

On the qualification paper of the topic "The usage somatic phraseologies in English and Uzbek" The present being reviewed qualification paper deals with one of te most actual and interesting problems of the present day. Linguistics that is the analysis of the semantic and structural features of somatic phraseologies in English and Uzbek.

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INTRODUCTION

The president of the republic of Uzbekistan Islam Abduganievich Karimov speaking about the future of Uzbekistan underlines that “Harmonious generation is the future guarantee of prosperity”.

It is our task, to prepare and teach professionally competent and energetic personnel, real patriots to see them in the world depository of science and culture. In this plan the notional program about training personnel was worked out on the formation of new generation of specialist. “With the high common and professionally culture, creative and social activity, with the ability to orientate in the social and political life independently, capable to raise and solve the problems to the perspective¹”.

The present Qualification Paper deals with the study of the usage of somatic phraseologisms in English and Uzbek which presents a certain interest both for theoretical investigation and for practical language use.

The actuality of the Qualification paper is defined by concrete results of the investigation. Special emphasis is laid on various types of rendering the structure, the semantic features, and the peculiarities phraseologisms.

The aim of this Qualification Paper is to define the the usage of somatic phraseologisms in English and Uzbek.

The novelty of the work is that the thorough analysis the usage of somatic phraseologisms in English and Uzbek which have not been researched deeply yet; moreover studying the phraseologisms in the context. We have analyzed specific peculiarities of the somatic phraseologisms in English and Uzbek for the first time.

The tasks of the research are the following according to the general aim:

1. to study the problem of meaning in present day lexicology;
2. to study the phraseology in modern lexicology;
3. to study the semantic Structure phraseologisms;

The methods of investigation used in this Qualification Paper are as follows:

¹ Kadrlar tayyorlash milliy dasturi: Toshkent 1997, 35 bet

semantic, oppositional, contextual and structural.

The practical value of the research is that the material and the results of the given research can be used in theoretical courses of lexicology, interpretation of the text and other theoretical courses.

The material includes:

1. different types of dictionaries;
2. Scientific literature on Present Day English lexicology;
3. The practical and theoretical books of English, American, Russian authors.

The theoretical importance of the research is determined by the necessary of detailed and comprehensive analysis of peculiarities of the phraseologisms which form a big layer of the vocabulary.

The structure of the work - the given Qualification Paper consists of introduction, three chapters and a conclusion which are followed by the lists of literature used on the course of the research.

Chapter I Review of the linguistic literature on the problems of English phraseology in Modern English

1.1 Word-Groups with Transferred Meanings

Phraseological units, or idioms, as they are called by most western scholars, represent what can probably be described as the most picturesque, colourful and expressive part of the language's vocabulary.

If synonyms can be figuratively referred to as the tints and colours of the vocabulary, then phraseology is a kind of picture gallery in which are collected vivid and amusing sketches of the nation's customs, traditions and prejudices, recollections of its past history, scraps of folk songs and fairy-tales. Quotations from great poets are preserved here alongside the dubious pearls of philistine wisdom and crude slang witticisms, for phraseology is not only the most colourful but probably the most democratic area of vocabulary and draws its resources mostly from the very depths of popular speech².

And what a variety of odd and grotesque images, figures and personalities one finds in this amazing picture gallery: dark horses, white elephants, bulls in china shops and green-eyed monsters, cats escaping from bags or looking at kings, dogs barking up the wrong tree and men either wearing their hearts on their sleeves or having them in their mouths or even in their boots. Sometimes this parade of funny animals and quaint human beings looks more like a hilarious fancy-dress ball than a peaceful picture gallery and it is really a pity that the only interest some scholars seem to take in it is whether the leading component of the idiom is expressed by a verb or a noun.

The metaphor *fancy-dress ball* may seem far-fetched to skeptical minds, and yet it aptly reflects a very important feature of the linguistic phenomenon under discussion: most participants of the carnival, if we accept the metaphor, wear masks, are disguised as something or somebody else, or, dropping metaphors, word-groups known as phraseological units or idioms are characterised by a double

² Koonin A. "English lexicology" M, 1940 339 p.

sense: the current meanings of constituent words build up a certain picture, but the actual meaning of the whole unit has little or nothing to do with that picture, in itself creating an entirely new image.

So, *a dark horse* mentioned above is actually not a horse but a person about whom no one knows anything definite, and so one is not sure what can be expected from him. The imagery of *a bull in a china shop* lies very much on the surface: the idiom describes a clumsy person (cf. with the R. *слон в посудной лавке*). *A white elephant*, however, is not even a person but a valuable object which involves great expense or trouble for its owner, out of all proportion to its usefulness or value, and which is also difficult to dispose of. *The green-eyed monster* is jealousy, the image being drawn from *Othello*¹. *To let the cat out of the bag* has actually nothing to do with cats, but means simply "to let some secret become known". In *to bark up the wrong tree* (Amer.), the current meanings of the constituents create a vivid and amusing picture of a foolish dog sitting under a tree and barking at it while the cat or the squirrel has long since escaped. But the actual meaning of the idiom is "to follow a false scent; to look for somebody or something in a wrong place; to expect from somebody what he is unlikely to do". The idiom is not infrequently used in detective stories: *The police are barking up the wrong tree as usual* (i.e. they suspect somebody who has nothing to do with the crime).

The ambiguousness of these interesting word groups may lead to an amusing misunderstanding, especially for children who are apt to accept words at their face value.

Little Johnnie (*crying*): Mummy, mummy, my auntie Jane is dead.

Mother: Nonsense, child! She phoned me exactly five minutes ago.

Johnnie: But I heard Mrs. Brown say that her neighbours cut her dead.

(To *cut somebody dead* means "to rudely ignore somebody; to pretend not to know or recognise him".)

Puns are frequently based on the ambiguousness of idioms:

"Isn't our Kate a marvel! I wish you could have seen her at the Harrisons' party yesterday. If I'd collected the bricks she dropped all over the place, I could build a villa."

(*To drop a brick* means "to say unintentionally a quite indiscreet or tactless thing that shocks and offends people".)

So, together with synonymy and antonymy, phraseology represents expressive resources of vocabulary-

V. H. Collins writes in his *Book of English Idioms*: "In standard spoken and written English today idiom is an established and essential element that, used with care, ornaments and enriches the language." [26]

Used with care is an important warning because speech overloaded with idioms loses its freshness and originality. Idioms, after all, are ready-made speech units, and their continual repetition sometimes wears them out: they lose their colours and become trite clichés. Such idioms can hardly be said to "ornament" or "enrich the language".

On the other hand, oral or written speech lacking idioms loses much in expressiveness, colour and emotional force.

In modern linguistics, there is considerable confusion about the terminology associated with these word-groups. Most Russian scholars use the term "phraseological unit" ("*фразаологическая единица*") which was first introduced by Academician V.V.Vinogradov whose contribution to the theory of Russian phraseology cannot be overestimated. The term "idiom" widely used by western scholars has comparatively recently found its way into Russian phraseology but is applied mostly to only a certain type of phraseological unit as it will be clear from further explanations.

There are some other terms denoting more or less the same linguistic phenomenon: *set-expressions*, *set-phrases*, *phrases*, *fixed word-groups*, *collocations*.

The confusion in the terminology reflects insufficiency of positive or wholly reliable criteria by which phraseological units can be distinguished from "free" word-groups.

It should be pointed out at once that the "freedom" of free word-groups is relative and arbitrary. Nothing is entirely "free" in speech as its linear relationships are governed, restricted and regulated, on the one hand, by requirements of logic and common sense and, on the other, by the rules of grammar and combinability. One can speak of *a black-eyed girl* but not of *a black-eyed table* (unless in a piece of modernistic poetry where anything is possible). Also, to say *the child was glad* is quite correct, but a *glad child* is wrong because in Modern English *glad* is attributively used only with a very limited number of nouns (e. g. *glad news*), and names of persons are not among them.

Free word-groups are so called not because of any absolute freedom in using them but simply because they are each time built up anew in the speech process whereas idioms are used as ready-made units with fixed and constant structures.

1.2 Distinguishing Phraseological Units from Free Word-Groups

This is probably the most discussed — and the most controversial — problem in the field of phraseology³. The task of distinguishing between free word-groups and phraseological units is further complicated by the existence of a great number of marginal cases, the so-called *semi-fixed* or *semi-free word-groups*, also called *non-phraseological word-groups* which share with phraseological units their structural stability but lack their semantic unity and figurativeness (e. g. *to go to school*, *to go by bus*, *to commit suicide*).

There are two major criteria for distinguishing between phraseological units and free word-groups: semantic and structural.

Compare the following examples:

³ Akhmanova O., (ed) "Lexicology: Theory and Method" M, 1972. 381 p.

A. Cambridge don: I'm told they're inviting more American professors to this university. Isn't it rather carrying coals to Newcastle?

(*To carry coals to Newcastle* means "to take something to a place where it is already plentiful and not needed". Cf. with the R. *В Тулу со своим самоваром.*)

B. This cargo ship is carrying coal to Liverpool.

The first thing that captures the eye is the semantic difference of the two word-groups consisting of the same essential constituents. In the second sentence the free word-group is *carrying coal* is used in the direct sense, the word *coal* standing for real hard, black coal and *carry* for the plain process of taking something from one place to another. The first context quite obviously has nothing to do either with coal or with transporting it, and the meaning of the whole word-group is something entirely new and far removed from the current meanings of the constituents.

