

Федеральное государственное бюджетное образовательное учреждение
высшего профессионального образования
Московский государственный университет имени М.В.Ломоносова
филиал МГУ в г. Севастополе
кафедра иностранных языков

УТВЕРЖДЕНО
на 20 22 - 20 23 учебный год
Методическим советом Филиала

Протокол № 8 от «28» 06 2022 г.

Заместитель директора по учебной работе


Заведующий кафедрой




РАБОЧАЯ ПРОГРАММА ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ

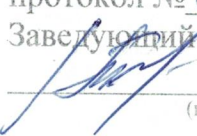
Наименование дисциплины:
СПЕЦИФИКА НАУЧНОГО ТЕКСТА


Уровень высшего образования:
БАКАЛАВРИАТ

Направление подготовки:
45.03.01. «ФИЛОЛОГИЯ»

Направленность (профиль) ОПОП
дисциплина по выбору

Форма обучения:
ОЧНАЯ

Рабочая программа рассмотрена
на заседании кафедры иностранных языков
протокол № 5 от «28» июня 2024 г.
Заведующий кафедрой
 (Л.И.Теплова)
(подпись)

Рабочая программа одобрена
Методическим советом
Филиала МГУ в г. Севастополе
Протокол № 8 от «31» авг. 2024
 (С.А. Наличаева)
(подпись)

Севастополь, 2021

Рабочая программа разработана в соответствии с самостоятельно установленным МГУ образовательным стандартом (ОС МГУ) для реализуемых основных профессиональных образовательных программ высшего образования по направлению подготовки «Филология» (программы бакалавриата) в редакции приказа МГУ от 30 декабря 2016 г.

Год приёма на обучение: 2021, 2022

курс – 4

семестры – 7

зачетных единиц – 3

академических часов – 108, в т.ч.:

лекций – 18 час.

практических (семинарских) занятий – 18 час.

Формы промежуточной аттестации:

зачет в 7 семестре

1. Место дисциплины в структуре ОПОП ВО.

Дисциплина «Специфика научного текста» относится к вариативной части учебного плана, является дисциплиной по выбору, входящей в профессиональный блок.

Целью освоения дисциплины является формирование у обучающихся системы знаний об особенностях научных текстов, а также навыков свободного и грамотного использования языковых средств при подготовке курсовой и выпускных квалификационных работ, научных публикаций и выступлений, использование полученных знаний в профессиональной деятельности.

Задачи курса:

- дать общее представление об основных видах научных коммуникаций, их значении в профессиональной деятельности
- познакомить обучающихся с теоретическими основами организации научного текста
- совершенствовать языковые навыки, используемые в учебно-научной и собственно научной сферах общения
- научить осуществлять поиск научной информации, и её критический анализ
- развивать критическое мышление обучающихся

2. Входные требования для освоения дисциплины, предварительные условия.

Для изучения дисциплины достаточными являются знания, умения и навыки, приобретенные на предыдущем этапе при изучении дисциплины «Иностранный язык» в 1 – 6 семестрах.

3. Результаты обучения по дисциплине.

Планируемые результаты обучения по дисциплине:

знать:

- виды и типы научных текстов;
- стандартную структуру англоязычной научной статьи;
- этапы написания научной работы;
- правила оформления полученных результатов;
- англоязычные академические термины и их русскоязычные эквиваленты

уметь:

- осуществлять библиографический поиск и критически оценивать подобранные источники
- работать с англоязычными каталогами
- составлять библиографические списки в соответствии с требованиями англоязычных академических изданий
- оформлять научную статью в соответствии со стандартной структурой англоязычной научной статьи
- оформлять результаты научного исследования в виде научной статьи
- составлять библиографический список
- отличать «факт» и «мнение» в научном изложении.

владеть:

- грамматическими, лексическими и стилистическими средствами и приемами представления информации в виде научных англоязычных текстов
- нормами научного текста исходного и переводящего языков;

- основными способами и приемами достижения смысловой, стилистической адекватности

4. Формат обучения: контактная работа

5. Объем дисциплины составляет 3 з.е., в том числе 40 академических часов, отведенных на контактную работу обучающихся с преподавателем (аудиторная нагрузка), 68 академических часов на самостоятельную работу обучающихся.

