благородный. From the French word gallant etymological doublets are: 'gallant - храбрый and ga'llant - галантный, внимательный.

Sometimes etymological doublets are the result of borrowing different grammatical forms of the same word, e.g. the Comparative degree of Latin «super» was «superior» which was borrowed into English with the meaning «high in some quality or rank». The Superlative degree (Latin «supremus») in English «supreme» with the meaning «outstanding», «prominent». So «superior» and «supreme» are etymological doublets.

## **Archaisms**

Archaisms are words which are no longer used in everyday speech, which have been ousted by their synonyms. Archaisms remain in the language, but they are used as stylistic devices to express solemnity.

Most of these words are lexical archaisms and they are stylistic synonyms of words which ousted them from the neutral style. Some of them are: steed /horse/, slay /kill/, behold /see/, perchance /perhaps/, woe /sorrow/ etc.

Sometimes a lexical archaism begins a new life, getting a new meaning, then the old meaning becomes a semantic archaism, e.g. «fair» in the meaning «beautiful» is a semantic archaism, but in the meaning «blond» it belongs to the neutral style.

Sometimes the root of the word remains and the affix is changed, then the old affix is considered to be a morphemic archaism, e.g. «beautious» /»ous» was substituted by «ful»/, «bepaint» / «be» was dropped/, «darksome» /»some» was dropped/, «oft» / «en» was added/. etc.

## **Neologism**

At the present moment English is developing very swiftly and there is so called «neology

blowup». R. Berchfield who worked at compiling a four-volume supplement to NED says that averagely 800 neologisms appear every year in Modern English. It has also become a language-giver recently, especially with the development of computerization.

New words, as a rule, appear in speech of an individual person who wants to express his idea in some original way. This person is called «originater». New lexical units are primarily used by university teachers, newspaper reporters, by those who are connected with mass media.

Neologisms can develop in three main ways: a lexical unit existing in the language can change its meaning to denote a new object or phenomenon. In such cases we have semantic neologisms, e.g. the word «umbrella» developed the meanings: «авиационное прикрытие», »политическое прикрытие». A new lexical unit can develop in the language to denote an object or phenomenon which already has some lexical unit to denote it. In such cases we have transnomination, e.g. the word «slum» was first substituted by the word «ghetto» then by the word-group «inner town». A new lexical unit can be introduced to denote a new object or phenomenon. In this case we have «a proper neologism», many of them are cases of new terminology.

## Lecture5. General Characteristics of the Word formation in English

**By external structure** of the word we mean its morphological structure. A morpheme is also an association of a given meaning with a given sound pattern. But unlike a word it is not autonomous. Morphemes occur in speech only as constituent parts of words, not independently, that is why the morpheme may be defined as the minimum meaningful language unit.

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

The main unit of the lexical system of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning is a word. This unit is used in grammatical functions characteristic of it. It is the smallest language unit which can stand alone as a complete utterance.

A word, however, can be divided into smaller sense units – morphemes. **The morpheme** is the smallest meaningful language unit. Morphemes are divided into two large groups: lexical and grammatical morphemes. Both lexical and grammatical morphemes can be free and bound. **Free lexical morphemes** are roots of words which express the lexical meaning of the word, they coincide with the stem of simple words. **Free grammatical morphemes** are function words: articles, conjunctions and prepositions.

**Bound lexical morphemes** are affixes: prefixes, suffixes and also blocked root morphemes. **Bound grammatical morphemes** are inflexions (endings).

## Lecture 5. Affixation in English Phraseology

Affixation is one of the most productive ways of word-building throughout the history of English. It consists in adding an affix to the stem of a definite part of speech. Affixation is divided into suffixation and prefixation.

## Suffixation.

The main function of suffixes in Modern English is to form one part of speech from another, the secondary function is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech. ( e.g. «educate» is a verb, «educatee» is a noun, and «music» is a noun, «musicdom» is also a noun) .

There are different classifications of suffixes:

1. Part-of-speech classification. Suffixes which can form different parts of speech are given here :

- a) noun-forming suffixes, such as : -er (criticizer), -dom (officialdom), -ism (ageism),
- b) adjective-forming suffixes, such as : -able (breathable), -less (symptomless), -ous (prestigious),
- c) verb-forming suffixes, such as -ize (computerize) , -ify (micrify),
- d) adverb-forming suffixes , such as : -ly (singly), -ward (tableward),
- e) numeral-forming suffixes, such as -teen (sixteen), -ty (seventy).

2. Semantic classification . Suffixes changing the lexical meaning of the stem can be subdivided into groups, e.g. noun-forming suffixes can denote:

- a) the agent of the action, e.g. -er (experimenter), -ist (taxist), -ent (student),
- b) nationality, e.g. -ian (Russian), -ese (Japanese), -ish (English),
- c) collectivity, e.g. -dom (moviedom), -ry (peasantry, -ship (readership), -ati ( literati),
- d) diminutiveness, e.g. -ie (horsie), -let (booklet), -ling (gooseling), -ette (kitchenette),
- e) quality, e.g. -ness (copelessness), -ity (answerability).

3. Lexico-grammatical character of the stem. Suffixes which can be added to certain groups of stems are subdivided into:

- a) suffixes added to verbal stems, such as : -er (commuter), -ing (suffering), -able (flyable), -ment (involvement), -ation (computerization),
- b) suffixes added to noun stems, such as : -less (smogless), -ful (roomful), -ism (adventurism), -ster (pollster), -nik (filmnik), -ish (childish),
- c) suffixes added to adjective stems, such as : -en (weaken), -ly (pinkly), -ish (longish), -ness (clannishness).

4. Origin of suffixes. Here we can point out the following groups:

- a) native (Germanic), such as -er,-ful, -less, -ly.
- b) Romanic, such as : -tion, -ment, -able, -eer.
- c) Greek, such as : -ist, -ism, -ize.
- d) Russian, such as -nik.

5. Productivity. Here we can point out the following groups:

- a) productive, such as : -er, -ize, --ly, -ness.
- b) semi-productive, such as : -eer, -ette, -ward.
- c) non-productive , such as : -ard (drunkard), -th (length).

Suffixes can be polysemantic, such as : -er can form nouns with the following meanings : agent,doer of the action expressed by the stem (speaker), profession, occupation (teacher), a device, a tool (transmitter). While speaking about suffixes we should also mention compound suffixes which are added to the stem at the same time, such as -ably, -ibly, (terribly, reasonably), -ation (adaptation from adapt).

There are also disputable cases whether we have a suffix or a root morpheme in the structure of a word, in such cases we call such morphemes semi-suffixes, and words with such suffixes can



be classified either as derived words or as compound words, e.g. -gate (Irangate), -burger (cheeseburger), -aholic (workaholic) etc.

### Prefixation

Prefixation is the formation of words by means of adding a prefix to the stem. In English it is characteristic for forming verbs. Prefixes are more independent than suffixes. Prefixes can be classified according to the nature of words in which they are used : prefixes used in notional words and prefixes used in functional words. Prefixes used in notional words are proper prefixes which are bound morphemes, e.g. un- (unhappy). Prefixes used in functional words are semi-bound morphemes because they are met in the language as words, e.g. over- (overhead) ( cf over the table ).

The main function of prefixes in English is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech. But the recent research showed that about twenty-five prefixes in Modern English form one part of speech from another (bebutton, interfamily, postcollege etc).

Prefixes can be classified according to different principles :

#### 1. Semantic classification :

- a) prefixes of negative meaning, such as : in- (invaluable), non- (nonformals), un- (unfree) etc,
- b) prefixes denoting repetition or reversal actions, such as: de- (decolonize), re- (revegetation), dis- (disconnect),
- c) prefixes denoting time, space, degree relations, such as : inter- (interplanetary) , hyper- (hypertension), ex- (ex-student), pre- (pre-election), over- (overdrugging) etc.

#### 2. Origin of prefixes:

- a) native (Germanic), such as: un-, over-, under- etc.
- b) Romanic, such as : in-, de-, ex-, re- etc.
- c) Greek, such as : sym-, hyper- etc.

When we analyze such words as : adverb, accompany where we can find the root of the word (verb, company) we may treat ad-, ac- as prefixes though they were never used as prefixes to form new words in English and were borrowed from Romanic languages together with words. In such cases we can treat them as derived words. But some scientists treat them as simple words. Another group of words with a disputable structure are such as : contain, retain, detain and conceive, receive, deceive where we can see that re-, de-, con- act as prefixes and -tain, -ceive can be understood as roots. But in English these combinations of sounds have no lexical meaning and are called pseudo-morphemes. Some scientists treat such words as simple words, others as derived ones.

There are some prefixes which can be treated as root morphemes by some scientists, e.g. after- in the word afternoon. American lexicographers working on Webster dictionaries treat such words as compound words. British lexicographers treat such words as derived ones.

## Lecture 6. Word Composition

Word Composition is the way of wordbuilding when a word is formed by joining two or more stems to form one word. The structural unity of a compound word depends upon : a) the unity of stress, b) solid or hyphenated spelling, c) semantic unity, d) unity of morphological and syntactical functioning. These are characteristic features of compound words in all languages. For English compounds some of these factors are not very reliable. As a rule English compounds have one uniting stress (usually on the first component), e.g. hard-cover, best-seller. We can also have a double stress in an English compound, with the main stress on the first component and with a secondary stress on the second component, e.g. blood-vessel. The

third pattern of stresses is two level stresses, e.g. snow-white, sky-blue. The third pattern is easily mixed up with word-groups unless they have solid or hyphenated spelling. Spelling in English compounds is not very reliable as well because they can have different spelling even in the same text, e.g. war-ship, blood-vessel can be spelt through a hyphen and also with a break, insofar, underfoot can be spelt solidly and with a break. All the more so that there has appeared in Modern English a special type of compound words which are called block compounds, they have one uniting stress but are spelt with a break, e.g. air piracy, cargo module, coin change, penguin suit etc.

The semantic unity of a compound word is often very strong. In such cases we have idiomatic compounds where the meaning of the whole is not a sum of meanings of its components, e.g. to ghostwrite, skinhead, brain-drain etc. In nonidiomatic compounds semantic unity is not strong, e.g., airbus, to bloodtransfuse, astrodynamics etc.