Academician V. V. Vinogradov spoke of the semantic change in phraseological units as "a meaning resulting from a peculiar chemical combination of words". This seems a very apt comparison because in both cases between which the parallel is drawn an entirely new quality comes into existence.

The semantic shift affecting phraseological units does not consist in a mere change of meanings of each separate constituent part of the unit. The meanings of the constituents merge to produce an entirely new meaning: e. g. *to have a bee in one's bonnet* means "to have an obsession about something; to be eccentric or even a little mad". The humorous metaphoric comparison with a person who is distracted by a bee continually buzzing under his cap has become erased and half-forgotten, and the speakers using the expression hardly think of bees or bonnets but accept it in its transferred sense: "obsessed, eccentric".

That is what is meant when phraseological units are said to be characterised by semantic unity. In the traditional approach, phraseological units have been defined

as word-groups conveying a single concept (whereas in free word-groups each meaningful component stands for a separate concept).

It is this feature that makes phraseological units similar to words: both words and phraseological units possess semantic unity (see Introduction). Yet, words are also characterised by structural unity which phraseological units very obviously lack being combinations of words.

Most Russian scholars today accept *the semantic criterion* of distinguishing phraseological units from free word-groups as the major one and base their research work in the field of phraseology on the definition of a phraseological unit offered by Professor A. V. Koonin, the leading authority on problems of English phraseology in our country:

"A phraseological unit is a stable word-group characterised by a completely or partially transferred meaning."

The definition clearly suggests that the degree of semantic change in a phraseological unit may vary ("completely or partially transferred meaning"). In actual fact the semantic change may affect either the whole word-group or only one of its components. The following phraseological units represent the first case: *to skate on thin ice* (~ to put oneself in a dangerous position; to take risks); *to wear one's heart on one's sleeve* (~ to expose, so that everyone knows, one's most intimate feelings); *to have one's heart in one's boots* (~ to be deeply depressed, anxious about something); *to have one's heart in one's mouth* (~ to be greatly alarmed by what is expected to happen); *to have one's heart in the right place* (~ to be a good, honest and generous fellow); *a crow in borrowed plumes* (£ a person pretentiously and unsuitably dressed; cf. with the R. *ворона в павлиньих перьях*); *a wolf in a sheep's clothing*² (~ a dangerous enemy who plausibly poses as a friend).

The second type is represented by phraseological units in which one of the components preserves its current meaning and the other is used in a transferred meaning: *to lose (keep) one's temper*, *to fly into a temper*, *to fall ill*, *to fall in love*

(out of love), to stick to one's word (promise), to arrive at a conclusion, bosom friends, shop talk (also: to talk shop), small talk.

Here, though, we are on dangerous ground because the border-line dividing phraseological units with partially changed meanings from the so-called *semi-fixed* or *non-phraseological word-groups* (marginal cases) is uncertain and confusing.

The term "idiom", both in this country and abroad, is mostly applied to phraseological units with completely transferred meanings, that is, to the ones in which the meaning of the whole unit does not correspond to the current meanings of the components. There are many scholars who regard idioms as the essence of phraseology and the major focus of interest in phraseology research⁴.

The structural criterion also brings forth pronounced distinctive features characterising phraseological units and contrasting them to free word-groups.

Structural invariability is an essential feature of phraseological units, though, as we shall see, some of them possess it to a lesser degree than others. Structural invariability of phraseological units finds expression in a number of restrictions.

First of all, restriction in substitution. As a rule, no word can be substituted for any meaningful component of a phraseological unit without destroying its sense. *To carry coals to Manchester* makes as little sense as *Б Харьков со своим самоваром*.

The idiom *to give somebody the cold shoulder* means "to treat somebody coldly, to ignore or cut him", but a *warm shoulder* or a *cold elbow* make no sense at all. The meaning of *a bee in smb's bonnet* was explained above, but *a bee in his hat* or *cap* would sound a silly error in choice of words, one of those absurd slips that people are apt to make when speaking a foreign language.

At the same time, in free word-groups substitution does not present any dangers and does not lead to any serious consequences. In *The cargo ship is carrying coal to Liverpool* all the components can be changed:

The ship/vessel/boat carries/transport/takes/brings coal to (any port).

⁴ Akhmanova O., (ed) "Lexicology: Theory and Method" M, 1972. 381 p.

The second type of restriction is the restriction in introducing any additional components into the structure of a phraseological unit.

In a free word-group such changes can be made without affecting the general meaning of the utterance: *This big ship is carrying a large cargo of coal to the port of Liverpool.*

In the phraseological unit *to carry coals to Newcastle* no additional components can be introduced. Nor can one speak about *the big white elephant* (when using *the white elephant* in its phraseological sense) or about somebody *having his heart in his brown boots.*

Yet, such restrictions are less regular. In *Vanity Fair* by W. M. Thackeray the idiom *to build a castle in the air* is used in this way:

"While dressing for dinner, she built *for herself* a most magnificent castle in the air *of which she was the mistress ...*"

In fiction such variations of idioms created for stylistic purposes are not a rare thing. In oral speech phraseological units mostly preserve their traditional structures and resist the introduction of additional components.

The third type of structural restrictions in phraseological units is grammatical invariability. A typical mistake with students of English is to use the plural form of *fault* in the phraseological unit *to find fault with somebody* (e. g. *The teacher always found faults with the boy*). Though the plural form in this context is logically well-founded, it is a mistake in terms of the grammatical invariability of phraseological units >. A similar typical mistake often occurs in the unit *from head to foot* (e. g. *From head to foot he was immaculately dressed*). Students are apt to use the plural form of *foo.t*

If one compares proverbs and phraseological units in the semantic aspect, the difference seems to become even more obvious. Proverbs could be best compared with minute fables for, like the latter, they sum up the collective experience of the community. They moralise (*Hell is paved with good intentions*), give advice (*Don't judge a tree by its bark*), give warning (*If you sing before breakfast, you will cry*

before night), admonish (*Liars should have good memories*), criticise (*Everyone calls his own geese swans*).

No phraseological unit ever does any of these things. They do not stand for whole statements as proverbs do but for a single concept. Their function in speech is purely *nominative* (i. e. they denote an object, an act, etc.). The function of proverbs in speech, though, is *communicative* (i. e. they impart certain information).

The question of whether or not proverbs should be regarded as a subtype of phraseological units and studied together with the phraseology of a language is a controversial one.

Professor A. V. Koonin includes proverbs in his classification of phraseological units and labels them *communicative phraseological units* (see Ch. 13). From his point of view, one of the main criteria of a phraseological unit is its stability. If the quotient of phraseological stability in a word-group is not below the minimum, it means that we are dealing with a phraseological unit. The structural type — that is, whether the unit is a combination of words or a sentence — is irrelevant.

The criterion of nomination and communication cannot be applied here either, says Professor A. V. Koonin, because there are a considerable number of verbal phraseological units which are word-groups (i. e. nominative units) when the verb is used in the Active Voice, and sentences (i. e. communicative units) when the verb is used in the Passive Voice⁵. E. g. *to cross (pass) the Rubicon* — *the Rubicon is crossed (passed)*; *to shed crocodile tears* — *crocodile tears are shed*. Hence, if one accepts nomination as a criterion of referring or not referring this or that unit to phraseology, one is faced with the absurd conclusion that such word-groups, when with verbs in the Active Voice, are phraseological units and belong to the system of the language, and when with verbs in the Passive Voice, are non-phraseological word-groups and do not belong to the system of the language.

⁵ Koonin A. "English lexicology" M, 1940. 269 p.

It may be added, as one more argument in support of this concept, that there does not seem to exist any rigid or permanent border-line between proverbs and phraseological units as the latter rather frequently originate from the former.

So, the phraseological unit *the last straw* originated from the proverb *The last straw breaks the camel's back*, the phraseological unit *birds of a feather* from the proverb *Birds of a feather flock together*, the phraseological unit *to catch at a straw (straws)* from *A drowning man catches at straws*.

What is more, some of the proverbs are easily transformed into phraseological units. E. g. *Don't put all your eggs in one basket* > *to put all one's eggs in one basket*; *don't cast pearls before swine* > *to cast pearls before swine*.

1.3 Principles of Classification of phraseological units

It would be interesting now to look at phraseological units from a different angle, namely: how are all these treasures of the language approached by the linguistic science? The very miscellaneous nature of these units suggests the first course of action: they must be sorted out and arranged in certain classes which possess identical characteristics.

But which characteristics should be chosen as the main criteria for such a classification system? The structural? The semantic? Those of degree of stability? Of origin?

It should be clear from the previous description that a phraseological unit is a complex phenomenon with a number of important features, which can therefore be approached from different points of view. Hence, there exist a considerable number of different classification systems devised by different scholars and based on different principles⁶.

The traditional and oldest principle for classifying phraseological units is based on their original content and might be alluded to as "*thematic*" (although the term is not universally accepted). The approach is widely used in numerous English and

⁶ Arbekova T.I "English lexicology" M, 1977. 243 p.

American guides to idiom, phrase books, etc. On this principle, idioms are classified according to their sources of origin, "source" referring to the particular sphere of human activity, of life of nature, of natural phenomena, etc. So, L. P. Smith gives in his classification groups of idioms used by sailors, fishermen, soldiers, hunters and associated with the realia, phenomena and conditions of their occupations. In Smith's classification we also find groups of idioms associated with domestic and wild animals and birds, agriculture and cooking. There are also numerous idioms drawn from sports, arts, etc.