6. Содержание дисциплины (модуля), структурированное по темам (разделам) с указанием отведенного на них количества академических часов и виды учебных занятий.

6.1. Структура дисциплины (модуля), структурированное по темам (разделам) с указанием отведения на них количества академических часов и виды учебных занятий.

Наименование разделов и тем дисциплины (модуля)	номинальные трудозатраты обучающихся				формы текущего контроля успеваемости
	Виды контактной работы, академические часы		самостоятельная работа обучающегося, академические часы	всего академических часов	
	занятия лекционного типа	занятия семинарского типа			
РАЗДЕЛ 1. СТРУКТУРА АКАДЕМИЧЕСКОГО ТЕКСТА 1 з.е.					
Тема 1. Научный текст: типы, признаки, категории	2	1	2	5	Работа на семинарском занятии
Тема 2. Композиция научного текста.	2	1	2	5	Задания на восстановление структуры текста на основе логического анализа содержания
Тема 3. Структура абзаца и виды поддерживающих предложений	2	1	2	5	Составление поддерживающих предложений к заданному заглавному предложению. Выполнение контрольной работы.
Тема 4. Последовательность изложения в научном тексте	2	1	2	5	Задания на восстановление структуры текста на основе логического анализа содержания
Тема 5. Структура научной монографии	2	2	2	6	Задания на восстановление

					структуры монографии на основе логического анализа содержания
Тема 6. Аргументация и использование источников.	0	2	3	5	Задания на разграничение факта и мнения. Выполнение контрольной работы.
Тема 7. Критический анализ информации.	0	2	3	5	Выполнение заданий на определение элемента аргумента в модели аргументации У.Данна
итого за раздел	10	10	16	36	
РАЗДЕЛ 2. ПОДГОТОВКА НАУЧНОГО ТЕКСТА. 2 з.е.					
Тема 1. Стандартная структура англоязычной научной статьи	0	6	16		Выполнение заданий на определение структурных элементов англоязычной научной статьи
Тема 2. Представление научной информации в виде графиков и таблиц. Описание научной информации, представленной в виде графиков и таблиц.	0	4	6		Выполнение заданий на описание графиков и таблиц
Тема 3. Организация процесса написания научного текста. Последовательность написания частей научной статьи	0	6	18		Выполнение заданий на структурирование разделов научной статьи
Тема 4. Оформление библиографического списка	0	4	6		Выполнение заданий на составление библиографического списка
итого за раздел	0	20	46		
Промежуточная аттестация — зачет			6		
Итого	10	30	68		

6.2. Содержание разделов (тем) дисциплины

№ п/п	Наименование разделов (тем)	Содержание разделов (тем)
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РАЗДЕЛ 1. СТРУКТУРА АКАДЕМИЧЕСКОГО ТЕКСТА 1 З.Е.		
1	Научный текст: типы, признаки, категории.	Научный стиль как функциональный стиль речи в литературном языке. Монография, научная статья, научный доклад, тезисы, аннотации, рефераты. Категории научного текста: логичность, точность, строгость, отвлеченность, обобщенность, информативность
2	Композиция научного текста.	Введение, заключение, основная часть научного текста. Структура абзаца и роль заглавного предложения. Методы развития абзаца. Средства когезии и когерентности в научном тексте.
3	Структура абзаца и виды поддерживающих предложений	Заглавное предложение и поддерживающие предложения. Связность и целостность абзаца. Заключительное предложение и связь между абзацами. Дефиниция термина как вид поддерживающего предложения. Примеры, ссылки на внешние источники (цитаты, статистика и т.д.)
4	Последовательность изложения в научном тексте	Последовательность абзацев (логическая, хронологическая, причина и следствие, сравнение с целью установления сходства и различия, проблема и её решение)
5	Структура монографии как научного издания	Композиционная структура монографии. Жанровая специфика текста научной монографии. Требования к оформлению монографии.
6	Аргументация и использование источников.	Критический анализ информации, изложенной в тексте. Оценка достоверности информации.
7	Критический анализ аргументации	Критический анализ информации: факт или мнение. Знание и информация. Сильная и слабая аргументация. Модель аргументации У.Данна.
РАЗДЕЛ 2. ПОДГОТОВКА НАУЧНОГО ТЕКСТА. 2 З.Е.		
1	Стандартная структура англоязычной научной статьи	IMRaD композиция научной статьи. Основные функции и характеристики введения. Особенности введения к научному тексту. связь введения и заключения. Описание методов и материалов исследования. Описание и обсуждение результатов исследования.
2	Графики, таблицы и диаграммы в научном тексте	Представление научной информации в виде графиков, таблиц и диаграмм. Описание научной информации, представленной в виде графиков и таблиц.
3	Организация процесса написания научного текста.	Технологии генерации и организации идей. Организация процесса письма. Последовательность написания частей научной статьи. Практика нелинейной организации текста. Абзац как элемент целого текста. Практика синтеза: введение и заключение.
4.	Библиографический аппарат	Элементы библиографического аппарата. Составление библиографического списка.