English compounds have the unity of morphological and syntactical functioning. They are used in a sentence as one part of it and only one component changes grammatically, e.g. These girls are chatter-boxes. «Chatter-boxes» is a predicative in the sentence and only the second component changes grammatically.

There are two characteristic features of English compounds:

- a) Both components in an English compound are free stems, that is they can be used as words with a distinctive meaning of their own. The sound pattern will be the same except for the stresses, e.g. «a green-house» and «a green house». Whereas for example in Russian compounds the stems are bound morphemes, as a rule.
- b) English compounds have a two-stem pattern, with the exception of compound words which have form-word stems in their structure, e.g. middle-of-the-road, off-the-record, up-and-doing etc. The two-stem pattern distinguishes English compounds from German ones.

## Lecture 7. Conversion

Conversion is a characteristic feature of the English word-building system. It is also called affixless derivation or zero-suffixation. The term «conversion» first appeared in the book by Henry Sweet «New English Grammar» in 1891. Conversion is treated differently by different scientists, e.g. prof. A.I. Smirntitsky treats conversion as a morphological way of forming words when one part of speech is formed from another part of speech by changing its paradigm, e.g. to form the verb «to dial» from the noun «dial» we change the paradigm of the noun (a dial, dials) for the paradigm of a regular verb (I dial, he dials, dialed, dialing). A. Marchand in his book «The Categories and Types of Present-day English» treats conversion as a morphological-syntactical word-building because we have not only the change of the paradigm, but also the change of the syntactic function, e.g. I need some good paper for my room. (The noun «paper» is an object in the sentence). I paper my room every year. (The verb «paper» is the predicate in the sentence).

Conversion is the main way of forming verbs in Modern English. Verbs can be formed from nouns of different semantic groups and have different meanings because of that, e.g.

- a) verbs have instrumental meaning if they are formed from nouns denoting parts of a human body e.g. to eye, to finger, to elbow, to shoulder etc. They have instrumental meaning if they are formed from nouns denoting tools, machines, instruments, weapons, e.g. to hammer, to machine-gun, to rifle, to nail,
- b) verbs can denote an action characteristic of the living being denoted by the noun from which they have been converted, e.g. to crowd, to wolf, to ape,
- c) verbs can denote acquisition, addition or deprivation if they are formed from nouns denoting an object, e.g. to fish, to dust, to peel, to paper,
- d) verbs can denote an action performed at the place denoted by the noun from which they have been converted, e.g. to park, to garage, to bottle, to corner, to pocket,
- e) verbs can denote an action performed at the time denoted by the noun from which they

have been converted e.g. to winter, to week-end .

Verbs can be also converted from adjectives, in such cases they denote the change of the state, e.g. to tame (to become or make tame) , to clean, to slim etc.

Nouns can also be formed by means of conversion from verbs. Converted nouns can denote:

a) instant of an action e.g. a jump, a move,

b) process or state e.g. sleep, walk,

c) agent of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g. a help, a flirt, a scold ,

d) object or result of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g. a burn, a find, a purchase,

e) place of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g. a drive, a stop, a walk.

Many nouns converted from verbs can be used only in the Singular form and denote momentaneous actions. In such cases we have partial conversion. Such deverbal nouns are often used with such verbs as : to have, to get, to take etc., e.g. to have a try, to give a push, to take a swim

## Lecture 8. Shortening

In the process of communication, words and word-groups can be shortened. The causes of shortening can be linguistic and extra-linguistic. By extra-linguistic causes changes in the life of people are meant. In Modern English many new abbreviations, acronyms, initials, blends are formed because the tempo of life is increasing and it becomes necessary to give more and more information in the shortest possible time.

There are also linguistic causes of abbreviating words and word-groups, such as the demand of rhythm, which is satisfied in English by monosyllabic words. When borrowings from other languages are assimilated in English, they are shortened. Here we have modification of form on the basis of analogy, e.g. the Latin borrowing «fanaticus» is shortened to «fan» on the analogy with native words: man, pan, tan etc.

There are two main types of shortenings: graphical and lexical.

### Graphical abbreviations

Graphical abbreviations are the result of shortening of words and word-groups only in written speech while orally the corresponding full forms are used. They are used for the economy of space and effort in writing.

The oldest group of graphical abbreviations in English is of Latin origin. In Russian, this type of abbreviation is not typical. In these abbreviations in the spelling Latin words are shortened, while orally the corresponding English equivalents are pronounced in the full form, e.g. for example (Latin *exempli gratia*), a.m. - in the morning (*ante meridiem*), No - number (*numero*), p.a. - a year (*per annum*), d - penny (*dinarius*), lb - pound (*libra*), i. e. - that is (*id est*) etc.

Some graphical abbreviations of Latin origin have different English equivalents in different contexts, e.g. p.m. can be pronounced «in the afternoon» (*post meridiem*) and «after death» (*post mortem*).

There are also graphical abbreviations of native origin, where in the spelling we have abbreviations of words and word-groups of the corresponding English equivalents in the full form. We have several semantic groups of them :

a) days of the week, e.g. Mon - Monday, Tue - Tuesday etc

b) names of months, e.g. Apr - April, Aug - August etc.

c) names of counties in UK, e.g. Yorks - Yorkshire, Berks -Berkshire etc

d) names of states in USA, e.g. Ala - Alabama, Alas - Alaska etc.

e) names of address, e.g. Mr., Mrs., Ms., Dr. etc.

- f) military ranks, e.g. capt. -captain, col. - colonel, sgt - sergeant etc.
- g) scientific degrees, e.g. B.A. - Bachelor of Arts, D.M. - Doctor of Medicine . ( Sometimes in scientific degrees we have abbreviations of Latin origin, e.g., M.B. - Medicinæ Baccalaurus).
- h) units of time, length, weight, e.g. f. / ft -foot/feet, sec. - second, in. -inch, mg. - milligram etc.

The reading of some graphical abbreviations depends on the context, e.g. «m» can be read as: male, married, masculine, metre, mile, million, minute, «l.p.» can be read as long-playing, low pressure.

#### Initial abbreviations

Initialisms are the bordering case between graphical and lexical abbreviations. When they appear in the language, as a rule, to denote some new offices they are closer to graphical abbreviations because orally full forms are used, e.g. J.V. - joint venture. When they are used for some duration of time they acquire the shortened form of pronouncing and become closer to lexical abbreviations, e.g. BBC is as a rule pronounced in the shortened form.

In some cases the translation of initialisms is next to impossible without using special dictionaries. Initialisms are denoted in different ways. Very often they are expressed in the way they are pronounced in the language of their origin, e.g. ANZUS (Australia, New Zealand, United States) is given in Russian as АНЗУС, SALT (Strategic Arms Limitation Talks) was for a long time used in Russian as СОЛТ, now a translation variant is used (ОСВ -Договор об ограничении стратегических вооружений). This type of initialisms borrowed into other languages is preferable, e.g. UFO - НЛО, СП - JV etc.

There are three types of initialisms in English:

- a) initialisms with alphabetical reading, such as UK, BUP, CND etc
  - b) initialisms which are read as if they are words, e.g. UNESCO, UNO, NATO etc.
  - c) initialisms which coincide with English words in their sound form, such initialisms are called acronyms, e.g. CLASS (Computer-based Laboratory for Automated School System).
- Some scientists unite groups b) and c) into one group which they call acronyms.

Some initialisms can form new words in which they act as root morphemes by different ways of wordbuilding:

- a) affixation, e.g. AWALism, ex-rafer, ex- POW, to waafize, AIDSophobia etc.
- b) conversion, e.g. to raff, to fly IFR (Instrument Flight Rules),
- c) composition, e.g. STOLport, USAFman etc.
- d) there are also compound-shortened words where the first component is an initial abbreviation with the alphabetical reading and the second one is a complete word, e.g. A-bomb, U-pronunciation, V -day etc. In some cases the first component is a complete word and the second component is an initial abbreviation with the alphabetical pronunciation, e.g. Three -Ds (Three dimensions) - стереофильм.

#### Abbreviations of words

Abbreviation of words consists in clipping a part of a word. As a result we get a new lexical unit where either the lexical meaning or the style is different from the full form of the word. In such cases as »fantasy» and «fancy», «fence» and «defence» we have different lexical meanings. In such cases as «laboratory» and «lab», we have different styles.

Abbreviation does not change the part-of-speech meaning, as we have it in the case of conversion or affixation, it produces words belonging to the same part of speech as the primary word, e.g. prof is a noun and professor is also a noun. Mostly nouns undergo abbreviation, but we can also meet abbreviation of verbs, such as to rev from to revolve, to tab from to tabulate etc. But mostly abbreviated forms of verbs are formed by means of conversion from abbreviated nouns, e.g. to taxi, to vac etc. Adjectives can be abbreviated but they are mostly

used in school slang and are combined with suffixation, e.g. comfy, dilly, mizzy etc. As a rule pronouns, numerals, interjections, conjunctions are not abbreviated. The exceptions are: fif (fifteen), teen-ager, in one's teens (apheresis from numerals from 13 to 19).

Lexical abbreviations are classified according to the part of the word which is clipped. Mostly the end of the word is clipped, because the beginning of the word in most cases is the root and expresses the lexical meaning of the word. This type of abbreviation is called apocope. Here we can mention a group of words ending in «o», such as disco (dicotheque), expo (exposition), intro (introduction) and many others. On the analogy with these words there developed in Modern English a number of words where «o» is added as a kind of a suffix to the shortened form of the word, e.g. combo (combination) - небольшой эстрадный ансамбль, Afro (African) -прическа под африканца etc. In other cases the beginning of the word is clipped. In such cases we have apheresis, e.g. chute (parachute), varsity (university), copter (helicopter), thuse (enthuse) etc. Sometimes the middle of the word is clipped, e.g. mart (market), fanzine (fan magazine) maths (mathematics). Such abbreviations are called syncope. Sometimes we have a combination of apocope with apheresis, when the beginning and the end of the word are clipped, e.g. tec (detective), van (avanguard) etc.