This principle of classification is sometimes called "*etymological*". The term does not seem appropriate since we usually mean something different when we speak of the etymology of a word or word-group: whether the word (or word-group) is native or borrowed, and, if the latter, what is the source of borrowing. It is true that Smith makes a special study of idioms borrowed from other languages, but that is only a relatively small part of his classification system. The general principle is not etymological.

Smith points out that word-groups associated with the sea and the life of seamen are especially numerous in English vocabulary. Most of them have long since developed metaphorical meanings which have no longer any association with the sea or sailors. Here are some examples.

To be all at sea — to be unable to understand; to be in a state of ignorance or bewilderment about something (e. g. *How can I be a judge in a situation in which I am all at sea? I'm afraid I'm all at sea in this problem*). V. H. Collins remarks that the metaphor is that of a boat tossed about, out of control, with its occupants not knowing where they are. [26]

To sink or swim — to fail or succeed (e. g. *It is a case of sink or swim. All depends on his own effort.*)

In deep water — in trouble or danger.

In low water, on the rocks — in strained financial circumstances.

To be in the same boat with somebody — to be in a situation in which people share the same difficulties and dangers (e. g. *I don't like you much, but seeing that*

we're in the same boat I'll back you all I can). The metaphor is that of passengers in the life-boat of a sunken ship.

To sail under false colours — to pretend to be what one is not; sometimes, to pose as a friend and, at the same time, have hostile intentions. The metaphor is that of an enemy ship that approaches its intended prey showing at the mast the flag ("colours") of a pretended friendly nation.

To show one's colours — to betray one's real character or intentions. The allusion is, once more, to a ship showing the flag of its country at the mast.

To strike one's colours — to surrender, give in, admit one is beaten. The metaphor refers to a ship's hauling down its flag (sign of surrender).

To weather (to ride out) the storm — to overcome difficulties; to have courageously stood against misfortunes.

To bow to the storm — to give in, to acknowledge one's defeat.

Three sheets in(to) the wind (sl.) — very drunk.

Half seas over (sl.) — drunk.

Though, as has been said, direct associations with seafaring in all these idioms have been severed, distant memories of the sea romance and adventure still linger in some of them. The faint sound of the surf can still be heard in such phrases as *to ride out the storm* or *breakers ahead!* (= Take care! Danger!). Such idioms as *to sail under false colours*, *to nail one's colours to the mast* (~ to be true to one's convictions, to fight for them openly) bring to mind the distant past of pirate brigs, sea battles and great discoveries of new lands.

It is true, though, that a foreigner is more apt to be struck by the colourfulness of the direct meaning of an idiom where a native speaker sees only its transferred meaning, the original associations being almost fully forgotten. And yet, when we Russians use or hear the idiom *первая ласточка*, doesn't a dim image of the little bird flash before our mind, though, of course, we really mean something quite different? When we say *на воре и шапка горит*, are we entirely free from the picture built up by the direct meanings of the words? If it were really so and all the direct associations of the idioms had been entirely erased, phraseology would not

constitute one of the language's main expressive resources. Its expressiveness and wealth of colour largely — if not solely — depend on the ability of an idiom to create two images at once: that of a ship safely coming out of the storm — and that of a man overcoming his troubles and difficulties (*to weather/ride out the storm*); that of a ship's crew desperately fighting against a pirate brig — and that of a man courageously standing for his views and convictions (*to nail one's colours to the mast*),

The thematic principle of classifying phraseological units has real merit but it does not take into consideration the linguistic characteristic features of the phraseological units.

The considerable contribution made by Russian scholars in phraseological research cannot be exaggerated. We have already mentioned the great contribution made by Academician V. V. Vinogradov to this branch of linguistic science.

The classification system of phraseological units devised by this prominent scholar is considered by some linguists of today to be outdated, and yet its value is beyond doubt because it was the first classification system which was based on *the semantic principle*. It goes without saying that semantic characteristics are of immense importance in phraseological units. It is also well known that in modern research they are often sadly ignored. That is why any attempt at studying the semantic aspect of phraseological units should be appreciated.

Vinogradov's classification system is founded on the degree of semantic cohesion between the components of a phraseological unit. Units with a partially transferred meaning show the weakest cohesion between their components. The more distant the meaning of a phraseological unit from the current meaning of its constituent parts, the greater is its degree of semantic cohesion. Accordingly, Vinogradov classifies phraseological units into three classes: *phraseological combinations, unities and fusions* (R. *фразеологические сочетания, единства и сращения*).

Phraseological combinations are word-groups with a partially changed meaning. They may be said to be clearly motivated, that is, the meaning of the unit can be easily deduced from the meanings of its constituents.

E. g. *to be at one's wits' end*, *to be good at something*, *to be a good hand at something*, *to have a bite*, *to come off a poor second*, *to come to a sticky end* (coll.), *to look a sight* (coll.), *to take something for granted*, *to stick to one's word*, *to stick at nothing*, *gospel truth*, *bosom friends*.

Phraseological unities are word-groups with a completely changed meaning, that is, the meaning of the unit does not correspond to the meanings of its constituent parts. They are motivated units or, putting it another way, the meaning of the whole unit can be deduced from the meanings of the constituent parts; the metaphor, on which the shift of meaning is based, is clear and transparent⁷.

E. g. *to stick to one's guns* (~ to be true to one's views or convictions. The image is that of a gunner or guncrew who do not desert their guns even if a battle seems lost); *to sit on the fence* (~ in discussion, politics, etc. refrain from committing oneself to either side); *to catch/clutch at a straw/straws* (~ when in extreme danger, avail oneself of even the slightest chance of rescue); *to lose one's head* (~ to be at a loss what to do; to be out of one's mind); *to lose one's heart to smb.* (~ to fall in love); *to lock the stable door after the horse is stolen* (~ to take precautions too late, when the mischief is done); *to look a gift horse in the mouth* (= to examine a present too critically; to find fault with something one gained without effort); *to ride the high horse* (~ to behave in a superior, haughty, overbearing way. The image is that of a person mounted on a horse so high that he looks down on others); *the last drop/straw* (the final culminating circumstance that makes a situation unendurable); *a big bug/pot*, sl. (a person of importance); *a fish out of water* (a person situated uncomfortably outside his usual or proper environment).

Phraseological fusions are word-groups with a completely changed meaning but, in contrast to the unities, they are demotivated, that is, their meaning cannot

⁷ Arbekova T.I "English lexicology" M, 1977. 243 p.

be deduced from the meanings of the constituent parts; the metaphor, on which the shift of meaning was based, has lost its clarity and is obscure.

E. g. *to come a cropper* (to come to disaster); *neck and crop* (entirely, altogether, thoroughly, as in: *He was thrown out neck and crop. She severed all relations with them neck and crop.*); *at sixes and sevens* (in confusion or in disagreement); *to set one's cap at smb.* (to try and attract a man; spoken about girls and women. The image, which is now obscure, may have been either that of a child trying to catch a butterfly with his cap or of a girl putting on a pretty cap so as to attract a certain person. In *Vanity Fair*: "*Be careful, Joe, that girl is setting her cap at you.*"); *to leave smb. in the lurch* (to abandon a friend when he is in trouble); *to show the white feather* (to betray one's cowardice. The allusion was originally to cock fighting. A white feather in a cock's plumage denoted a bad fighter); *to dance attendance on smb.* (to try and please or attract smb.; to show exaggerated attention to smb.).

It is obvious that this classification system does not take into account the structural characteristics of phraseological units. On the other hand, the border-line separating unities from fusions is vague and even subjective. One and the same phraseological unit may appear motivated to one person (and therefore be labelled as a unity) and demotivated to another (and be regarded as a fusion). The more profound one's command of the language and one's knowledge of its history, the fewer fusions one is likely to discover in it.

The structural principle of classifying phraseological units is based on their ability to perform the same syntactical functions as words. In the traditional structural approach, the following principal groups of phraseological units are distinguishable.

A. *Verbal*. E. g. *to run for one's (dear) life, to get (win) the upper hand, to talk through one's hat, to make a song and dance about something, to sit pretty* (Amer. sl.).

B. *Substantive*. E. g. *dog's life, cat-and-dog life, calf love, white lie, tall order, birds of a feather, birds of passage, red tape, brown study*.

C. Adjectival. E. g. *high and mighty, spick and span, brand new, safe and sound.* In this group the so-called comparative word-groups are particularly expressive and sometimes amusing in their unanticipated and capricious associations: (as) *cool as a cucumber, (as) nervous as a cat, (as) weak as a kitten, (as) good as gold* (usu. spoken about children), (as) *pretty as a picture, as large as life, (as) slippery as an eel, (as) thick as thieves, (as) drunk as an owl (sl.), (as) mad as a hatter/a hare in March.*

D. Adverbial. E. g. *high and low* (as in *They searched for him high and low*), *by hook or by crook* (as in *She decided that, by hook or by crook, she must marry him*), *for love or money* (as in *He came to the conclusion that a really good job couldn't be found for love or money*), *in cold blood* (as in *The crime was said to have been committed in cold blood*), *in the dead of night, between the devil and the deep sea* (in a situation in which danger threatens whatever course of action one takes), *to the bitter end* (as in *to fight to the bitter end*), *by a long chalk* (as in *It is not the same thing, by a long chalk*).

E. Interjectional. E. g. *my God! by Jove! by George! goodness gracious! good Heavens! sakes alive!* (Amer.)

Professor Smirnitsky offered a classification system for English phraseological units which is interesting as an attempt to combine the structural and the semantic principles. Phraseological units in this classification system are grouped according to the number and semantic significance of their constituent parts. Accordingly two large groups are established:

A. one-summit units, which have one meaningful constituent (e. g. *to give up, to make out, to pull out, to be tired, to be surprised*¹);

B. two-summit and multi-summit units which have two or more meaningful constituents (e. g. *black art, first night, common sense, to fish in troubled waters*).