	Правила оформления библиографических списков в англоязычных научных журналах. Ссылки на монографии, статьи в научных журналах, интернет-источники.
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7. Фонд оценочных средств (ФОС) для оценивания результатов обучения по дисциплине (модулю)

7.1. Типовые контрольные задания или иные материалы для проведения текущего контроля успеваемости.

Образец контрольной работы

Task 1. Below are the most common types of written work produced by students. Match the terms to the definitions (a-e)

TERMS: Notes, Report, Project, Essay, Dissertation/ Thesis

- a) a piece of research, either individual or group work, with the topic chosen by the student(s)

- b) the longest piece of writing normally done by a student (20,000+ words) often for a higher degree, on a topic chosen by the student _____
- c) a written record of the main points of a text or lecture, for a student's personal use

- d) a description of something a student has done e.g. conducting a survey _____
- e) the most common type of written work, with the title given by the teacher, normally 1000–5000 words _____

Task 2. Read the texts 1–4 below and decide which are the most suitable for academic use. Explain your choice.

1. *To promote tourism and market destination, it is important to study the tourists' attitude, behaviour and demand. The studies of Levitt (1986) and Kotler and Armstrong (1994) suggest that an understanding of consumer behaviour may help with the marketing planning process in tourism marketing. The research of consumer behaviour is the key to the underpinning of all marketing activity which is carried out to develop, promote and sell tourism products (Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999; Asad, 2005). Therefore, the study of consumer behaviour has become necessary for the sake of tourism marketing.*

2. *The romance of travel has always fascinated me, and our recent trip to Thailand lived up to expectations. We flew from Gatwick and after a comfortable flight arrived in Bangkok just as the sun was rising. Our stay in the city lasted only a couple of days before we set off for the hill country around Chang Mai, where we were planning to visit some of the indigenous tribes who live in this mountainous region. When we arrived the weather was rather disappointing, but after a day the heavy rain gave way to sparkling clear sunshine.*

3. *Holiday trips to the Antarctica have quadrupled in the past decade and last year more than 46,000 people visited the land mass and surrounding oceans. However, safety fears and concerns about the impact visitors are having on the delicate frozen landscape have soared and members of the Antarctic Treaty—an agreement between 28 nations, including the UK, on the use of the continent—are now meeting to discuss ways to regulate tourism.*

British officials are seeking to establish a 'strategic agreement for tourism' around the South Pole. If successful, it will see treaty members introduce new measures to improve the safety of tourist trips, while also reducing the impact that visitors will have on the environment. The regulations could see limits on the number of ships and landings, restrictions on how close they

come to shore, a ban on building tourist facilities and hotels on the continent, and rules on waste discharges from ships.

4. Equally, from a political perspective, the nature of state involvement in and policies for tourism is dependent on both the political economic structures and the prevailing political ideology in the destination state, with comparisons typically made between market-led and centrally planned economies. For example, the Thatcher–Reagan-inspired neoliberalism of the 1980s, and the subsequent focus on privatisation and the markets in many Western nations contrasted starkly with the then centrally planned tourism sectors in the former Eastern Europe (Buckley and Witt, 1990; Hall, 1991). At the same time, of course, it has also long been recognised that the political-economic relationship of one nation with another or with the wider international community (that is, the extent of political-economic dependency) may represent a significant influence on tourism development (Telfer, 2002). Thus, in short, tourism planning and development in the destination tends to reflect both the structures and political ideologies of the state and its international political-economic relations.