Sometimes shortening influences the spelling of the word, e.g. «c» can be substituted by «k» before «e» to preserve pronunciation, e.g. mike (microphone), Coke (coca-cola) etc. The same rule is observed in the following cases: fax (facsimile), teck (technical college), trunk (tranquilizer) etc. The final consonants in the shortened forms are substituted by letters characteristic of native English words.

## Lecture 9. Blending

**Blending** is the process of combining parts of two words to form one word. It refers to joining the beginning of one word and the end of another to make a new word with a new meaning.

Also known as a portmanteau word. (pɔːt'mæntoʊ)

For eg. "smog" is composed of the parts of nouns "**smoke and fog**".

Thus blending is in fact compounding by means of clipped words.

The result of blending is an unanalysable simple word. We don't analyze the blended words (SM+OG) because their parts can't be called morphemes is an association of a given meaning with a given sound pattern.

Eg. Clash= clap+crash  
Flush= flash+blush  
Slanguage= slang+language  
Smaze= smoke+haze  
Seadrome= sea+airdrome  
Pollutician= pollute+politician  
Medicare= medical+care  
Foodoholic= food+alcoholic  
Workaholic= work + alcoholic  
Fanzine=fan+magazine  
Eurazia= Europe+Asia

These are blends in the terminological vocabulary:

Eg. Racan= radar+beacon  
Transceiver= transmitter+receiver  
Transistor= transfer+resistor  
Motel= motor+hotel

Spam= spiced ham  
Atomaniac= atom+maniac

### Sound imitation (Onomatopoeia)

(An **onomatopoeia** (/ˌɒnəˈmætəˈpiː.ə/ from the **Greek** means onoma-name, word and poiein-to make) making of words in imitation of sounds.

Sound-imitation is formation of words from sounds that resemble those associated with the object or action to be named or that seem suggestive of its qualities.

Words coined by this interesting type of word formation are made by imitating different kinds of sounds that may be produced by animals, birds, insects, human beings and inanimate objects. It is of some interest that sounds produced by same kind of animal are frequently represented by quite different sound groups in different languages.

Eg. English dogs bark or howl. The English cock cries cock-a-doodle-doo (ку-ка-ре-ку).

In England ducks quack and frogs croak (крякать, квакать)

It is only English and Russian cats who seem capable of mutual understanding when they meet, for English cats or miaow (meow). The same can be said about cows: they moo.

Some names of animals and especially of birds and insects are also produced by sound-imitation: crow, cuckoo, humming-bird, whip-poor-will, and cricket.

	Russian	English
Dogs	Гавкать, Вить.	Bark, Howl
Cock	Кукареку	Cock-a-doodle-doo
Cats	Мяу	Mew, Miaow
Cows	Мууу	Moo, Low
Frog	Ква	Croak
Duck	Кряк	Quack

#### 1.1

Such verbs as to glance, to glide, to slide, slip are supposed to convey by their very sound the nature of the smooth, easy movement over a slippery surface. The sound form of the words shimmer, glimmer, and glitter seems to reproduce the wavering, tremulous nature of the faint light.

The sound of the verbs to rush, to dash, to flash may be said to reflect the brevity, swiftness and energetic nature of their corresponding actions.

Many verbs denote sounds produced by human beings in the process of communication or in expressing their feelings: babble, chatter, giggle, grunt, grumble, murmur, mutter, titter, whimper, whisper and others.

#### Nose and Mouth:

shush, whistle, smooch, cluck, smack, crunch, munch, gulp, spit, sputter, splutter, slobber, cough, sniff, snuffle, hiccup, huff, snort, snore, belch

#### Hands:

pat, clap, slap, smack  
squawk

**Birds:** chirp, cheep, tweet, peep, twitter, crow,

**Insects:**

buzz, chirp, hum

**Explosions:** boom, bang, pop

**High Speed:**

zoom, whoosh, swoosh, zing  
thwack, flap, smack, smash

**Actions:** zip, tap, click, clip, snip, knock, rap, bang,

**Objects:**

creak, squeak, pop, boing, sizzle, fizzle, flap

**Alarms:** ding, buzz, beep, clang

**Music:**

drum, throb, thump, twang, plink, plunk, bong  
trickle, glug, splatter, squirt, fizz, plop

**Liquids:** squish, slush, burble, gurgle,

**Air:**

puff, hiss, whistle, swoosh, whoosh

**Electricity:** buzz, hum, zap

## Lecture 10. Sound and Stress interchange

**Sound interchange** is the way of word building when some sounds are changed to form a new word. It is non-productive in Modern English; it was productive in Old English and can be met in other Indo-European languages.

The causes of sound interchange can be different. It can be the result of Ancient Ablaut, which cannot be explained by the phonetic laws during the period of the language development known to scientists. e.g. to strike - stroke, to sing - song etc. It can be also the result of Ancient Umlaut or vowel mutation, which is the result of palatalizing the root vowel because of the front vowel in the syllable coming after the root (regressive assimilation), e.g. hot - to heat (hotian), blood - to bleed (blodian) etc.

In many cases, we have vowel and consonant interchange. In nouns we have voiceless consonants and in verbs we have corresponding voiced consonants because in Old English these consonants in nouns were at the end of the word and in verbs in the intervocal position, e.g. bath - to bathe, life - to live, breath - to breathe etc.

**Stress interchange** can be mostly met in verbs and nouns of Romanic origin: nouns have the stress on the first syllable and verbs on the last syllable, e.g. `accent - to ac`cent. This phenomenon is explained in the following way: French verbs and nouns had different structure when they were borrowed into English; verbs had one syllable more than the corresponding nouns. When these borrowings were assimilated in English the stress in them was shifted to the previous syllable (the second from the end) . Later on the last unstressed syllable in verbs borrowed from French was dropped (the same as in native verbs) and after that the stress in verbs was on the last syllable while in nouns it was on the first syllable. As a result of it we have such pairs in English as: to af`fix - `affix, to con`flict- `conflict, to ex`port - `export, to ex`tract - `extract etc. As a result of stress interchange we have also vowel interchange in such words because vowels are pronounced differently in stressed and unstressed positions.

## Lecture 11. Back formation

It is the way of word-building when a word is formed by dropping the final morpheme to form a new word. It is opposite to suffixation, that is why it is called back formation. At first it appeared in the language as a result of misunderstanding the structure of a borrowed word . Prof.

Yartseva explains this mistake by the influence of the whole system of the language on separate words. E.g. it is typical of English to form nouns denoting the agent of the action by adding the suffix -er to a verb stem (speak- speaker). So when the French word «beggar» was borrowed into English the final syllable «ar» was pronounced in the same way as the English -er and Englishmen formed the verb «to beg» by dropping the end of the noun. Other examples of back formation are : to accreditate (from accreditation), to bach (from bachelor), to collocare (from collocation), to enthuse (from enthusiasm), to compute (from computer), to emote (from emotion) to reminisce ( from reminiscence) , to televise (from television) etc. As we can notice in cases of back formation the part-of-speech meaning of the primary word is changed, verbs are formed from nouns.

## **Lecture 12. Semasiology**

The part of Lexicology, which studies the meaning, and the development of meaning of words is called **Semasiology**. There are different approaches to the problem of word meaning in modern Semasiology: the referential or denotational approach; functional or contextual approach; and the new cognitive approach.

Analytical or referential definition of meaning:

The best known analytical model of meaning is the so-called «basic triangle»

So, if we hear a sound-form a certain idea arises in our mind and the idea brings out a certain referent that exists in the reality. But the sound-form and the referent are connected indirectly because there are no objects or phenomena in the reality that predict a certain sound- form. The strongest point in this approach is an attempt to link the notion of meaning with the process of naming the objects, processes or phenomena of concrete reality. The analytical definitions of meaning are usually criticized because they cannot be applied to sentences.

Functional or contextual approach suggests that the meaning of a word is revealed by substituting different contexts. To get a better insight into the semantics of a word it is necessary to analyze as many contexts in which it is realized as possible. The question may arise - what amount of material is sufficient to make a reliable conclusion about the meaning of a word ? In practice a scholar is guided by intuition, besides, there are contexts, which are so infrequent that they can hardly be registered. Nevertheless the functional approach to meaning is important because it emphasizes the fact that words are seldom if ever used in isolation and thus the meaning of a word is revealed only when it is realized in a context. But on the whole the functional approach may be described as a complimentary, additional to the referential one.

Cognitive approach to semantics deals with the theory of prototype, framing (Fillmore) and others.

## **Lecture 13. Change of meaning**

The meaning of a word can change in the course of time. Changes of lexical meanings can be proved by comparing contexts of different times. Transfer of the meaning is called lexicosemantic word-building. In such cases the outer aspect of a word does not change.

The causes of semantic changes can be extra-linguistic and linguistic, e.g. the change of the lexical meaning of the noun «pen» was due to extra-linguistic causes. Primarily « pen» comes back to the Latin word «penna» (a feather of a bird). As people wrote with goose pens the name



was transferred to steel pens which were later on used for writing. Still later any instrument for writing was called « a pen».

On the other hand causes can be linguistic, e.g. the conflict of synonyms when a perfect synonym of a native word is borrowed from some other language one of them may specialize in its meaning, e.g. the noun «tide» in Old English was polisemantic and denoted «time», «season», «hour». When the French words «time», «season», «hour» were borrowed into English they ousted the word «tide» in these meanings. It was specialized and now means «regular rise and fall of the sea caused by attraction of the moon». The meaning of a word can also change due to ellipsis, e.g. the word-group «a train of carriages» had the meaning of «a row of carriages», later on «of carriages» was dropped and the noun «train» changed its meaning, it is used now in the function and with the meaning of the whole word-group.

Different scientists have classified semantic changes. A German scientist Herman Paul in his work «Prinzipien des Sprachgeschichte» suggested the most complete classification. It is based on the logical principle. He distinguishes two main ways where the semantic change is gradual (specialization and generalization), two momentary conscious semantic changes (metaphor and metonymy) and also secondary ways: gradual (elevation and degradation), momentary (hyperbole and litote).