Within each of these large groups the phraseological units are classified according to the category of parts of speech of the summit constituent. So, one-summit units are subdivided into: a) verbal-adverbial units equivalent to verbs in which the semantic and the grammatical centres coincide in the first constituent (e.

g. *to give up*); b) units equivalent to verbs which have their semantic centre in the second constituent and their grammatical centre in the first (e. g. *to be tired*); c) prepositional-substantive units equivalent either to adverbs or to copulas and having their semantic centre in the substantive constituent and no grammatical centre (e. g. *by heart, by means of*). Two-summit and multi-summit phraseological units are classified into: a) attributive-substantive two-summit units equivalent to nouns (e. g. *black art*),

It should be pointed out that most Russian scholars do not regard these as phraseological units; so this is a controversial point.

b) verbal-substantive two-summit units equivalent to verbs (e. g. *to take the floor*),
c) phraseological repetitions equivalent to adverbs (e. g. *now or never*); d) adverbial multi-summit units (e. g. *every other day*).

Professor Smirnitsky also distinguishes proper phraseological units which, in his classification system, are units with non-figurative meanings, and idioms, that is, units with transferred meanings based on a metaphor.

Professor Koonin, the leading Russian authority on English phraseology, pointed out certain inconsistencies in this classification system. First of all, the subdivision into phraseological units (as non-idiomatic units) and idioms contradicts the leading criterion of a phraseological unit suggested by Professor Smirnitsky: it should be idiomatic.

Professor Koonin also objects to the inclusion of such word-groups as *black art, best man, first night* in phraseology (in Professor Smirnitsky's classification system, the two-summit phraseological units) as all these word-groups are not characterised by a transferred meaning. It is also pointed out that verbs with postpositions (e. g. *give up*) are included in the classification but their status as phraseological units is not supported by any convincing argument.

The classification system of phraseological units suggested by Professor A. V. Koonin is the latest out-standing achievement in the Russian theory of

phraseology. The classification is based on the combined structural-semantic principle and it also considers the quotient of stability of phraseological units.

Phraseological units are subdivided into the following four classes according to their function in communication determined by their structural-semantic characteristics.

1 . Nominative phraseological units are represented by word-groups, including the ones with one meaningful word, and coordinative phrases of the type *wear and tear, well and good*.

The first class also includes word-groups with a predicative structure, such as *as the crow flies*, and, also, predicative phrases of the type *see how the land lies, ships that pass in the night*.

2. Nominative-communicative phraseological units include word-groups of the type *to break the ice — the ice is broken*, that is, verbal word-groups which are transformed into a sentence when the verb is used in the Passive Voice.

3. Phraseological units which are neither nominative nor communicative include interjectional word-groups.

4. Communicative phraseological units are represented by proverbs and sayings.

These four classes are divided into sub-groups according to the type of structure of the phraseological unit. The sub-groups include further rubrics representing types of structural-semantic meanings according to the kind of relations between the constituents and to either full or partial transference of meaning.

The classification system includes a considerable number of subtypes and gradations and objectively reflects the wealth of types of phraseological units existing in the language. It is based on truly scientific and modern criteria and represents an earnest attempt to take into account all the relevant aspects of phraseological units and combine them within the borders of one classification system.

Chapter II Functional-semantic and contextual analysis of somatic phraseologisms in English and Uzbek

2.1 Structural peculiarities of the somatic phraseologisms “head” and “eye” in English

While investigating the phraseological units with the component “head” we have analyzed the following problems. Phraseological units with the component “head” from the structural point of view divide into several types. Most phraseological units form like this:

1. $N + N = 7 \text{ } 7 \%$.

Pope’s head; a Queen’s head, King Charles’s head⁸; and such type of phraseological units.

2. $V + P_2 + \text{Prep} + P_2 + N = 6 \text{ } (6\%) \text{ } 6\%$.

Put smth into smb’s head;

Stand smth on it’s head;

Get (take) it into one’s head and such type of phraseological units.

3. $V + P_2 + V = 6 \text{ } (6\%) \text{ } 6\%$.

Keep one’s head; lose one’s head; open one’s head; and such type of phraseological units.

4. $A \text{ } aj + N = 6 \text{ } 6\%$.

A good head; a wooden head; a clear head; ва бошка шунга ухшаш фразеологик бирликлар.

5. $V + \text{Prep} + P_2 + N = 5 \text{ } 5\%$.

Go to smb’s head; standing on one’s head; get through one’s head; and such type of phraseological units.

6. $\text{Prep} + P_2 + N = 4 \text{ } 4\%$.

Over smb’s head; on one’s head; off one’s head; and such type of phraseological units.

⁸ Webster's Encyclopedic Unabridged Dictionary of the English Language. Random House Value Pub. 1996.

$$7. V + N = 3$$

have a head; and such type of phraseological units.

$$8. V + P_2 + N + Prep + N = 3 \quad 3\%.$$

Put one's head in a noose; and such type of phraseological units.

$$9. V + P_2 + N + Prep = 2 \quad 2\%.$$

Get one's head down; and such type of phraseological units.

$$10. V + Prep + N = 2 \quad 2\%.$$

Win by a head; and such type of phraseological units.

$$11. V + P_2 + Pre + P_2 + N = 2 \quad 2\%.$$

Buy smth over smb's head; and such type of phraseological units.

$$12. V + P_2 + P_2 + N = 2 \quad 2\%.$$

Cost smth his head; and such type of phraseological units.

Above mentioned forming are the most productive way forming phraseological units. Besides that we come across to the following structures. They are the phraseological units of different structure and they contain 55% of phraseological units as a whole.

Let's give some more examples.

$$V + Conj + N$$

$$V + Adj + N + Prep + P_2$$

$$V + Prep + N$$

$$V + N + Prep + P_2 + N + Prep + N$$

$$V + N + V + N$$

$$Prep + N$$

$$V + P_2 + N + V$$

$$P_2 + N + Prep$$

Its obvious from the given examples that the structure of phraseological units with the component "head" are different from each other.

Analysis of phraseological units with the component "eye" from the structural point of view

The structure of phraseological units with the component “eye” is totally different.

We give some types of structures in the following examples.

1. V + P₂ + N + Prep + P₂ = 9 8%.

Open smb's eyes to smth⁹;

Cut one's eyes at smb;

Have one's eyes about one;

2. Adj + N = 7 6%.

The glad eye;

A keen eye;

Black eye;

3. N + N = 5

Bull's eye; The public eye; a cat's eye;

4. V + P₂ + N + Prep = 6 5%.

Put one's eyes together;

Feast one's eye's on;

Get one's eye in;

5. V + P₂ + N = 11 9%.

Open one's eye; blear (dust) smb's eyes;

Close one's eyes;

6. V + Prep + P₂ + N = 4.

Appear to one's eyes; fall under smb's eye;

7. V + N + Prep = 3 2,5%.

Go eyes out; clap eyes on;

8. V + N = 2 1,5%.

The naked eye;

9. V + Adj + N = 2 1,5%.

⁹ Webster's Encyclopedic Unabridged Dictionary of the English Language. Random House Value Pub. 1996.

Make big eyes;

10. N + Prep + N = 2 1,5%.

The eye of day;

We can continue such numbers. For example:

V+P₂+Adj+N

V+N+Prep+P₂

Prep+P₂+Adj+N

V+N+Prep+P₂+N

V+P₂+N+Prep+N

V+P₂+N+V+Prep

V+N+V+N

V+N+N

V+P₂+Prep+N

Such examples shows the different structure of the phraseologisms and these difference is also shown in the meaning of the phraseologisms.

2.2 Semantic analysis of somatic phraseologisms in English

At present stage in the development of phraseology as a linguistic discipline characterized by strong emphasis on the semantics of **phraseological units** (EF). Phraseology is important for the study of semantic processes, associated **with** the development of the meanings of words, the birth of new signs processes to improve our competence in the study functioning of the language system. All this testifies to the importance and need to explore this part of the lexicon. Being explored different types of EF, we study their structure, syntactic context. Widely considered thematic, synonyms and antonymic ranks in phraseology¹⁰.

Studies somatic FE (sphere) are becoming more relevant. To far the sphere has been studied enough. In literature there are few works devoted to this subject.

¹⁰ Antrushina G.B, Afanasyeva V.A “English lexicology” M, 1985. 287 p.

In recent years, a growing number of works performed in line **with** comparative study of EF in different languages. **English** Phraseology was subjected to a comparative **analysis** of the relatively recently, and works on the subject estimated **units**. Relevance of the studies is that at present time there is a theoretical and a practical necessity in relation specific linguistic **units** in specific language pairs. Establishment regular functional and semantic identity between the **units** of the two languages dictated by the translation and methodological needs. All become more popular in the field of comparative studies phraseology, because here there are more complex relationships transposing proposed research is conducted on the material of somatic phraseology, that is FE, which contain the names of the parts as **components** body (from the Greek. "soma = body). The paper attempts to compare FE **English** and languages containing **component-somatizm** in Uzbek.

The choice of this **component** is nonrandom and is due to the fact that the data somatizmy characterized by high productivity and broad razoobrazovatelnyimi potencies, they are quite numerous, have a high incidence use and form the vast ranks of the English and n phraseology languages.