Task 3. a) Study the structure of different types of academic texts.

Short essays (including exam answers) generally have this pattern:

1. Introduction
2. Main body
3. Conclusion

Longer essays may include:

1. Introduction
2. Main body
 - 2.1. Literature review
 - 2.2. Case study
 - 2.3. Discussion
3. References
4. Conclusion
5. Appendices

b) Find the words in the lists above that match the following definitions:

- (a) A short summary of 100–200 words which explains the paper’s purpose and main findings. _____
- (b) A list of all the sources the writer has mentioned in the text. _____
- (c) A section, at the end, where less important information is included. _____
- (d) A short section where people who have helped the writer are thanked. _____
- (e) Part of the main body in which the writer discusses relevant research. _____
- (f) A section where one particular example is described in detail. _____

7.2. Типовые контрольные задания или иные материалы для проведения промежуточной аттестации.

Содержание зачета

Зачет состоит из двух частей: 1) выполнение письменной работы; 2) презентация результатов собственного научного исследования

Образец письменной работы на зачете

1. Read the paragraphs and arrange them in the correct order.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11

A. As is evident from the outline above, our use of the word bias is restricted. First of all, it cannot be used for processes, hypotheses and preliminary results. Its target area is well-established and widespread assumptions – assumptions that apparently have survived the scientific community’s control, testing and criticism. This is important because intuitions and bold conjectures undoubtedly play an essential role in acquiring knowledge and should not be considered as deviations or errors. Secondly, the term must be used according to the claims of the scientific description. For example, a description that confines itself to English semantics cannot be deemed as biased with reference to the semantics of other languages; a description that explicitly confines itself to information structure in expository prose cannot be deemed as biased with reference to other types of sequential organization. Hence, the bias concept outlined here is primarily aimed at descriptions of general features of language and language use.

B. Encounters with the world are situated. This implies that the standards of accuracy are historical, contingent and changing, and, surely, any standard of informativity is relative to a purpose or problem. In this overall abstract sense, no description is unbiased. However, a balanced, general description of aspects of linguistic behavior is an epistemological goal that unites many linguists. With the use, thus, one endorses language sciences as joint efforts to develop more coherent theories, better methods, and more accurate and informative descriptions. This also means that one cannot just claim that a description is biased – by identifying a bias you commit yourself to point out a way to circumvent it, and the alternative is subject to the same epistemological standards as the criticized description has been subjected to and judged by.

C. In Language Sciences 41, [Steffensen and Fill \(2014:6\)](#) claim: “The language scientist in the early 21st century is in a situation similar to that of hikers lost in the wasteland. The idea of science as a uni-directional movement towards more coherent theories, better methods, deeper insights, grander visions and human progress is largely a myth.” This issue has a less skeptical point of departure. We believe that language sciences can make and have made progress. Not in all areas, not in one direction and not all the time, but in some areas, in different directions, from time to time: Some theories have become more coherent, some methods have improved, some hypotheses have been supported and some disconfirmed, and some descriptions and explanations have become more accurate and informative relative to the solution of problems in the human niche.

D. The causal aspect implies that the error is systematic. Within statistics it simply means that the error is repeating itself. Whereas a random error would approximately cancel out if repeated measurements were taken and averaged ([Anderson et al., 1981:11](#)), systematic errors do not disappear if the number of measurements increases. This is due to the fact that these errors derive from shortcomings of research design, implementation, and analysis ([Weisberg, 2010:3](#)). Thus, a bias is an error that is caused by something beyond the statistical analysis, and unlike random errors it cannot be assessed without external knowledge of the world. Hence, biases are outside statistics. In cognitive psychological bias research, biases are also characterized by being systematic. Here, it is explained by heuristics, that is, rules of thumb that serve as mental shortcuts to conclusions ([Tversky and Kahneman, 1974](#); [Kahneman et al., 1982](#)) and often are successful, for example the representativeness heuristics in which the probability that object A belongs to class B is evaluated by the degree to which A resembles B. That is, a bias is not just a deviation from a way of thinking; it is in itself a way of thinking. In this issue, we will also use the word bias to signify a systematic error, but here, the cause is traced to a set of assumptions that forms the basis of a scientific description.