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#### **Lecture 14. Polysemy, Homonym, Synonym, Antonym**

The word «**polysemy**» means «plurality of meanings» it exists only in the language, not in speech. A word which has more than one meaning is called polysemantic.

Different meanings of a polysemantic word may come together due to the proximity of notions which they express. E.g. the word «blanket» has the following meanings: a woolen covering used on beds, a covering for keeping a horse warm, a covering of any kind /a blanket of snow/, covering all or most cases /used attributively/, e.g. we can say «a blanket insurance policy».

There are some words in the language which are monosemantic, such as most terms, /synonym, molecule, bronchites/, some pronouns /this, my, both/, numerals.

There are two processes of the semantic development of a word: radiation and concatenation. In cases of radiation the primary meaning stands in the centre and the secondary meanings proceed out of it like rays. Each secondary meaning can be traced to the primary meaning. E.g. in the word «face» the primary meaning denotes «the front part of the human head» Connected with the front position the meanings: the front part of a watch, the front part of a building, the front part of a playing card were formed. Connected with the word «face» itself the meanings : expression of the face, outward appearance are formed.

In cases of concatenation secondary meanings of a word develop like a chain. In such cases it is difficult to trace some meanings to the primary one. E.g. in the word «crust» the primary meaning «hard outer part of bread» developed a secondary meaning «hard part of anything /a pie, a cake/», then the meaning »harder layer over soft snow» was developed, then «a sullen gloomy person», then «impudence» were developed. Here the last meanings have nothing to do with the primary ones. In such cases homonyms appear in the language. It is called the split of polysemy.

In most cases in the semantic development of a word both ways of semantic development are combined.

**Homonyms** are words different in meaning but identical in sound or spelling, or both in sound and spelling.

Homonyms can appear in the language not only as the result of the split of polysemy, but also as the result of levelling of grammar inflexions, when different parts of speech become identical in their outer aspect, e.g. «care» from «caru» and «care» from «carian». They can be also formed by means of conversion, e.g. «to slim» from «slim», «to water» from «water». They can be formed with the help of the same suffix from the same stem, e.g. «reader»/ a person who reads

and a book for reading/.

Homonyms can also appear in the language accidentally, when two words coincide in their development, e.g. two native words can coincide in their outer aspects: «to bear» from «beran»/to carry/ and «bear» from «bera»/an animal/. A native word and a borrowing can coincide in their outer aspects, e.g. «fair» from Latin «feria» and «fair» from native «fager» /blond/. Two borrowings can coincide e.g. «base» from the French «base» /Latin basis/ and «base» /low/ from the Latin «bas» /Italian «basso»/.

Homonyms can develop through shortening of different words, e.g. «cab» from «cabriolet», «cabbage», «cabin».

Classifications of homonyms.

Walter Skeat classified homonyms according to their spelling and sound forms and he pointed out three groups: perfect homonyms that is words identical in sound and spelling, such as : «school» - «косяк рыбы» and «школа» ; homographs, that is words with the same spelling but pronounced differently, e.g. «bow» -/bau/ - «поклон» and /bou/ - «лук»; homophones that is words pronounced identically but spelled differently, e.g. «night» - «ночь» and «knight» - «рыцарь».

Another classification was suggested by A.I Smirnitsky. He added to Skeat's classification one more criterion: grammatical meaning. He subdivided the group of perfect homonyms in Skeat's classification into two types of homonyms: perfect which are identical in their spelling, pronunciation and their grammar form, such as :»spring» in the meanings: the season of the year, a leap, a source, and homofoms which coincide in their spelling and pronunciation but have different grammatical meaning, e.g. «reading» - Present Participle, Gerund, Verbal noun., to lobby - lobby .

A more detailed classification was given by I.V. Arnold. She classified only perfect homonyms and suggested four criteria of their classification: lexical meaning, grammatical meaning, basic forms and paradigms.

According to these criteria I.V. Arnold pointed out the following groups: a) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings, basic forms and paradigms and different in their lexical meanings, e.g. «board» in the meanings «a council» and « a piece of wood sawn thin»; b) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings and basic forms, different in their lexical meanings and paradigms, e.g. to lie - lied - lied, and to lie - lay - lain; c) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, paradigms, but coinciding in their basic forms, e.g. «light» / «lights»/, «light» / «lighter», «lightest»/; d) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, in their basic forms and paradigms, but coinciding in one of the forms of their paradigms, e.g. «a bit» and «bit» (from « to bite»).

In I. V. Arnold's classification there are also patterned homonyms, which, differing from other homonyms, have a common component in their lexical meanings. These are homonyms formed either by means of conversion, or by levelling of grammar inflexions. These homonyms are different in their grammar meanings, in their paradigms, identical in their basic forms, e.g. «warm» - «to warm». Here we can also have unchangeable patterned homonyms which have identical basic forms, different grammatical meanings, a common component in their lexical meanings, e.g. «before» an adverb, a conjunction, a preposition. There are also homonyms among unchangeable words which are different in their lexical and grammatical meanings, identical in their basic foms, e.g. « for» - «для» and «for» - «ибо».

**Synonyms** are words belonging to the same parts of speech and having similar or identical denotational meanings, which differ in their sound forms and are interchangeable at least in some context. It is a Greek word syn-together onyma-name. eg. **big - large -great** **finish -end**

**Sources of synonyms**

The sources of synonyms are:



easily compared and contrasted. Eg. **high-low, wide-narrow, strong-weak, old-young.**

**Verbs** take second place. Verbal antonyms are fewer in number.

Eg. **loose-find, live-die, open-close.**

**Nouns** are not rich in antonyms, but even some examples can be given:

**friend –enemy, good -evil, love hatred, heaven-earth.**

**Antonymic adverbs** can be subdivided into two groups:

a) **adverbs derived from adjectives:** eg. **warmly-coldly, merrily-sadly, loudly-softly.**

b) **adverbs proper:** eg. **now-then, here-there, ever-never, up-down, in-out.**

## Lecture 15. Phraseology

The vocabulary of a language is enriched not only by words but also by phraseological units. Phraseological units are word-groups that cannot be made in the process of speech, they exist in the language as ready-made units. They are compiled in special dictionaries. The same as words phraseological units express a single notion and are used in a sentence as one part of it.

American and British lexicographers call such units «idioms». We can mention such dictionaries as: L.Smith «Words and Idioms», V.Collins «A Book of English Idioms» etc. In these dictionaries we can find words, peculiar in their semantics (idiomatic), side by side with word-groups and sentences. In these dictionaries they are arranged, as a rule, into different semantic groups.

Phraseological units can be classified according to the ways they are formed, according to the degree of the motivation of their meaning, according to their structure and according to their part-of-speech meaning.

### Ways of foreign phraseological units

A.V. Koonin classified phraseological units according to the way they are formed. He pointed out primary and secondary ways of forming phraseological units.

Primary ways of forming phraseological units are those when a unit is formed on the basis of a free word-group :

a) Most productive in Modern English is the formation of phraseological units by means of transferring the meaning of terminological word-groups, e.g. in cosmic technique we can point out the following phrases: «launching pad» in its terminological meaning is «стартовая площадка», in its transferred meaning - «отправной пункт», «to link up» - «стыковаться, стыковать космические корабли» in its transformed meaning it means -«знакомиться»;

b) a large group of phraseological units was formed from free word groups by transforming their meaning, e.g. «granny farm» - «пансионат для престарелых», «Trojan horse» - «компьютерная программа, преднамеренно составленная для повреждения компьютера»;

c) phraseological units can be formed by means of alliteration , e.g. «a sad sack» - «несчастный случай», «culture vulture» - «человек, интересующийся искусством», «fudge and nudge» - «уклончивость».

d) they can be formed by means of expressiveness, especially it is characteristic for forming interjections, e.g. «My aunt!», «Hear, hear !» etc

e) they can be formed by means of distorting a word group, e.g. «odds and ends» was formed from «odd ends»,

f) they can be formed by using archaisms, e.g. «in brown study» means «in gloomy meditation» where both components preserve their archaic meanings,

g) they can be formed by using a sentence in a different sphere of life, e.g. «that cock won't fight» can be used as a free word-group when it is used in sports (cock fighting ), it becomes a

phraseological unit when it is used in everyday life, because it is used metaphorically,  
h) they can be formed when we use some unreal image, e.g. «to have butterflies in the stomach» - «ИСПЫТЫВАТЬ ВОЛНЕНИЕ», «to have green fingers» - «преуспевать как садовод-любитель» etc.

i) they can be formed by using expressions of writers or politicians in everyday life, e.g. «corridors of power» (Snow), «American dream» (Alby) «locust years» (Churchil) , «the winds of change» (Mc Millan).

Secondary ways of forming phraseological units are those when a phraseological unit is formed on the basis of another phraseological unit; they are:

a) conversion, e.g. «to vote with one's feet» was converted into «vote with one's feet»;

b) changing the grammar form, e.g. «Make hay while the sun shines» is transferred into a verbal phrase - «to make hay while the sun shines»;

c) analogy, e.g. «Curiosity killed the cat» was transferred into «Care killed the cat»;

d) contrast, e.g. «cold surgery» - «a planned before operation» was formed by contrasting it with «acute surgery», «thin cat» - «a poor person» was formed by contrasting it with «fat cat»;

e) shortening of proverbs or sayings e.g. from the proverb «You can't make a silk purse out of a sow's ear» by means of clipping the middle of it the phraseological unit «to make a sow's ear» was formed with the meaning «ошибаться».

f) borrowing phraseological units from other languages, either as translation loans, e.g. «living space» (German), «to take the bull by the horns» (Latin) or by means of phonetic borrowings «meche blanche» (French), «corpse d'elite» (French), «sotto voce» (Italian) etc.

Phonetic borrowings among phraseological units refer to the bookish style and are not used very often.