Now let's discuss English somatic phraseologisms. First of all we'll learn somatic phraseologism with the component "head" in English.

There are many somatic phraseologisms with the component "head". They are divided into the following semantic groups:

I. Phraseologisms denoting intellectual and cognitive abilities of the person:

1. a clear head.

He knows how to run the meeting.

2. come into one's head.

He gave the first name that came into his head.

3. get (or take) it into one's head.

Well, he's suddenly taken it into his head that I've been making more money than is good for me. (C.P.Snow, "The Conscience of the Rich", ch.XXIV)

4. get (or put) smb (or smth) out of one's head.

- ... get it out of your heads that music's only good when it's loud.
(Th.Wilder, "Our Town", act I)
5. get through his head if it takes all night.
(DAI)
6. a good (or strong) head.
... I had for such a youngster, a tolerable strong head.
7. have a (good) head for smth.
He has a good head for repairing.
8. have (got) a (good) head on one's shoulders.
Dick wanted a smart lad, a likely, honest lad with a head on his shoulders...
(A.J.Cronin, "The Stars look down", book I ch.XIX).
9. have an old head on young shoulders.
You appear to have an old head upon very young shoulders; at one moment to be a scampish boy... and at another a resolute... man. (Fr.Marryat, "Percival Keene", ch.XIX).
10. have one's head examined.
Anyone who votes for Nixon ought to have his head examined. ("New York Times").
11. have (got) one's head screwed on right (or the right way).
But she's got her head screwed on, has Kitty. She'll be careful, she won't let the police get hold of her again. (C.P.Snow, "The Sleep of Reason", ch.29)
12. head and shoulders (above smb or smth).
Geoffrey says his speech on the Poor Law was head and shoulders the best made. (J.Galsworthy, "The Patrician", part II, ch.XXX)
13. make head against...
They made head against the wind. (Ch.Dickens, "Barnaby Rudge", ch.XXXIV).
14. make head or tail of smth (or smb).

He put on his cap with ponderous decision, "Little guys", he said, that's a race all by it self. I can't make head or tail of them. (I.Shaw, "The young Liou", ch.17).

out of one's own head.

... I fancied perhaps this reporter was making it all up out of his own head.

15. over smb's head (or the head of smb).

He paused, overcome by the consciousness that he had been talking over Ruth's head. (J.London, "Martin Eden", ch.XXX).

16. two heads are better than one (proverb).

17. a level head.

James Williams belonged among the level heads. (O.Henry, "The Four Millions").

II. Phraseologisms denoting the spiritual condition of the person:

1. hang (down) one's head.

Francis hang his head. "I am annoyed with myself". (A.J.Cronin, "The Keys of the Kingdom").

2. have a bad (or no) head for heights.

I ... looked at the drop, and decided that I was not a daring fellow. I have no head for heights. (I.Murdoch, "Under the Net", ch.VI).

3. keep one's head.

The situation was serious, but he kept his head (W.S.Maugham, "Complete short stories").

4. not to know if (or whether) one is (standing) on one's head or one's heels.

Maughan. ... let me alone. I don't know whether I'm on my head or my heels when you all start on me like this. (B.Shaw, "Heartbreak House", act III).

5. put smth out of smb's head.

You said smth just now that put everything out of my head. (W.Scott, "The Antiquary", ch.XIII).

III. phraseologisms denoting weak intellect, lack of mind of the person:

1. off one's head.

A hundred times he had heard the old man spoken of as a little off his head.
(K.S.Prichard, "Winged Seeds" ch.II).

2. Soft (touched or weak) in the head.

Danis stared at him. "What's come over you? Going soft in the head?"
(D.Carter, "Fatherless Sons", part I, ch.6).

3. heads will roll.

4. have a head like a sieve.

head [count] : the part of the body containing the brain, eyes, ears, nose, and mouth

She patted the dog on the head. He nodded his head in agreement.

The ceiling's low watch your head! head injuries

They were covered from head to foot/toe in mud. [=they were completely covered in mud]

He has a full head of hair. [=he has a full amount of hair on his head]

TALKING HEAD

2 [count] : a person's mental ability: mind or intellect

You shouldn't let your heart rule your head. [=you should be guided by reason and not by your emotions]

She did some quick calculations in her head. [=without writing anything; mentally]

I keep hearing that song in my head. = That song keeps running through my head. = I can't get that song out of my head. It never even entered my head to run for office. [=I never thought of running for office]

The problem is all in his head. [=the problem is not real; he's just imagining it]
Don't go putting ideas in/into his head. [=don't cause him to have ideas or suspicions that he would not have himself]

You should put that idea out of your head. [=you should stop thinking about that idea] She always says the first thing that comes/pops into her head. [=the first thing that she thinks of] I'm sure we can solve this problem if we just use our

heads. [=think carefully] That guy should have his head examined. = That guy is not right in the head. [=that guy is crazy]

You need a cool/calm head [=an ability to remain calm] to deal with someone like him. a clear head [=an ability to think clearly]

If you have a good head on your shoulders, you are intelligent and have good judgment. You don't have to worry about her she's got a good head on her shoulders. When you get/take it into your head to do something, you suddenly decide to do it in a way that seems foolish or surprising. He's taken it into his head to try skydiving. I somehow got it into my head to run for public office. If you get it into your head that something is true, you begin to believe something even though there is no good reason for believing it. She's somehow gotten it into her head that I don't like her. [=she believes that I don't like her although I do like her]

3 [count] : a person who has a specified mental or emotional quality A fight was avoided when cooler heads prevailed. [=when calmer or less angry people were able to convince others not to fight]

HOTHEAD, SOREHEAD

4 [singular] : a distance equal to the length of a head The horse won the race by a head. I'm a head taller than you. 5 [count] : the front side of a coin : the side of a coin that shows a picture of a person's head the head of a penny usually used in the plural to refer to one of the two choices you can make when a coin is thrown in the air to decide something I call heads. Is it heads or tails? [=did the coin land with heads or tails facing up?]

It landed heads up. compare 1TAIL 3 6 head [plural] : individual animals 100 head of cattle

7 a : an end of something that is like a head in shape or position usually singular; often + of She placed the pillows at the head of the bed. We arrived early so that we'd be at the head [=front] of the line. The chairman sat at the head of the table. the head [=top] of a nail/pin/screw compare FOOT

7 b : the part of an object that hits or touches something else a grinding head the hammer's head often + of the head of a spear the head of a golf club
ARROWHEAD, SPEARHEAD, WARHEAD

8 [noncount] : the position of being a leader She's at the head of her class. [=she is the best student in her class]

9 [count] 9 a : a person who leads or directs a group or organization Have you met the new department head? often + of She is the head of our sales division. heads of families/households heads of state [=leaders of countries] often used before another noun the restaurant's head cook the team's head coach

9 b chiefly Brit : head teacher

10 [count] : a tight mass of leaves or flowers on a plant The flower heads on the plant are very large. a head of cabbage/lettuce a head of garlic

11 [count] : the place where a stream or river begins usually singular the head of the Nile

12 [singular] : pressure caused by the water or steam in a machine When an engine has a full head of steam, it has built up a full amount of power. This phrase is often used figuratively to describe something that is moving forward in a fast and powerful way. The project started slowly, but now we have a full head of steam.

13 [count] : the bubbles that form on the top of some liquids (such as beer) usually singular the foamy head on a beer

14 [singular] : the point at which a situation becomes very serious or when action is required Things came to a head when the workers threatened to go on strike. These new revelations brought the scandal to a head.

15 [count] : a small, inflamed area on the skin with a spot in the middle
BLACKHEAD a big/swelled head informal : an overly high opinion of yourself
All those compliments have given him a big head. [=have made him very conceited] a head : for each person The price is \$20 a head.

a price on someone's head

PRICE bang heads together

BANG bite someone's head off see

BITE butt heads

BUTT count heads

COUNT eyes in the back of your head see

EYE get it through someone's head : to cause someone to learn and remember something She's finally gotten it through their heads that she doesn't eat meat. get it through your head : to accept or understand (something) He can't seem to get it through his head that I'm not interested in working with him.

get your head round Brit : to understand (something) She couldn't get her head round why he had to leave. go over someone's head : to discuss something with a person who is higher in rank than someone else

He went over his supervisor's head to complain about the policy to the company's president. [=he complained about the policy to the company's president rather than his supervisor]

go to your head

1 of an alcoholic drink : to make you feel drunk I just had one glass of wine, but it went straight to my head.

2 : to make you believe that you are better than other people He has never let his fame go to his head. have a head for : to have an ability to understand or deal with (something) She's always had a (good) head for business. (Brit) He has a head for heights. [=he is not afraid of heights; being up high does not bother him] have/get your head (screwed) on right/straight informal : to think or act in a smart and sensible way: She's young, but it's clear that she has her head screwed on right. You think that's a good idea? You need to get your head screwed on straight.

head and shoulders above used to say that someone or something is much better than others They are/stand head and shoulders above the competition.

head in the sand If you bury/have/hide (etc.) your head in the sand, you ignore something unpleasant that you should be dealing with. He can't just bury his head in the sand every time there's a problem.

head over heels : very deeply in love We were head over heels (in love). He fell head over heels for some girl he met at school. (US) He went head over heels for her.

heads roll informal If you say that heads will roll or (less commonly) heads are going to roll, you mean that people will be severely punished or will lose their jobs because of something that has happened. When the boss finds out about the mistake, heads will roll.

hit the nail on the head HIT hold up your head or hold your head (up) high

hold up your head or hold your head (up) high: to be proud: to not feel ashamed Even though they lost the game, they can still hold up their heads because they tried their best.

keep your head: to remain calm. She has shown that she can keep her head in a crisis.

keep your head above water: to avoid financial failure while having money problems We have so much debt that we're barely able to keep our heads above water.

keep your head down informal: to behave in a quiet way that does not attract attention a politician who is keeping his head down and trying to avoid controversy

knock heads

KNOCK knock someone's head off

KNOCK knock some sense into someone's head

SENSE knock (something) on the head

KNOCK lose your head : to become very upset or angry. He lost his head and said some things he regrets.

not make head or/nor tail of or US not make heads or/nor tails (out) of informal: to be unable to understand (something) I couldn't make heads or tails of her reaction. His handwriting was so bad that we couldn't make heads or tails out of it.

off the top of your head

TOP off your head Brit informal: crazy or foolish

He's not just eccentric's completely off his head! He's gone off his head over some girl.

on your head 1: with the upper and lower parts of your body reversed in position

Can you stand on your head?