E. What we call a set of assumptions include everything ranging from a single, simple proposition to a large number of coherent, complex propositions that guide language studies. The status as assumptions entail that the propositions are accepted as true without question, and that they can be tacit. It is this status that constitutes a risk, and it is this status that motivates the endeavor of this issue. To quote [Boas \(1938\)](#): “My whole outlook upon life is determined by one question: How can we recognise the shackles that tradition has laid upon us? For when we recognise them, we are also able to break them.”

F. The term bias refers to a normative concept: A bias is an error and therefore something to be avoided. Within statistics the bias of an estimator is “the difference between the average value of the estimates obtained in many repetitions of the study and the true value of what it is estimating” ([Anderson et al., 1981:11](#)). A bias is thus mathematically defined and can be expressed mathematically. The normative aspect is that the difference indicated by the mathematical expression is a distance to something that is valuable and strived for. In the above definition, the valuable and strived for is a true value. In the cognitive psychological bias research ([Tversky and Kahneman, 1974](#)) a bias is a deviation from a rational, i.e. statistically and/ or logically, way to reach an estimate or to make a decision. It is, thus, a deviation from a way of thinking. Certainly, there are some disagreement about the normative use of the term ([Gigerenzer, 1996](#); [Gigerenzer and Todd, 1999](#); [Kahneman, 2011](#); [Klein, 2009, 2015](#)), but the main efforts in cognitive psychological bias research have been made to show that biases lead to bad estimates and poor decisions. The assumed norm in these studies is logical, statistically-based reasoning. In this issue the term is also signifying a deviation, but it is the deviation of a description, and the standards deviated from are that the description is accurate, that is, as a structural and functional characterization of occurrences and their causal relations, an informative, that is, able to differentiate differences that make a difference in human’s understanding of everyday language use.

G. When such small steps are made, they are made on the basis of a set of assumptions. Assumptions serve to define and organize a scientific area and determine priorities; they imply methodological constraints and enable descriptions, explanations and predictions. In short, they give research a direction. Whereas such assumptions are a prerequisite for progress, they can also inhibit progress ([Rosen, 2017:3](#)). A set of assumptions works like a frame ([Bateson, 1987:192](#)). They determine what is inside and what is outside the focus of attention, and the differentiation and understanding of what is inside the focus of attention. Thus, there is a risk that what’s outside is significant and that the differentiation and understanding of the subject area can be insufficient and erroneous. This duality is characteristic of scientific assumptions. To paraphrase [Reason \(1990:2\)](#), correct descriptions and systematic errors are two sides of the same coin. And while there is awareness in science that we should question our assumptions, it is something we tend to forget or even avoid. That is, assumptions can inhibit the development of better descriptions.

H. The word bias is used in a variety of ways. It can suggest an “inclination or prejudice for or against one person or group, especially in away considered to be unfair” ([Oxford English Dictionary, 2018](#)). And as [Anderson et al. \(1981:11\)](#) notes, it is used “as a general insult to impugn any study that disagrees with one’s own opinions”. In this issue, we will refrain from such uses. Here, the word is used to question assumptions with the purpose of identifying obstacles that prevent the development of more accurate and informative descriptions of language and language use. It includes three aspects of meaning: a normative aspect that a bias is an error, a causal aspect that the error is systematic, and a socio-cognitive aspect that the systematic error has become commonplace in a scientific community. This use of the word is in part related to the uses of the word within statistics and within the cognitive psychological bias

research ([Tversky and Kahneman, 1974](#)), but as the following comparison will show it also differs from these uses.

I. On the abovementioned points, the bias concept differs from the concept of myth and other competing critical terms, be that prejudice, chauvinism, injustice, or illusion. It is clear that these terms would lead to different studies, conclusions, and metadiscussions. In our view, the bias concept has a special place in the landscape of metacriticism, which makes it more attractive than other tools of critique.