### **Semantical classification of phraseological units**

Phraseological units can be classified according to the degree of motivation of their meaning. This classification was suggested by acad. V.V. Vinogradov for Russian phraseological units. He pointed out three types of phraseological units:

a) fusions where the degree of motivation is very low, we cannot guess the meaning of the whole from the meanings of its components, they are highly idiomatic and cannot be translated word for word into other languages, e.g. on Shank's mare - (on foot), at sixes and sevens - (in a mess) etc;

b) unities where the meaning of the whole can be guessed from the meanings of its components, but it is transferred (metaphorical or metonymical), e.g. to play the first fiddle (to be a leader in something), old salt (experienced sailor) etc;

c) collocations where words are combined in their original meaning but their combinations are different in different languages, e.g. cash and carry - (self-service shop), in a big way (in great degree) etc.

### **Structural classification of phraseological units**

Prof. A.I. Smirnitsky worked out structural classification of phraseological units, comparing them with words. He points out one-top units which he compares with derived words because derived words have only one root morpheme. He points out two-top units which he compares with compound words because in compound words we usually have two root morphemes. Among one-top units he points out three structural types;

a) units of the type «to give up» (verb + postposition type), e.g. to art up, to back up, to drop out, to nose out, to buy into, to sandwich in etc.;

b) units of the type «to be tired» . Some of these units remind the Passive Voice in their structure but they have different prepositions with them, while in the Passive Voice we can have

only prepositions «by» or «with», e.g. to be tired of, to be interested in, to be surprised at etc. There are also units in this type which remind free word-groups of the type «to be young», e.g. to be akin to, to be aware of etc. The difference between them is that the adjective «young» can be used as an attribute and as a predicative in a sentence, while the nominal component in such units can act only as a predicative. In these units the verb is the grammar centre and the second component is the semantic centre;

c) prepositional- nominal phraseological units. These units are equivalents of unchangeable words: prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, that is why they have no grammar centre, their semantic centre is the nominal part, e.g. on the doorstep (quite near), on the nose (exactly), in the course of, on the stroke of, in time, on the point of etc. In the course of time such units can become words, e.g. tomorrow, instead etc.

Among two-top units A.I. Smirnitsky points out the following structural types:

a) attributive-nominal such as: a month of Sundays, grey matter, a millstone round one's neck and many others. Units of this type are noun equivalents and can be partly or perfectly idiomatic. In partly idiomatic units (phrasisms) sometimes the first component is idiomatic, e.g. high road, in other cases the second component is idiomatic, e.g. first night. In many cases both components are idiomatic, e.g. red tape, blind alley, bed of nail, shot in the arm and many others.

b) verb-nominal phraseological units, e.g. to read between the lines, to speak BBC, to sweep under the carpet etc. The grammar centre of such units is the verb, the semantic centre in many cases is the nominal component, e.g. to fall in love. In some units the verb is both the grammar and the semantic centre, e.g. not to know the ropes. These units can be perfectly idiomatic as well, e.g. to burn one's boats, to vote with one's feet, to take to the cleaners' etc.

Very close to such units are word-groups of the type to have a glance, to have a smoke. These units are not idiomatic and are treated in grammar as a special syntactical combination, a kind of aspect.

c) phraseological repetitions, such as : now or never, part and parcel, country and western etc. Such units can be built on antonyms, e.g. ups and downs, back and forth; often they are formed by means of alliteration, e.g. cakes and ale, as busy as a bee. Components in repetitions are joined by means of conjunctions. These units are equivalents of adverbs or adjectives and have no grammar centre. They can also be partly or perfectly idiomatic, e.g. cool as a cucumber (partly), bread and butter (perfectly).

Phraseological units the same as compound words can have more than two tops (stems in compound words), e.g. to take a back seat, a peg to hang a thing on, lock, stock and barrel, to be a shadow of one's own self, at one's own sweet will.

### **Syntactical classification of phraseological units**

Phraseological units can be classified as parts of speech. This classification was suggested by I.V. Arnold. Here we have the following groups:

a) noun phraseologisms denoting an object, a person, a living being, e.g. bullet train, latchkey child, redbrick university, Green Berets,

b) verb phraseologisms denoting an action, a state, a feeling, e.g. to break the log-jam, to get on somebody's coattails, to be on the beam, to nose out, to make headlines,

c) adjective phraseologisms denoting a quality, e.g. loose as a goose, dull as lead,

d) adverb phraseological units, such as : with a bump, in the soup, like a dream, like a dog with two tails,

e) preposition phraseological units, e.g. in the course of, on the stroke of,

f) interjection phraseological units, e.g. «Catch me!», «Well, I never!» etc.

In I.V. Arnold's classification there are also sentence equivalents, proverbs, sayings and quotations, e.g. «The sky is the limit», «What makes him tick», » I am easy». Proverbs are

usually metaphorical, e.g. «Too many cooks spoil the broth», while sayings are as a rule non-metaphorical, e.g. «Where there is a will there is a way».

## Lecture 16. Lexicography.

The theory and practice of compiling dictionaries is called lexicography. The history of compiling dictionaries for English comes as far back as the Old English period, where we can find glosses of religious books / interlinear translations from Latin into English/. Regular bilingual dictionaries began to appear in the 15-th century /Anglo-Latin, Anglo-French, Anglo-German/.

The first unilingual dictionary explaining difficult words appeared in 1604, the author was Robert Cawdry, a schoolmaster. He compiled his dictionary for schoolchildren. In 1721 an English scientist and writer Nathan Bailey published the first etymological dictionary which explained the origin of English words. It was the first scientific dictionary, it was compiled for philologists.

In 1775 an English scientist compiled a famous explanatory dictionary. Its author was Samuel Johnson. Every word in his dictionary was illustrated by examples from English literature, the meanings of words were clear from the contexts in which they were used.. The dictionary was a great success and it influenced the development of lexicography in all countries. The dictionary influenced normalization of the English vocabulary. But at the same time it helped to preserve the English spelling in its conservative form.

In 1858 one of the members of the English philological society Dr. Trench raised the question of compiling a dictionary including all the words existing in the language. The philological society adopted the decision to compile the dictionary and the work started. More than a thousand people took part in collecting examples, and 26 years later in 1884 the first volume was published. It contained words beginning with «A» and «B». The last volume was published in 1928 that is 70 years after the decision to compile it was adopted. The dictionary was called NED and contained 12 volumes.

In 1933 the dictionary was republished under the title «The Oxford English Dictionary», because the work on the dictionary was conducted in Oxford. This dictionary contained 13 volumes. As the dictionary was very large and terribly expensive scientists continued their work and compiled shorter editions of the dictionary: «A Shorter Oxford Dictionary» consisting of two volumes. It had the same number of entries, but far less examples from literature. They also compiled «A Concise Oxford Dictionary» consisting of one volume and including only modern words and no examples from literature.

The American lexicography began to develop much later, at the end of the 18-th century. The most famous American English dictionary was compiled by Noah Webster. He was an active statesman and public man and he published his first dictionary in 1806. He went on with his work on the dictionary and in 1828 he published a two-volume dictionary. He tried to simplify the English spelling and transcription. He introduced the alphabetical system of transcription where he used letters and combinations of letters instead of transcription signs. He denoted vowels in closed syllables by the corresponding vowels, e.g. / a/, /e/, / i/, / o/, /u/. He denoted vowels in the open syllable by the same letters, but with a dash above them, e.g. / a/, /e/, /i/, /o/, /u/. He denoted vowels in the position before /r/ as the same letters with two dots above them, e.g. / a/, /o/ and by the letter «e» with two dots above it for the combinations «er», «ir», «ur» because they are pronounced identically. The same tendency is preserved for other sounds : /u:/ is denoted by /oo/, /y/ is used for the sound /j/ etc.

### Classification of dictionaries

All dictionaries are divided into linguistic and encyclopedic dictionaries. Encyclopedic dictionaries describe different objects, phenomena, people and give some data about them.

Linguistic dictionaries describe vocabulary units, their semantic structure, their origin, their usage. Words are usually given in the alphabetical order.

Linguistic dictionaries are divided into general and specialized. To general dictionaries two most widely used dictionaries belong: explanatory and translation dictionaries. Specialized dictionaries include dictionaries of synonyms, antonyms, collocations, word-frequency, neologisms, slang, pronouncing, etymological, phraseological and others.

All types of dictionaries can be unilingual (excepting translation ones) if the explanation is given in the same language, bilingual if the explanation is given in another language and also they can be polilingual.

There are a lot of explanatory dictionaries (NED, SOD, COD, NID, N.G. Wyld's «Universal Dictionary» and others). In explanatory dictionaries the entry consists of the spelling, transcription, grammatical forms, meanings, examples, phraseology. Pronunciation is given either by means of the International Transcription System or in British Phonetic Notation which is different in each large dictionary, e.g. /o:/ can be indicated as /aw/, /or/, /oh/, /o/. etc.

Translation dictionaries give words and their equivalents in the other language. There are English-Russian dictionaries by I.R. Galperin, by Y. Apresyan and others. Among general dictionaries we can also mention Learner's dictionaries. They began to appear in the second half of the 20-th century. The most famous is «The Advanced Learner's Dictionary» by A.S. Hornby. It is a unilingual dictionary based on COD, for advanced foreign learners and language teachers. It gives data about grammatical and lexical valency of words. Specialized dictionaries of synonyms are also widely used, one of them is «A Dictionary of English Synonyms and Synonymous Expressions» by R. Soule. Another famous one is «Webster's Dictionary of Synonyms». These are unilingual dictionaries. The best known bilingual dictionary of synonyms is «English Synonyms» compiled by Y. Apresyan.

In 1981 «The Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English» was compiled, where words are given in 14 semantic groups of everyday nature. Each word is defined in detail, its usage is explained and illustrated, synonyms, antonyms are presented also. It describes 15000 items, and can be referred to dictionaries of synonyms and to explanatory dictionaries.

Phraseological dictionaries describe idioms and colloquial phrases, proverbs. Some of them have examples from literature. Some lexicographers include not only word-groups but also anomalies among words. In «The Oxford Dictionary of English Proverbs» each proverb is illustrated by a lot of examples, there are stylistic references as well. The dictionary by Vizetelli gives definitions and illustrations, but different meanings of polisemantic units are not given. The most famous bilingual dictionary of phraseology was compiled by A.V. Koonin. It is one of the best phraseological dictionaries.