2 : in or into great disorder News of the discovery turned the scientific world on its head.

3 used to say that you will be blamed for something. If we miss our deadline, it will be on your head. [=it will be your fault] out of your head informal: unable to act or think in a reasonable and controlled way because of drunkenness or strong emotion He was (drunk) out of his head. [=he was extremely drunk] Her parents were out of their heads with worry [=were extremely worried and upset] when she didn't come home on time.

over your head: beyond your understanding or ability.

The technical details were over my head. [=too complicated for me to understand]

That joke went right over my head. [=I did not get that joke] We realized after we started the business that we were (in) over our heads. [=we were trying to do something that was too difficult]

per head: for each person The price is \$20 per head. put/stick/raise your head above the parapet

PARAPET put your heads together: to think of a solution to a problem with another person I'm sure we can solve this problem if we just put our heads together.

rear/raise its ugly head: If something bad rears/raises its ugly head, it suddenly becomes obvious or causes trouble. Inflation threatened to rear its ugly head.

scratch your head informal: to be confused about something and unable to understand the reason for it. His odd behavior left us all scratching our heads.

scream/shout/yell/laugh (etc.) your head off informal: to scream/shout/yell/laugh (etc.) very loudly or for a long time:

She was screaming her head off. You can shout your head off at him, but he still won't listen. If they saw me dressed like this, they'd laugh their heads off.

shake your head SHAKE

two heads are better than one used to say that it is easier for two people who help each other to solve a problem than it is for one person to solve a problem alone
turn heads: to attract attention or notice The car's sleek design is bound to turn heads.

Phraseological units with component “eye” is divided to the following semantic groups:

I. Phraseological units denoting the following features: to look deeply or to follow very attentively with an eye:

1. have (got) an eye in one's head.

Not much escapes her. She's got an eye in her head.

2. have (or keep) an eye (or a sharp eye) out for smb.

In the throughed zoo, Leventhal kept an eye out for Allbee.

3. have eyes at (or in) the back of one's head.

“Just look at that!” she said. “I knew it. I knew it was going to happen the minute my back was turned, and I didn't have to have eyes in the back of head to see it, neither”. (E.Caldwell, “Jenny by Nature, ch.XV).

4. have (got) eyes like a hawk.

There's not much that John doesn't see; he's got eyes like a hawk. (ECI).

5. have eyes to see.

He showed with wonderful force that the more common details of every day life were filled with drama, that to him who had eyes to see, there might be significiance in a reeady-made suit of clothes... (L.Strachy, “Landmarks in French Literature”, ch.VI).

6. have (keep) one eye on smb.

It isn't to concentrate an one's work when you've got to keep one eye on a baby crawling all over the place, (ODCIE)

7. have (keep) one's eye on the ball.

He does it well, don't you think? Lawrence says he keeps his eye on the ball. (J.Galsworthy, “Flowering Wilderness”).

8. have one's eyes about one (or keep one's or both eyes open or wide open; colloq, clean, pelled or skinned).

He added: "Keep your eyes open, Lanny, and see if you can learn smth". (U.Sinclair, "World's End", ch.28).

9. have (keep) one's eyes glued on a big doll in the shop window.

10. a keen (or quick) eye.

He has a quick eye even for the minutest details if life.

11. look smb in the eye.

The sure sign of a liar-you can't look me in the eye? Can you? (G.W.Target, "The Teacher's").

12. meet smb's eye.

If this should meet the eye of A.B., he is requested... (OED).

13. not to take (tear) one's eyes from (off) smb.

I could not take my eyes from him, he was so grown, so altered. (D.du Manrier, "The King's Genered", ch.29).

14. under the eye of smb.

15. burst upon the eye.

The colour of this bird is not very bright. It doesn't burst upon the eye.

16. cut one's eye at smth.

Olin cut his eyes at Judge Lovejoy and scratched his head thoughtfully. (E.Caldwell, "A house in the Uplands", ch.XVII).

17. an eagle eye.

After Margaret had told me to be hard I watched Tom Spink with an eagle eye... (J.London, "The Muting of the Elsinore", ch.XIV).

18. fasten (fix or rivet) one's eyes on...

Old Joylon stood, still as death, his eyes fixed on the body. (J.Galsworthy, "The Man of Property", pert III, ch.VIII).

19. get an eye on smth. (or keep an or one's eye on smb).

She was frying bacon and at the same time kepping an eye on the younger children... (W.S.Maugham, " of Human Bondage", ch.118).

II. Phraseologic units expressing physical injure to the person:

1. blacken smb's eye (for him).

... the early Christians were a very mixed lot, and... some of them were more addicted to blackening their wives eyes for temping them, and wrecking the temples of the pagana, than to carrying out the precepts of the Sermon on the Mount. (B.Shaw, "The Intelligent Woman's Guide to Socialism and Copitalism).

2. a black eye.

But if ever your brother crosses my path, I'll take a horse whip to him. And you know I'll do what I say. Steve Miller has already broken his jaw and given him a black eye, violet remarked. (K.S.Prichard, "Winged Seeds, ch.XI).

III. Phraseological units expressing to look to something with surprise or amazement :

1. eyed on stalks.

What they call a small private party make your eyes stand out of stalks, as the saying is. (Suppl).

2. make big eyes.

3. make smb open his eyes.

4. not to take one's eyes from (off) smb.

Roy had not taken his eyes off the warden. (J.Aldridge, "The Hunter", ch.17).

5. have eyes for.

Have you eyes for a sandwich? (Suppl).

6. a jaundiced eye.

He went doggedly across the fields with his terrier, and looked at everything with a jaundiced eye. (D.H.Lawrence, "The Rainbow", ch.1).

eye noun, pl eyes 1 [count]: the part of the body that you see with

Her eyes slowly became accustomed to the dark. He wears a patch over one eye. I have something in my eye. He has (a pair of) bright blue eyes.

bright/sad/sleepy eyes She has good/strong/bad/weak eyes. [=eyesight]

Her eyes lit up [=she looked excited and happy] when he showed her the ring. His eyes were popping out of his head with astonishment [=he looked very astonished] when he saw how big it was! He punched him right between the eyes. [=punched him hard in the face] She looked me (right) in the eye [=she looked directly at me] and told me I was fired. The garden is a feast for the eyes. [=the garden is very beautiful] The display was very pleasing to the eye. [=pleasing to look at] I measured the distance by eye. = I measured the distance with my eye. [=by looking at it to get a rough idea of its size] Their daughter came home from school with tears in her eyes. [=she was crying] Seeing her again brought tears to my eyes. = Seeing her again brought a tear to my eye. [=made me shed tears] He had/kept half an eye on [=he occasionally looked at] the TV while he read the paper.

2 [singular] 2 a : an ability to understand and appreciate something

Seen

Only a trained eye can tell the difference between the original painting and a good copy. For decorating, they rely on her discerning/discriminating/expert eye. He has an artist's eye for color. If you have an eye for something or a good/keen/sharp eye for something, you have a special ability to recognize a particular thing or quality. He has a keen eye for detail. He has a good eye for quality.

2 b used to describe the way something looks to you It looks a little awkward to my eye. [=it looks awkward to me]

2 c : a way of looking at or judging something He reviewed the proposal with a jaundiced/critical eye. The biographer cast a cold/critical/skeptical eye on the artist's life.

3 [count] used to describe where someone is looking

Her eye was attracted to the bright colors in the painting. She dropped her eyes [=she looked down] when he looked at her. = Her eyes fell when he looked at her. He averted his eyes [=he looked away] when she approached him. I saw something moving out of the corner of my eye. [=to the side of where I was looking] Her eyes fell on [=she noticed] a piece of evidence no one had noticed before. All eyes were

on her [=everyone was looking at her] as she entered the room. She fixed her eyes on me [=she kept looking or staring at me] for a long time before answering.

4 [count]: a way of looking at or thinking about something We need to look at this problem with a fresh eye. [=to look at the problem in a new way] Beauty is in the eye of the beholder. [=different people have different ideas about what is beautiful] often plural He was guilty in the eyes of the police. [=the police considered him guilty] He was handsome in her eyes. [=she thought he was handsome] In the eyes [=opinion] of many, he is the best person for the job.