J. The socio-cognitive aspect implies that the assumptions resulting in systematic errors have become commonplace in science. This use of the word is not related to the use within statistics or cognitive psychological bias research. Within statistics, biases are methodological errors related to the individual study; within the cognitive psychological bias research, biases are mental phenomena. [Tversky and Kahneman \(1974\)](#) do note that researchers are also prone to biases. Thus, [Tversky and Kahneman \(1971\)](#) and [Kahneman and Tversky \(1973\)](#) observe the tendency to predict the outcome that best represents the data, with insufficient regard for prior probability in the intuitive judgments of individuals who have had extensive training in statistics. In other studies, confirmation and disconfirmation biases have been observed in peer reviews ([Hergovich et al., 2010](#); [Koehler, 1993](#); [Mahooney, 1977](#)). However, these biases are associated with cognition as a mental phenomenon. In this issue, the term is primarily, but not exclusively (see [Sloos et al. 2019](#)), applied to cognition as a sociohistorical process. This use is in line with Linell's use of the word in *The Written Language Bias* (1982, 2005). In this theory a bias is a generalization of a conceptualization based on a particular part of linguistic behavior, for example, describing spoken language by means of concepts, models and methods taken from the tradition of describing and explaining written language. The distinctive feature of Linell's use of the word is that it is applied to linguistics as a whole. Locating a bias on this level implies that one may refer to a number of societal factors when one explains why a particular set of assumptions have become commonplace. One major reason is undoubtedly that the set of assumptions has resulted in accurate descriptions of, at least, some parts of language and language use. But several other factors prevail; [Linell \(2005\)](#) mentions technology, the societal status of the linguistic object, the linguistic object's relation to religion, law, authorities and institutions, the description's relation to practical and political tasks and to projects of nation-making and state-building. Particularly, the latter two factors' influence are discussed in [Schneider \(2019\)](#) and [Saraceni & Jacobs \(2019\)](#). However, not all the contributions deal with such explanations. The primary aim of the issue is to identify sets of assumptions that inhibit the development of more accurate and informative descriptions of language and language use and have become commonplace in linguistics.

K. When one uses a critical term like bias to characterize a scientific description and points out an alternative description, there is a considerable risk of applying double standards. To avoid this risk and enable the detection of such inconsistencies it must be explicated what the use of the outlined bias concept implies. The use presupposes that some descriptions are more accurate and informative than others. This assumption is closely related to two other assumptions, namely a) that there is a world that operates independently of our consciousness and knowledge of it, for example, the length of vowels ([Sloos et al. 2019](#)), the distribution of English semantics ([Levisen 2019](#)) or the dynamics of multilingualism ([Schneider 2019](#)), and b) that it is our encounters with this world that serves as a yardstick for the accuracy and informativeness of the descriptions of it.

2. Read the text and write a summary to it.

Semantics and linguistics.

Let us now try to place semantics within linguistics and see what that implies. To begin with, we can assume that semantics is a component or level of linguistics of the same kind as phonetics or grammar. Moreover, nearly all linguists have, explicitly or implicitly, accepted a linguistic model in which semantics is at one 'end' and phonetics at the other, with grammar somewhere in the middle (though not necessarily that there are just these three levels). The plausibility of this is obvious enough. Language can be viewed as a communication system that relates something to be communicated with something that communicates, a message on the one hand with a set of signs or symbols on the other. The Swiss linguist, Ferdinand de Saussure, referred to these as the SIGNIFIER (signifiant) and the SIGNIFIED (signifié). (He, unfortunately, used the term SIGN to refer to the association of these two, but some of his more recent followers have, more reasonably, used it for the signifier alone.) Examples of communication systems, all of them no doubt much simpler than language, are numerous. For instance, traffic lights use a system of colours and colour combinations to instruct drivers to go or to stop (and also to warn that such instructions are about to be given). Similarly, animals make noises to communicate. The gibbons, for instance, have a set of calls to indicate the discovery of food, danger, friendly interest, desire for company, and they have one call that is intended merely to establish position and so prevent the band from spreading too far apart.