Etymological dictionaries trace present-day words to the oldest forms of these words and forms of these words in other languages. One of the best etymological dictionaries was compiled by W. Skeat.

Pronouncing dictionaries record only pronunciation. The most famous is D. Jones' s «Pronouncing Dictionary».

Dictionaries of neologisms are : a four-volume «Supplement to NED» by Burchfield, «The Longman Register of New Words»/1990/, «Bloomsbury Dictionary of New Words» /1996/.

## **5. Информационные и образовательные технологии**

Изучение курса рекомендуется проводить в такой последовательности

- а) ознакомление с содержанием тем по рабочей программе
- б) внимательное изучение рекомендуемой специальной литературой конспектирование прочитанного материала
- в) выполнение текстовых заданий по каждой теме дисциплины

В учебном процессе используются следующие образовательные технологии.



- лекции
- семинары (практические занятия) на которых обсуждается основные проблемы, освещенные в лекциях и сформулированные в домашних заданиях
- групповая и индивидуальная работа по исследованию курса, и анализу освоения теорий, концепций и проблемы курса
- решение упражнений, задач ситуативных моделей
- проведение дискуссий, мозговых штурмов и круглых столов

<b>№ п/п</b>	<b>Наименование раздела</b>	<b>Виды учебной работы</b>	<b>Формируемые компетенции (указывается код компетенции)</b>	<b>Информационные и образовательные технологии</b>
<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
1	The object of Lexicology	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
2	The historical survey of the English Vocabulary	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
3	Borrowings	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
4	General Characteristics of the Word formation in English	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
5	Affixation in English Phraseology	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
6	Word composition	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
7	Conversion	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
8	Shortening	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
9	Blending, Sound imitation	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.

10	Sound and stress interchange	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
11	<i>Back formation</i>	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
12	Semasiology	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
13	<i>Change of meaning</i>	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
14	Polysemy Homonym, Synonym, Antonym	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
15	Phraseology	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
16	Lexicography	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.

## **6. Фонд оценочных средств для текущего, рубежного и итогового контролей по итогам освоения дисциплины**

**Правила поведения в классе:** Согласно Общему положению МУК, преподаватель ожидает, что: студенты не опаздывают на занятия, не пропускают занятия без уважительной причины, отрабатывают пропущенные занятия по согласованию с преподавателем. Во время занятий нельзя разговаривать, пользоваться сотовыми телефонами, покидать аудиторию, слушать музыку, жевать резинку, кушать, читать газеты и журналы...

**Политика академического поведения и этики:** Быть толерантным, уважать мнение окружающих. Возражения формулировать в корректной форме. Плагиат и другие формы нечестной работы недопустимы. К плагиату относится следующее: отсутствие ссылок при использовании печатных и электронных материалов, цитат, мыслей других авторов. Недопустимы подкашивание и списывание во время тестов, экзаменов, занятий; сдача экзамена за другого студента, неразрешенное копирование материалов. В случае нарушения одного из вышеперечисленных пунктов студент не аттестовывается по курсу.

**Требования к студенту при изучении курса:** прочитать необходимую литературу, выполнить весь комплекс практических работ, посетить все занятия, своевременно сдать СРС и СРСП.

**6.1. Перечень компетенций с указанием этапов их формирования в процессе освоения дисциплины**

№ п/п	Контролируемые разделы дисциплины (модулей)	Код контролируемой компетенции (компетенций)	Наименование оценочного средства
1.	<b>Модуль 1</b> The object of Lexicology The historical survey of the English Vocabulary Borrowings General Characteristics of the Word formation in English Affixation in English Phraseology Word composition Conversion Shortening	ОК-1, СЛК-2, ПК-18, ПК-21, ОК-5	Балл
2.	<b>Модуль 2</b> Blending, Sound imitation Sound and stress interchange <i>Back formation</i> Semasiology <i>Change of meaning</i> Homonym ,Synonym, Antonym Phraseology Lexicography	ОК-1, СЛК-2, ПК-18, ПК-21, ОК-5	Балл

**6.2. Методические материалы, определяющие процедуры оценивания знаний, умений, навыков и (или) опыта деятельности**

*Текущий контроль* осуществляется в виде опроса, участие в дискуссии на семинаре, выполнение самостоятельной работы и других видов работ, указанных в УМК, а также посещаемости студентов занятий - оценивается до 80 баллов.

*Рубежный контроль* (сдача модулей) проводится преподавателем и представляет собой письменный контроль, либо компьютерное тестирование знаний по теоретическому и практическому материалу. Контрольные вопросы рубежного контроля включают полный объём материала части дисциплины (модулей), позволяющий оценить знания, обучающихся по изученному материалу и

соответствовать УМК дисциплины, которое оценивается до 20 баллов.

**Итоговый контроль** (экзамен) знаний принимается по экзаменационным билетам, включающий теоретические вопросы и практическое задание, и оценивается до 20 баллов.

Форма контроля	Срок отчетности	Макс. количество баллов	
		За одну работу	Всего
Текущий контроль:			
- опрос	1, 2, 3, 4 недели	10 баллов	До 40 баллов
- участие в дискуссии на семинаре	3, 4, 5, 6, 7 недели	6 баллов	До 30 баллов
- посещаемость	1,2,3,4,5,6,7 недель	0,2	10 баллов
Рубежный контроль: (сдача модуля)	8 неделя	100%×0,2=20 баллов	
Итого за I модуль			До 100 баллов

Форма контроля	Срок отчетности	Макс. количество баллов	
		За одну работу	Всего
Текущий контроль:			
- опрос	9, 10, 11, 12 недели	10 баллов	До 40 баллов
- участие в дискуссии на семинаре	13, 14, 15, 16, недели	6 баллов	До 30 баллов
- посещаемость	9,10,11,12,13,14,15,16, недели	0,2	10 баллов
Рубежный контроль: (сдача модуля)	15 неделя	100%×0,2=20 баллов	
Итого за II модуль			До 100 баллов

<b>Итоговый контроль (экзамен)</b>	<b>Сессия</b>	$ИК = Бср \times 0,8 + Бэкз \times 0,2$
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Экзаменатор выставляет по результатам балльной системы в семестре экзаменационную оценку без сдачи экзамена, набравшим суммарное количество баллов, достаточное для выставления оценки от 55 и выше баллов – автоматически (при согласии обучающегося).

*Полученный совокупный результат (максимум 100 баллов) конвертируется в традиционную шкалу:*

Рейтинговая оценка (баллов)	Оценка экзамена
От 0 - до 54	Неудовлетворительно
от 55 - до 69 включительно	Удовлетворительно
от 70 – до 84 включительно	Хорошо
от 85 – до 100	Отлично

### **6.3. Описание показателей и критериев оценивания компетенций на различных этапах их формирования, описание шкал оценивания (На усмотрение ППС):**

Текущий контроль (0 - 80 баллов)

**При оценивании посещаемости, опроса и участия в дискуссии на семинаре учитываются:**

- посещаемость (1 балл);
- степень раскрытия содержания материала (4 баллов);
- изложение материала (грамотность речи, точность использования терминологии и символики, логическая последовательность изложения материала (6 баллов);
- знание теории изученных вопросов, сформированность и устойчивость используемых при ответе умений и навыков (8 баллов).

Рубежный контроль (0 – 20 баллов)

**При оценивании контрольной работы учитывается:**

- полнота выполненной работы (задание выполнено не полностью и/или допущены две и более ошибки или три и более неточности) – 8 баллов;
- обоснованность содержания и выводов работы (задание выполнено полностью, но обоснование содержания и выводов недостаточны, но рассуждения верны) – 8 баллов;
- работа выполнена полностью, в рассуждениях и обосновании нет пробелов или ошибок, возможна одна неточность - 8 баллов.

Другие виды учебной деятельности (доклады, рефераты, презентации) 10 баллов

**Итоговый контроль (экзаменационная сессия) - ИК = Бср × 0,8 + Бэкз × 0,2**

При проведении итогового контроля обучающийся должен ответить на 3 вопроса (два вопроса теоретического характера и один вопрос практического характера).

При оценивании ответа на вопрос теоретического характера учитывается:

- теоретическое содержание не освоено, знание материала носит фрагментарный характер, наличие грубых ошибок в ответе (2 балла);
- теоретическое содержание освоено частично, допущено не более двух-трех недочетов (4 балла);
- теоретическое содержание освоено почти полностью, допущено не более одного-двух недочетов, но обучающийся смог бы их исправить самостоятельно (6 баллов);
- теоретическое содержание освоено полностью, ответ построен по собственному плану (8 баллов).

При оценивании ответа на вопрос практического характера учитывается:

- ответ содержит менее 20% правильного решения (4 балла);
- ответ содержит 21-89 % правильного решения (6 баллов);
- ответ содержит 90% и более правильного решения (10 баллов).

#### **6.4. Типовые контрольные задания или иные материалы, необходимые для оценки знаний, умений, навыков и (или) опыта деятельности.**

**Вопросы к модулям**

**Вопросы к 1 модулю**

**The third course**

**Group name:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Student name:** \_\_\_\_\_

#### **Task I. Suffix**

1. Which of the following words cannot use the suffix –ful?
  - a. color-
  - b. doubt-
  - c. hope-
  - d. joy-
  - e. value-
  
2. Which of the following cannot use the suffix –ive?
  - a. conclus-
  - b. decis-
  - c. impress-
  - d. reduct-
  - e. reveal-
  
3. Which of the following cannot use the suffix –ial?
  - a. commerc-
  - b. debat-
  - c. mart-
  - d. part-
  - e. spac-
  
4. Which of the following cannot use the suffix –ure?
  - a. clos-
  - b. depart-
  - c. fliss-
  - d. lect-

- e. polit-
5. Which of the following cannot use the suffix –ion?  
a. collect-  
b. correct-  
c. exhaust-  
d. predict-  
e. put-
6. Which of the following cannot use the suffix –ance?  
a. allow-  
b. brief-  
c. deliver-  
d. repent-  
e. vigil-
7. Which of the following cannot use the suffix –ness?  
a. cheerful-  
b. dark-  
c. gentle-  
d. honest-  
e. small-
8. Which of the following cannot use the suffix –ward?  
a. down-  
b. for-  
c. heaven-  
d. home-  
e. house-
9. Which of the following cannot use the suffix –less?  
a. care-  
b. fear-  
c. grand-  
d. power-  
e. thought-

### Task II Negative Prefixes

- Everybody thinks that John and his brother are \_\_\_\_ guys.  
A. Unpleasant  
B. Displeasant
- It's quite \_\_\_\_ to please her.  
A. Impossible  
B. Unimpossible
- This was one of the most \_\_\_\_\_ conferences I've ever participated in.  
A. Inorganized  
B. Disorganized
- John and Marry are \_\_\_\_\_ friends.  
A. Unseparable  
B. Inseparable
- Our society should punish \_\_\_\_\_ politicians.