5 [count] : the hole through the top of a needle the eye of a needle

6 [count] : a loop that a hook fits into to fasten or attach something

7 [count] : an area on a potato from which a new plant can grow : a bud on a potato

8 [count] : the center of a storm (such as a hurricane) where there is little wind or rain and sometimes there is clear sky The eye of the storm should reach the coast by morning.

all eyes: watching something or someone closely: very attentive She was all eyes as I opened the box.

an eye for an eye or an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth: used to say that a person who has committed a crime should be given punishment that is the same as or as serious as the crime The ancient code of law called for punishment in the form of an eye for an eye.

as far as the eye could see: as far as could be seen. The crowd stretched away as far as the eye could

a sight for sore eyes see

1SIGHT a twinkle in your eye see

1TWINKLE bawl your eyes out see BAWL before your eyes or in front of your eyes If something happens (right) before your eyes or in front of your (very) eyes, it happens in a very open and visible way so that you can see it very clearly. Technology is changing right before our eyes. We were watching a disaster take place in front of our very eyes.

can't believe your eyes see BELIEVE cast/run your eye over: to read it or look at (something) quickly. Please run your eye over this and let me know what you think. She cast her eye over the apartment, appalled by the mess.

catch your eye see 1CATCH close/shut your eyes to: to refuse to notice or accept the truth or existence of (something): to ignore (something) Our legislators have closed their eyes to the poverty that surrounds them. cock an/your eye see

COCK cry your eyes out see

CRY easy on the eyes see

1EASY eyes in the back of your head When people are surprised that you have seen or noticed something that is behind you, they may say that you have eyes in the back of your head.

How did you know we were here? You must have eyes in the back of your head! feast your eyes on see

FEAST for your eyes only : intended to be seen only by you This memo is for your eyes only.

give (someone) the eye informal: to look at (someone) in a way that shows sexual attraction Several men were giving her the eye across the bar.

have/keep an/your eye out for: to be looking for (someone or something) : to hope to see or find (someone or something) I'm keeping my eye out for a good cheap used car. He'll be here soon, so keep your eye out for him.

have an eye to/toward: to have (something) in your thoughts as a goal or purpose She has an eye to attending graduate school. [=she hopes to attend graduate school]

(have) stars in your eyes see

1STAR have your eye on 1: to watch (someone or something) closely I'll have my eye on the kids while they're swimming.

2 : to be thinking about buying (something) I have my eye on a new car. She's had her eye on that house for a long time.

in a pig's eye: used to express strong disagreement You want me to apologize to him? In a pig's eye! [=Never!] in the blink of an eye see

BLINK in the public eye : in a position that receives a lot of public notice and attention The job requires someone who is comfortable being in the public eye. in the twinkle/twinkling of an eye in a very short time : very quickly He was back in the twinkle/twinkling of an eye.

in your mind's eye: If you see something in your mind's eye, you imagine or remember how it looks. I can still see the old playground in my mind's eye.

keep an/your eye on : to watch or take care of (someone or something) Will you keep an eye on my suitcase (for me) while I get something to eat?

keep your eye on the ball see

BALL **keep your eyes glued to** informa : to watch (something) very closely for a long time They kept their eyes glued to the television, waiting for more news about the accident.

keep your eyes open or keep your eyes peeled or Brit keep your eyes skinned informal: to look or watch closely in order to see or find (something) We kept our eyes peeled for a sign that would tell us where to turn.

lay/set eyes on or Brit clap eyes on : to see or look at (someone or something) I hope never to lay eyes on him again! We liked the house from the moment we set eyes on it. [=the moment when we first saw it] **make eyes at** informal : to look at (someone) in a way that shows sexual attraction: Some guy was making eyes at her from across the room.

more than meets the eye: If something is more than meets the eye or there is more to something than meets the eye, there is more to it than there appears to be at first. There is more to this proposal than meets the eye.

my eye informal used to express surprise or mild disagreement A diamond, my eye! That's glass!

not bat an eye see **4BAT** **only have eyes for** : to only be attracted to (a particular person) : to only feel love for (someone) He only has eyes for you.

open someone's eyes: to cause someone to notice or be aware of something important: The experience really opened his eyes and changed the way he felt about his life.

often + to

It's time they opened their eyes to the truth. His film helped open people's eyes to the problem. open your eyes: to begin to notice or be aware of something important You need to open your eyes and face the truth.

often + to

We have to open our eyes to these problems and stop ignoring them.

pull the wool over someone's eyes

WOOL

roving eye

ROVING run your eye down : to quickly read or look at (something, such as a list) She ran her eye down the list looking for her name.

see eye to eye: to have the same opinion: agree usually used in negative statements. They don't see eye to eye (with each other) on this issue.

take your eyes off: to stop looking at (someone or something) I took my eyes off the road for one second. She was so beautiful, he couldn't take his eyes off her.

the apple of someone's eye

APPLE turn a blind eye see

BLIND under the eye of: while being watched by (someone). Students work under the watchful/vigilant eye of their teacher.

up to your eyes : deeply involved in or affected by something. We're up to our eyes in work. [=we are very busy] They're up to their eyes in debt.

with an eye to/toward: with (something) in your thoughts as a goal or purpose They hired him with an eye toward increased sales. They bought the house with an eye toward its restoration. He took the job with an eye to the future. [=he took the job because he felt it would help him in the future] with your/both eyes open: fully aware of what could happen I went into the job with my eyes (wide) open. If you do this, you need to do it with both eyes open.

with your eyes shut/closed informal: with little or no effort: very easily. She could run that company with her eyes shut.

your eyes are bigger than your stomach. If your eyes are bigger than your stomach, you have taken more food than you can possibly eat. I can't finish my meal I guess my eyes were bigger than my stomach!

BLACK EYE, EVIL EYE, PRIVATE EYE, RIB EYE, SEEING EYE

And in the below contextual analysis of the somatic phraseologic units with the components of “nose”, “ear”, “mouth”.

nose noun, pl nos·es 1 [count]: the part of the face or head through which a person or animal smells and breathes. The ball hit me right on/in the nose. You need to wipe/blow your nose. Stop picking your nose. I have a runny/stuffy nose. the long nose of the anteater. He got some water up his nose. She wrinkled her nose in disgust.

2 [singular] : the ability to smell things : the sense of smell. That dog has a good nose.

often used figuratively: He is a good reporter with a nose for news. [=he's a reporter who is good at finding news] a baseball scout with a nose for talent [=a scout who is good at finding new talent]

3: the front end or part of something [count] usually singular the nose of an airplane [noncount] The whale measures 40 feet from nose to tail. (Brit) The cars were nose to tail [(US) bumper-to-bumper] on the highway today.

4 [singular] of wine : a particular smell The wine has a lovely nose. [=bouquet] as plain as the nose on your face informal: very clear or obvious. The solution is as plain as the nose on your face.

by a nose. If an animal wins a race by a nose, it wins by a very short distance. Secretariat won the race by a nose! cut off your nose to spite your face : to do something that is meant to harm someone else but that also harms you

You can refuse to talk to her if you like, but you're just cutting off your nose to spite your face.

follow your nose

FOLLOW get up someone's nose Brit informal: to annoy or irritate (someone). His jokes are really beginning to get up my nose.

[=(US) get on my nerves] have your nose in

If you have your nose in a book, magazine, newspaper, etc., you are reading it. It seems like she always has her nose in a book [=she's always reading a book] whenever I see her.

hold your nose: to hold your nostrils together so that you cannot smell something
The smell was so bad that we had to hold our noses.

keep your nose clean: to stay out of trouble by behaving well.

He is a former criminal who has kept his nose clean since he got out of prison.

keep your nose out of: to avoid becoming involved in (someone else's situation, problem, etc.) It's not your problem, so keep your nose out of it.

lead someone (around) by the nose informal: to completely control a person

I'm amazed that he lets them lead him around by the nose like that. look down your nose at

LOOK nose in the air. If you have your nose in the air, you behave in a way that shows you think you are better than other people. She walks around with her nose in the air like she's some big shot.

nose to the grindstone see GRINDSTONE

no skin off my nose

SKIN on the nose informal: very accurate: done very accurately. You hit it on the nose. [=you are exactly right] Her prediction was right on the nose.

pay through the nose informal: to pay a very high price. I found the perfect dress, but I paid through the nose for it.

powder your nose

POWDER rub someone's nose in

RUB stick/poke your nose in/into: to get involved in or want information about (something that does not concern you) He's always poking his nose into other people's business. thumb your nose at

THUMB turn up your nose or turn your nose up: to refuse to take or accept something because it is not good enough offered the cat some food, but it turned up its nose and walked away.

usually + at

They turned up their nose at our offer. [=they rejected our offer] under your nose used to describe something that you fail to see or notice even though you should I don't know why you couldn't find it. it's right here under your nose. They were embezzling funds right under his nose. The answer was right under our noses [=the answer was very obvious] the whole time.

mouth noun, pl mouths 1: the opening through which food passes into the body : the part of the face that includes the lips and the opening behind them [count]

He kissed her on the mouth. He threatened to punch me in the mouth. She stood there with her mouth agape/open. I burned the roof of my mouth. They told him to keep his mouth closed when chewing and not to talk with his mouth full. He wiped his mouth with a napkin after eating. She regretted saying it as soon as the words were out of her mouth. The smell of the food made my mouth water. The candy melts in your mouth. He says something stupid every time he opens his mouth. [=every time he speaks] The experience left a bad taste in my mouth. [=the experience left me feeling bad or disgusted] [noncount] The medication is taken by mouth.