Although it is reasonable to see language as basically a communication system, we must not push the analogy with other systems too far, for several reasons. First, language does not always have a 'message', in any real sense, certainly not in the sense of a piece of information; part of its function is concerned with social relationships (see 2.4, 3.2), though this is also true of the animal communication systems too. Secondly, in language both the 'signs' and the 'messages' (the signifiers and the signified) are themselves enormously complex and the relationship between them is of even greater complexity. For this reason it has been convincingly argued that human language differs in kind rather than in degree from other 'languages'. Thirdly, in language it is extremely difficult, perhaps even impossible, to specify precisely what the message is. In other communication systems there is no problem because the message can be independently identified in terms of language or, rather, of a language such as English, e. g. Red means 'stop'. For language in general we have no such easy solution, for we cannot define meaning (the 'message') independently of language. We can only state one set of meanings in terms of another set, only describe language in terms of language.

I have suggested that linguistics is the 'scientific' study of language. One essential requirement is that it should be empirical. If semantics is part of linguistics it too must be no less scientific. Precisely what 'scientific' or 'empirical' means is a matter of some debate, but one essential requirement of a scientific study is that statements made within it must, in principle at least, be verifiable by observation. It is easy enough to apply this to phonetics, for we can observe what is happening - we can listen to a person speaking. We can, moreover, describe the operations of the vocal organs, or, with the aid of scientific instruments, can measure precisely the physical characteristics of the sounds that are emitted. But there is, unfortunately, no similar, simple, way of dealing with semantics.

Furthermore, if linguistics is scientific, it must be concerned not with specific instances, but with generalisations. This point was made, though in a rather different conceptual framework, by de Saussure in his distinction between LANGUAGE (*langue*) and SPEAKING (*parole*). This distinction has reappeared in the works of Noam Chomsky and his followers as COMPETENCE and PERFORMANCE. (Chomsky differs greatly from de Saussure on the nature of the linguistic system within language or competence, but the theoretical distinction is the same.) Both are

concerned essentially, as are we, to exclude what is purely individual and accidental (speaking or performance), and to insist that the proper study of linguistics is language or competence. But for both de Saussure and Chomsky, language or competence is some kind of idealised system without any clear empirical basis, and I prefer to think rather in terms of generalisations.

The point is clear enough in phonetics. The phonetician is not primarily concerned with the particular sounds that are made at a particular time by a particular person. He may well study the pronunciation of e. g. book, but in order to do so he will listen to a number of individual utterances of this word and will make a generalised statement on the basis of these. Indeed, it is possible today, with the help of a computer, to produce an 'average' utterance, computed by the computer and produced by equipment that can reproduce human speech sounds. What happens at each time a person speaks is not usually of interest in itself; it is rather part of the evidence for the generalisations. The same must be true of semantics. We shall not normally be concerned with the meaning any individual wishes to place on his words. We may recall Lewis Carroll once again (*Through the Looking-Glass*): 'When I use a word', Humpty Dumpty said in a rather scornful tone, 'it means what I choose it to mean - neither more nor less'.

An individual's meaning is not part of the general study of semantics. Of course, it is interesting or important for some purposes to see how and why an individual diverges from the normal pattern. This is necessary in the study of literature - the poet may well not 'mean' what you and I would mean. It is obviously important too in psychiatric studies where the individual is apparently unable to use his language in the same way as others. But it is important to realise that neither the literary nor the psychiatric studies of the individual would be possible without the generalised 'normal' patterns to make comparisons with.

A useful distinction has been made between UTTERANCES and SENTENCES so that we can distinguish between the utterance 'There is a book on the table' and the sentence There is a book on the table. This may at first appear surprising and, unfortunately, the distinction is often lost because we talk of people 'uttering' or 'speaking' in 'sentences'. But the point is that an utterance is an event in time - it is produced by someone and at some particular time, while a sentence is an abstract entity that has no existence in time, but is part of the linguistic system of a language. The distinction is, obviously, related to that of language or competence and speaking or performance, the sentence belonging essentially to the former, and the utterance to the latter. It is important because when we talk about something that someone has said we normally describe it in terms that are appropriate to the sentence. In other words we use our linguistic knowledge (including what a sentence is) to talk about it. For instance, I referred to the utterance 'There is a book on the table', which may have been uttered by someone at some time. But in order to refer to it I have to write it down in words with all the conventions of spelling and punctuation. In so doing I identify it as an example of the sentence There is a book on the table. In order to talk about an utterance, that is to say, I have to treat it as an example of the generalised, more abstract, entity, the sentence. (The only way to avoid this completely would be to have the utterance on tape, for even writing it down in a phonetic script would probably assume some of the characteristics of the sentence.) In particular when I write it down I identify the words, but words are not a 'given' part of the utterance. They are not accessible by direct observation but are the result of some fairly sophisticated linguistic thinking (2.5). It follows from this that semanticists will not be (and cannot really ever be) concerned with the meaning of utterances, but only with the meaning of sentences, and it equally follows that we cannot study semantics without assuming a great deal about grammar and other aspects of the structure of language.