- A. Unhonest  
B. Dishonest
6. She was fired because she was \_\_\_\_\_.  
A. Unefficient  
B. Inefficient
7. We couldn't understand why he made such \_\_\_\_\_ remarks.  
A. Impersonal  
B. Impersonal
8. It's \_\_\_\_\_ to shout at people in the street.  
A. Impolite  
B. Unpolite
9. That teacher feels awful when \_\_\_\_\_ visitors come to attend her class.  
A. Unexpected  
B. Unexpected
10. If you are \_\_\_\_\_, you shouldn't apply for this job.  
A. Inexperienced  
B. B. unexperienced

### Вопросы к 2 модулю

#### The third course

Group name: \_\_\_\_\_

Student name: \_\_\_\_\_

#### Task 1. Make compounds.

- |           |        |       |
|-----------|--------|-------|
| 1. Deer   | way    | door  |
| 2. Bait   | ball   | base  |
| 3. Cut    | deep   | short |
| 4. Stack  | hall   | hay   |
| 5. Boat   | truck  | sail  |
| 6. Basket | paper  | ball  |
| 7. Air    | clouds | plane |
| 8. Bow    | plant  | rain  |
| 9. Cold   | ball   | snow  |
| 10. High  | wind   | way   |
| 11. Down  | city   | town  |
| 12. End   | start  | week  |
| 13. Ring  | bell   | door  |
| 14. Happy | ground | play  |
| 15. Thing | not    | any   |

#### Task 2. Find compound words

- |              |                 |                 |
|--------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| 1. Afternoon | A. compound     | B. not compound |
| 2. Homemade  | A. compound     | B. not compound |
| 3. Penguin   | A. compound     | B. not compound |
| 4. Teammate  | A. compound     | B. not compound |
| 5. Seaside   | A. not compound | B. compound     |



6. Snowflake	A. not compound	B. compound
7. Practice	A. compound	B. not compound
8. Paragraph	A. compound	B. not compound
9. Little field	A. not compound	B. compound
10. Hungry	A. not compound	B. compound

### Вопросы к экзамену

- Types of Lexicology
- General lexicology
- Special lexicology
- Modern lexicology
- Historical lexicology
- Comparative lexicology
- The historical survey of the English vocabulary
- Borrowings
- Latin borrowings.
- French borrowings.
- Italian borrowings.
- Scandinavian borrowings.
- German borrowings.
- Russian borrowings.
- Greek borrowings
- Spanish borrowings
- Semasiology.
- Polysemy.
- Homonyms.
- Synonyms.
- Antonyms.
- Words of Indo-European and Common Germanic origin
- Syncopé
- Sound imitation
- Types of meaning
- Referential approach
- Functional approach
- Stress interchange
- Principle ways of word formation
- Connotational meaning of a word
- Evaluative connotation
- Intensifying connotation
- Phraseological Units
- Academician Vinogradov's classification
- Professor Amosova's classification
- Sound interchange
- Word formation
- Abbreviation
- Homographs
- Affixation
- Suffixes
- Prefixes
- Word composition
- Neutral compounds

45. Morphological compounds
46. Syntactic compounds
47. Idiomatic and non idiomatic compounds
48. Conversion
49. Shortening
50. Clippings
51. Two approaches of the meaning
52. Relation of lexicology with other branches of linguistics
53. Homonym proper
54. Metonymy
55. Apocope
56. Hyperbole
57. Correlated words
58. The semantic core of the word
59. Blending
60. Paradigm
61. Aphaeresis
62. Back formation
63. The object of lexicology
64. Metaphor
65. English Professor Smith's Classification (Phraseological Units)
66. Acronyms
67. Euphemism
68. Denotational meaning of a words
69. Litotes
70. Sources of synonyms
71. Homophones
72. Lexical homonyms
73. Lexico-grammatical homonyms
74. Grammatical homonyms
75. Absolute antonyms
76. Derivational antonyms
77. English lexicography
78. Types of dictionaries
79. Explanatory dictionary
80. Phraseological dictionary
81. Etymological dictionary
82. Ideographic dictionary
83. Reverse dictionary
84. Pronouncing dictionary
85. Dictionary of slangs
86. Encyclopedic dictionary

## **7. Учебно-методическое и информационное обеспечение дисциплины**

### **7.1 Список источников и литературы**

Занятия по дисциплине «Лексикология» проводятся в аудиториях. Дополнительно можно использовать фонд библиотеки университета, читальный зал и информацию всемирной информационной сети Интернет, использовать библиотечный фонд периодической литературы. Изучение данной дисциплины библиотечным фондом МУК полностью не обеспечивается, исходя из чего необходимо дополнительное использование

библиотечных фондов Национальной библиотеки и Республиканской научно-технической библиотеки, а также материалом и ресурсного отдела фонда “Сорос-Кыргызстан”.

### **Рекомендуемая литература:**

- Антрушина Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка. М, 2005.
- Никитин М.В. Курс лингвистической семантики. СПб., 2006.
- Швейцер А.Д. Литературный английский язык в США и Англии. М., 2008.
- Кобозева И.М. Лингвистическая семантика. М., 2000
- Амосова Н.Н. Основы английской фразеологии. М., 2001.

### **Дополнительная литература:**

- Ginzburg R.S et andere. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. М., 2006.
- Английский язык: 2770 упражнений и тестов для школьников и поступающих в вузы/под ред. Н.Г. Брюсова, И.М. Васильева, И.Ю. Истомина и др. М.: Дрофа, 2009. 432с.
- Цветкова И.В., Клепальченко И.А., Мыльцева Н.А. Английский язык. Топики, тексты для чтения, экзаменационные вопросы.
- Разработки кафедры лингвистики и межкультурной коммуникации.

## **7.2. Перечень ресурсов информационно- телекоммуникационной сети «Интернет», необходимый для освоения дисциплины**

### **Электронные журналы:**

Образование. Лингвистика. Технологии & Коммуникация <http://alumni.iubip.ru/Sokolova/index.htm> Proficiency in English communication, English for Academic purposes [http://www.esp-world.info/ESP\\_list.htm](http://www.esp-world.info/ESP_list.htm) Language Learning & Technology <http://lt.msu.edu/> Internet TESL Journal (For ESL-EFL Teachers) <http://iteslj.org/> Reading in a Foreign Language <http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/rfl/>

### **Интернет-сайты: Словари.**

<http://www.englishclub.com> <http://www.en.islcollctive.com> <http://www.rfcmd.ru/dictionary>  
<http://idioms.ru> <http://www.multitran.ru> <http://online.multilex.ru> <http://www.lingvo.ru>  
<https://www.booksite.ru/fulltext/1/001/008/069/404.htm>  
<http://www.bse.chemport.ru> <http://www.shootdotedit.com> <http://www.entrepreneur.com>  
<http://www.nytimes.com> <http://www.bbc.com> <http://www.profitbooks.net>  
<https://www.examen.ru/add/manual/school-subjects/languages/russian/morfologiya-slovoobrazovanie-leksika-stilistika/leksika-i-frazeologiya-leksikologiya/>  
<https://www.google.com/>  
<http://www.multitran.ru/>  
<http://kyrlibnet.kg/ru/ec/>  
<http://www.biblioteka.kg/>  
<http://www.iprbookshop.ru>  
<http://www.ilim.box/>  
<http://www.who.int./hinari/en/>  
<http://www.search.epnet.com/>  
<http://www.cambridge.org/core>  
<https://library.iuk.kg/ru/>

## **8. Перечень учебно-методического обеспечения для самостоятельной работы обучающихся.**

### **8.1. Планы практических (семинарских) и лабораторных занятий. Методические указания по организации и проведению**

Прежде чем приступить к выполнению семинарских и лабораторных заданий необходимо изучить материал лекций и сопоставить его с трактовками, предлагаемыми в источниках в списке рекомендованной (основной и дополнительной) литературы (страницы указываются после каждой темы в практикуме и в учебно-методическом пособии). Следует учитывать тот факт, что отводимые на изучение дисциплины часы не позволяют охватить все существующие на сегодняшний день подходы и взгляды на развитие зарубежной литературы. Некоторые из альтернативных точек зрения кратко формулируются в теоретической части раздела, некоторые излагаются в практической части в виде отдельных цитат или терминологических толкований, предлагаемых для обсуждения на семинарских занятиях. При наличии времени различные трактовки могут быть дополнительно включены в обсуждение в виде докладов и рефератов на усмотрение преподавателя.

В процессе освоения дисциплины необходимо регулярно обращаться к списку терминов, используемых в лекционных темах, с тем, чтобы к концу изучения курса каждым слушателем был составлен полный глоссарий терминов. При возникновении затруднений в подготовке к семинарским занятиям рекомендуется обратиться к учебным пособиям и восстановить утраченные знания по данным темам.

#### **The following issues are offered to the learners for individual work:**

1	Affixation
2	Conversion
3	Word composition
4	Main types of English dictionaries
5	Methods and procedures of dictionary compiling
6	Antonyms
7	Homonyms
8	International words
9	Denotations
10	Connotations
11	Similarity
12	Polysemy
13	Change of the meaning
14	Euphemism
15	Proverbs
16	English words and their background

### **8.2. Методические указания для обучающихся по освоению дисциплины**

Содержание самостоятельной работы студентов с преподавателем очной формы обучения в значительной мере определяется заданиями, получаемыми от преподавателей в рамках аудиторных занятий. В ходе самостоятельной работы каждый студент обязан

прочитать основную и по возможности дополнительную литературу по изучаемой теме. Выделить непонятные термины, найти их значение в литературе. Студент должен готовиться к предстоящему семинарскому занятию по всем, обозначенным в учебно-методическом комплексе вопросам. Не проясненные (дискуссионные) в ходе самостоятельной работы вопросы следует выписать в конспект и впоследствии прояснить их на семинарских занятиях или индивидуальных консультациях с ведущим преподавателем.

К особенностям самостоятельной работы очной формы обучения относятся:

- ✓ использование электронной библиотеки и иных электронных ресурсов;
- ✓ активное участие в научно-практических конференциях, научных конкурсах, олимпиадах, факультативных курсах;
- ✓ сбор, обобщение и анализ нормативных источников и иных материалов для участия в диалогах, дискуссиях, ролевых играх, предусмотренных планами практических занятий.
- ✓ использование опыта своей практической деятельности для подготовки к аудиторным занятиям. Объем самостоятельной работы студентов очной формы обучения, предусмотренный учебным планом, определяет важнейшее значение данного вида учебной деятельности. В рамках самостоятельной работы студент, обучающийся очно, работает со значительными объемами информации, выполняет поставленные перед ним учебные задания, осуществляет подготовку к промежуточной аттестации.

При этом студент использует все предусмотренные рабочей программой учебной дисциплины виды самостоятельной работы с учетом рекомендаций, полученных им от преподавателя в рамках практического занятия.

Виды самостоятельной работы по всем темам:

- ✓ изучение учебной литературы;
- ✓ изучение дополнительной научной литературы;
- ✓ подготовка презентаций Power Point;
- ✓ выполнение заданий преподавателя;

Одной из интересных форм самостоятельной работы студентов является изучение наизусть топики. Эта форма работы дает возможность закрепления знаний, речевую практику, словарного запаса, полученных на занятиях, расширения эрудиции у студентов, уяснения терминологии по дисциплине, активизации творческих возможностей студента. Самостоятельное составление топики студентами осуществляется после освоения половины тематических занятий по дисциплине. Содержание и сдача тестов фиксируется и

проверяется преподавателем. На семинарских занятиях все студенческие тесты оглашаются и разбираются.

### 8.3 Методические рекомендации по подготовке письменных работ

#### Методические рекомендации по СРС

Тематические топики являются важным процессом самостоятельной работы студентов. Она позволяет расширить и углубить знания, полученные при аудиторной форме занятий по изучаемому курсу, проверить умение студента самостоятельно выделять и структурировать определенную тематику, работать со справочной, учебной, научно-исследовательской литературой, специфическими по форме (особенно электронными) и содержанию (в данном случае – правовыми) источниками, анализировать и синтезировать информацию.

Тематика топиков является примерной (ориентировочной). Тематика в значительной степени повторяет содержание аудиторных занятий и экзаменационных вопросов. Это определяется тем, что, во-первых, она является ориентировочной, а во-вторых, дает возможность использовать для подготовки к итоговым контрольным занятиям максимально использовать все формы учебной работы.

В работе формулируется основная тема, и ставятся задачи по ее реализации, выделяется объект и предмет исследования. Основная цель работы посвящена раскрытию темы. Требования по структуре топика: каждый топик должен иметь минимум 1 страницу текста на английском языке. Простые, не усложненные предложения должны объяснить и раскрыть основную тему, которая написано каждым студентом индивидуально.

#### Примерные критерии оценки СРС

Таблица

Параметры оценивания	Кол-во баллов
	Максимальное
Содержание текста	4
Умение кратко и четко изложить основные вопросы и задачи	6
<b>Итого</b>	<b>10</b>

### 8.4 . Иные материалы

В конце курса дисциплины, студенты должны написать свои рефераты, доклады по изученным темам.

## 9. Материально-техническое обеспечение дисциплины

В качестве материально-технического обеспечения дисциплины указывается необходимое для обучения оборудование, демонстрационные приборы, мультимедийные средства, учебные фильмы, плакаты, наглядные пособия; требования к аудиториям – компьютерные классы, академические или специально оборудованные аудитории и лаборатории, наличие доски и т.д.

## 10. Глоссарий.

### Abbreviation

Words which are formed from initial letters of phrasal terms. E.g. MP - member of Parliament  
acronyms: read as if they were words. E.g. UNO - ['ju:nou]  
initialisms: items read as individual letters. E.g. B.B.C - ['bi:'bi:'si:]

### Affix

Non-root morphemes used for forming new words which belong to a different part of speech or to a different subcategorisation group within the same part of speech. According to their position they can be prefixes (Reread) and suffixes (developMENT)

### Amelioration

A result of change of meaning in connotation, positive connotations acquired by the word previously neutral or with negative connotations

### Antonym

A kind of oppositives. Words of the same part of speech and the same semantic field, denotative components of LSVs of which render contradictory or contrary notions. Contradictory antonyms are mutually opposed and deny each other. E.g. *impatient* = *not patient*. Contrary antonyms denote opposite notions on a scale. They are gradable, as there are possibilities between them. E.g. *cold-cool-warm-hot*

### Canadianism

A specific group of lexemes used only in Canadian variant of English  
Causes of semantic change

**Extralinguistic:** a) appearance of new things. They are called by already existing words which denote things and notions in some way correlated with new things. Thus the old word acquires a new meaning. E.g. the meaning 'piece of news obtained and published by one newspaper before its competitors' entered the semantic structure of the word *scoop* only after the appearance of newspapers and competition among them for sensational news: b) appearance of new knowledge about familiar things. E.g. the word *earth* developed the meaning 'the third planet from the sun' only after people learnt more about our solar system.

Linguistic: a) ellipsis, b) linguistic analogy, c) discrimination of synonyms

### Compound

The morphemic structure of a word with two or more stems, simple or derived. E.g. *shockproof*, *self-praise*, *frost-bitten*

### Compound words

Words consisting of two (or more) stems which can be used as free forms. E.g. *world-famous*, *to blacklist*, *a holdall*, *psycho-therapy*

### Connotation

The part of word-meaning, often optional, which conveys the speaker's attitude to social circumstances and the appropriate functional style, his approval or disapproval of his speech partner or the object spoken, his emotions or the degree of intensity. In fact it is implicit information about the communicative conditions under which the word may be appropriately used without causing puzzlement, embarrassment or misunderstanding. You wouldn't make friends with a politician whose party you call *a clique*. You will sound ridiculous if you turn to your very

grown-up boss with ' *Your mummy wants you on the phone* '. Your little son will not understand you if you say: ' *Show me your abdomen* ' .

### **Conversion**

The way of forming words of one part of speech from words of another part of speech without any morphological change in their basic forms. However, grammatical paradigms would be different, so conversion may be defined as a formation of the new word through change in its paradigm.

### **Conversives**

words denoting names of unsymmetrical relations or names of arguments of these relations which acquire opposite meanings in these relations. E.g. *to buy - to sell, to give-to receive* ( names of relations), *an addressee -an addresser, the boss -an employee* ( names of arguments)

### **Denotation**

The conceptual content of a word-meaning.

### **Derivational compound**

The morphemic structure of a word based on a phrasal structure; words of a phrase are joined together by composition or affixation. E.g. *kind heart = ( kind+heart)+ ed =kind-hearted, dark-haired, good-neighbourly*

### **Euphemism**

a word which indirectly names an object which is unmentionable for some reasons

### **Extension of meaning**

A result of change of meaning in denotation; a word with a previous meaning of a smaller extension acquires a meaning with a larger extension. E.g. Target -1) 'мишень для стрельбы из лука' 2) 'любая мишень'

### **Generalization of meaning**

A result of change of meaning in denotation, a process in accordance with which the word previously used in some special sublanguage is transferred into a national language, often with an extension of meaning

### **Homonymy**

words which are different in meaning but similar in a) sound-form, b) spelling, c) both. Meanings of homonyms are not correlated

A result of semantic change in denotation; restriction of the extension of the word-meaning. E.g. *fowl* meant in OE 'any bird'. now it means 'domestic hen or cock'

### **Phraseological fusions**

Set-expressions which are characterised by idiomaticity ( lack of motivation: the meaning of the expression is not deducible from the direct meanings of the components) and structural stability: *a dead heat, to pull smb's leg, to get the wind up*

### **Phrasemes**

Set-expressions which are built on the pattern Adj.+N with one of the components having its direct meaning. The other component, usually the adjective, is used in a phraseologically bound meaning which is realized only in combination with the noun - part of the set-phrase: *small talk* (пустая, светская болтовня), *mellow judgement* (мудрое, снисходительное суждение), *and material evidence* (важные доказательства)

### **Paradigm**

System of word-forms ( grammatical forms) of a word or part of speech. In a wide sense - any system.

### **Polysemy**

An inherent property of a natural language in which one linguistic unit (a word, a morpheme, a phrase, a sentence) is associated with a number of meanings. In lexicology polysemy refers to lexemes, usually word having more than one meanings. The meanings are called lexico-semantic (or lexico-grammatic) variants and all together they constitute a semantic structure of a polysemantic word

### **Referent**



A thing, phenomenon, object, event of the outside world, to which language units refer

Semantic change

The process of enriching the semantic structure of a polysemantic word with new meanings; old meanings may become obsolete and fall out of use.

**Seme**

A component of word-meaning which is not expressed formally and can be singled out only relationally, while comparing the word-meanings of lexemes of one and the same semantic field

**Set-expressions (phraseology)**

Ready-made phrases with different degree of motivation of meaning - from completely unmotivated (idioms) to partially motivated (through direct meaning of one of the components or metaphorical extension) and a certain but not absolute stability of phrase structure.

**Slang**

Language of highly colloquial type, the lower, most informal layer of the national language (general slang) and of jargon, which uses new words or current words in special uses.

**Specialization of meaning**

The result of a semantic change in accordance with which the word of a national language passes into a sublanguage used by a limited group of people, with a certain modification of meaning