ШКАЛА И КРИТЕРИИ ОЦЕНИВАНИЯ результатов обучения (РО) по дисциплине «Иностранный язык» для формы отчетности «зачет»

Оценка РО и соответствующие виды оценочных средств	незачтено	зачтено
Знания <i>виды оценочных средств:</i> - оценка по результатам наблюдения во время практического занятия; - устный или письменный опрос на знание материала темы; - выполнение индивидуальных проектов; - выполнение практического задания в письменной форме (перевод, изложение основного содержания прочитанного текста.).	Отсутствие знаний	- демонстрирует знания и понимание предметных терминов и понятий; - выполняет задания и следует процедурам выполнения в соответствии с прямыми указаниями; - формулирует выводы на основе различных форм представления информации;
Умения <i>виды оценочных средств:</i> - тестовые практические задания; - контрольная работа;	Отсутствие умений	- демонстрирует в целом успешные, языковые умения; - решает коммуникативную задачу на уровне осознанного воспроизведения заученного материала в ситуации;
Навыки (владения, опыт деятельности) <i>виды оценочных средств:</i> - выступление с презентацией; - презентация доклада, сообщения; - составление библиографического списка - написание аннотации к тексту.	Отсутствие навыков (владений, опыта)	- демонстрирует навыки порождения речевого высказывания; - владеет навыком составления библиографического списка - владеет навыком написания аннотации к тексту - владеет навыком написания резюме текста

8. Ресурсное обеспечение:
Основная литература

1. Александрова, Л.И. Write effectively. Пишем эффективно: учебное пособие / Л.И. Александрова. — 2-е изд., стер. — Москва : ФЛИНТА, 2016. — 184 с. — ISBN 978-5-9765-0909-2. — Текст : электронный // Электронно-библиотечная система «Лань» : [сайт]. — URL: <https://e.lanbook.com/book/84277>
2. Корж Т.Н. Как описывать графическую информацию=How to describe graphs: Учебное пособие по дисциплине "Английский язык в сфере профессиональной коммуникации/ Т.Н. Корж. - Севастополь: Рибест, 2015. - 80 с..
3. Рябцева, Н.К. Научная речь на английском языке: Руководство по научному изложению. Словарь оборотов и сочетаемости общенаучной лексики : словарь / Н.К. Рябцева. — 7-е изд., стер. — Москва : ФЛИНТА, 2019. — 599 с. — ISBN 978-5-89349-167-8. — Текст : электронный // Электронно-библиотечная система «Лань» : [сайт]. — URL: <https://e.lanbook.com/book/119421>
4. Armer, Tamzen. Cambridge English for Scientists [Electronic resource]/ Tamzen Armer. - Cambridge UK: Cambridge University Press, 2011. - 128 p.: il + 1 эл. опт. диск (CD-ROM): цф.. - ISBN 978-0-521-1540—93

Дополнительная литература

Академические журналы и периодические издания на английском языке.

Словари

АВВУ Lingvo (он-лайн словарь).[Electronic resource]: URL: – <http://www.lingvo-online.ru/ru/Translate/en-ru>

Материально-техническое обеспечение.

Материально-техническое обеспечение дисциплины предполагает наличие в библиотеке в печатном виде или в виде электронного ресурса комплектов учебно-методической, научной и справочной литературы, работу с компьютерными обучающими программами в лингафонно-компьютерном классе, а также доступ к ресурсам сети Интернет.

9. Соответствие результатов обучения по данному элементу ОПОП результатам освоения ОПОП указано в общей характеристике ОПОП.

10. Язык преподавания.

английский

11. Преподаватель (преподаватели).

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12. Автор (авторы) программы.

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