2 [count]: an opening in something

usually + of: the mouth of a cave/bottle GOAL MOUTH

3 [count]: the place where a river enters the ocean the mouth of the river = the river's mouth

4 [singular] informal: an unpleasant or offensive way of talking. That guy has quite a mouth on him. He has a loud mouth. He cursed and his mother angrily told him to watch his mouth. [=to not use offensive language]

BIG MOUTH, LOUDMOUTH, SMART-MOUTH

all mouth (and no trousers/action) Brit informal used to describe someone who talks a lot about doing something but never actually does it born with a silver spoon in your mouth

BORN butter wouldn't melt in someone's mouth

BUTTER by word of mouth

WORD down in the mouth: unhappy or depressed was surprised to see her looking so down in the mouth. foam at the mouth

FOAM from the horse's mouth

HORSE froth at the mouth

FROTH hand to mouth

HAND heart in your mouth

HEART keep your mouth shut 1: to not say anything When he starts talking about politics, I just keep my mouth shut.

2: to not talk about something (such as a secret) She told me to keep my mouth shut about the news. [=she told me not to tell anyone about the news] I never tell him anything important because he doesn't know how to keep his mouth shut. [=he tells other people what he has been told] look a gift horse in the mouth

HORSE

melt in your mouth

MELT mouth to feed: a person (such as a child) who needs to be fed.

They can't afford another child. They already have too many (hungry) mouths to feed. put words in/into someone's mouth

WORD put your foot in your mouth

FOOT put your money where your mouth is

MONEY run your mouth

RUN

shoot your mouth off

SHOOT shut your mouth

SHUT take the words right out of someone's mouth

WORD 2mouth verb, mouths, mouthed, mouth·ing [+ obj]1: to say or repeat (something) without really meaning it or understanding it. She was just mouthing the usual meaningless shoot your mouth off

SHOOT shut your mouth

SHUT take the words right out of someone's mouth

WORD 2mouth verb, mouths, mouthed, mouth·ing [+ obj]

1: to say or repeat (something) without really meaning it or understanding it She was just mouthing the usual meaningless

-mouthed adj : having a mouth of a specified type usually used in combination with another adjective a large-mouthed jar big-mouthed loudmouthed

mouth·ful noun, pl -fuls 1 [count] : as much as a mouth will hold a mouthful of food/water It was a delicious meal. We enjoyed every mouthful.

2a: a word, name, or phrase that is very long or difficult to say His last name is a real mouthful.

2 b US: something said that has a lot of meaning or importance You said a mouthful! [=I agree with what you said; you said something that was entirely correct and that was worth saying] mouth organ noun, pl -gans [count] : harmonica mouth·piece noun, pl -piec·es [count]

1: a part of something that is placed between or near your lips the mouthpiece of a trumpet/telephone

2: someone who speaks for another person or for a group or organization He's been acting as a mouthpiece for the government on questions of foreign policy. The company has hired an attorney as a mouthpiece to answer its critics.

mouth-to-mouth resuscitation noun [noncount]: a method of helping a person who is not breathing to start breathing again by blowing air into the person's mouth and lungs called also mouth-to-mouth mouth ulcer noun, pl -cers [count]: canker sore mouth·wash noun, pl -wash·es [count, noncount]: a liquid that is used to clean your mouth and teeth and to make your breath smell better.

ear noun, pl ears 1 [count]: the part of the body that you hear with. He was whispering something in her ear. a dog with floppy ears pierced ears [=ears with earlobes that have been pierced for wearing earrings]

2 [singular] 2 a : an ability to understand and appreciate something heard. He has a good ear for music/languages.

2 b used to describe the way something sounds to you It sounds a little old-fashioned to my ear. [=it sounds old-fashioned to me]

3 [count] : attention that is shown or given by listening to what someone says
Thanks for your ear. [=thanks for listening] When I told my story, my brother
listened with only half an ear. [=did not listen closely] To lend an ear or, in literary
language, to lend someone your ears is to listen to what someone has to say. She's
always willing to lend a sympathetic ear. "Friends, Romans, countrymen, lend me
your ears." Shakespeare, Julius Caesar (1599) all ears informal used to say that
someone is listening very closely As I told the story, my daughter was all ears.

WORD a word in someone's ear

BEND bend someone's ear

BOX box someone's ears

BELIEVE can't believe your ears

COCK cock an/your ear

ears are burning. If your ears are burning or you feel your ears burning, you have
the feeling that other people are talking about you. (humorous) "We were talking
about you last night." "That explains why I felt my ears burning."

ears pop

POP fall on deaf ears : to fail to be heard : to be ignored Her pleas for mercy fell
on deaf ears. grin/smile from ear to ear : to smile widely : to have a big smile on
your face He was grinning from ear to ear.

have someone's ear. If you have someone's ear you can talk and give advice to
that person because you are trusted.

an adviser who has the President's ear in one ear and out the other: through
someone's mind without being remembered or noticed. Everything you say to him
goes in one ear and out the other. [=he doesn't listen to or remember what you say]
out on your ear informal: forced out: thrown out. If you're late to work again,
you'll be out on your ear! [=you'll be fired]

play by ear 1 To play a song or a piece of music by ear is to play it after hearing it
without looking at written music. He could play any tune by ear after hearing it
only once.

2 To play it by ear is to do something without special preparation. I don't know how they'll react to our proposal.

2.3 Contextual analysis of somatic phraseologisms in Uzbek

Phraseological units with the component “head” is divided into the following semantic.

The lexic somatism “head” as a part of body has the ability forming many phrases in Uzbek. There are nearly 90 somatic phraseological units with the component “head”. Somatic phraseologisms in Uzbek language contains the long history of the nation, its culture, customs and traditions.

1. the word “head” in phraseological units is a lexical substitution of the person:

хамманинг (кимсанинг) бошида бор.

2. Somatic phraseologisms expressing the spiritual state of the person:

А) хурсандчилик: боши осмонга етди, боши кўкка етди; маъноси ўзида йўқ хурсанд бўлмоқ.

Б) хафагарчилик: боши ғавғода; маъноси: хафа бўлмоқ; ўзини ёмон ҳис қилмоқ.

В) уят: бошини хам қилди; маъноси: уялмоқ.

3. The component “head” in the meaning “intellectual, conscious” is rarely be changed to the lexeme “mind”: for example, боши ишлайди; маъноси: ақлли.

4. The phraseologisms denoting the notion “punishment”: бошида данак чақди; бошида ёнғоқ чақди; бошидан тегирмон тоши юргизди; маъноси: бирор бир кулфатга дучор бўлмоқ.

5. The phraseologisms denoting the notion “illness”: боши ёстикқа тегди, маъноси: касал бўлиб қолди.

6. The phraseologisms denoting the notions “death, lost”: бошини еди, маъноси: йўқ қилди, ўлдирди.

7. The phraseologisms denoting the notions “trouble, unfortunate”: боши балога қолиб кетди.

8. The phraseologisms denoting the notions “braveness, fearless”: бошини тикди; маъноси: ўзини ҳаётини беришга тайёр бўлмоқ.
9. The phraseologisms denoting the notions “carefulness”: бошини силади, маъноси: ғамхўрлик қилди, ўз ҳомийлигига олди.
10. The phraseologisms denoting the notions “much, great deal of”: бошидан ошиб ётибди; бошидан ошиб-тошиб ётибди, маъноси: иши кўпайиб кетмоқ.
11. The phraseologisms denoting the notions “refuse”: бош тортди, маъноси: қайтарди, рад қилди.
12. The phraseologisms denoting the notions “respect, esteem, consideration”: бошига кўтармоқ, бошида кўтариб юрмоқ; маъноси: кучли ҳурмат қилмоқ.
13. The phraseologisms denoting the notion “ruling, manage”: бош-қош бўлди; маъноси: бошқарди, бирор ишни ўзи бош бўлиб бошқармоқ.
14. The phraseologisms denoting the notions “swear, hiding”: бош эгди; маъноси: яширинмоқ, кечирим сўрамоқ.
15. The phraseologisms denoting the notion “being busy”: бош қашгани қўл тегмайди; маъноси: ўта банд бўлмоқ.
16. The phraseologisms denoting the notions “to be under difficulty, in a difficult situation”: бошини қаёққа уришини билмаслик; маъноси: қандай қилиб шу (қийин) ҳолатдан чиқиш.
17. The phraseologisms denoting the notions “indifference, unimportance”: боши оққан томонга (кетди); маъноси: ҳоҳлаган томонга кетиш.
18. The phraseologisms denoting the notion “making much noise”: бошига кўтарди; маъноси: қаттиқ шовқин қилмоқ, бақирмоқ.
19. The phraseologisms denoting the notions “to be close, to be friend”: бир ёқадан бош чиқарди; маъноси: биргаликда, дўстликда бирор ишни бажармоқ.

There are about 70 phraseological units with the component “eye” in Uzbek. They are divided into the following semantic groups:

1. The phraseologisms denoting the ability of to see: кўзи тушди, кўзи тушиб қолди; маъноси: тўсатдан кўриб қолмоқ, пайқамоқ.

2. The phraseologisms denoting the notion “image, imagination”: кўз олдига келди, кўз олдига келтирди; маъноси: тасаввур қилмоқ, ўзига ўйлаб кўрмоқ.

3. The phraseologisms denoting the notion “being sleep”: кўзи кетди; маъноси: ухлаб қолмоқ.

4. The phraseologisms denoting the spiritual state of the person: кўзлари ёниб кетди; маъноси: жуда хурсанд бўлиб кетмоқ.

5. The phraseologisms denoting decisiveness, making fool: кўзини бўяди, кўзни бўяди, кўз бўяди; маъноси: алдаш.

6. The phraseologisms denoting the notion “something evil in somebody’s eyes, having eye” : кўз тегди, кўзи тегди; маъноси: ёмон кўз билан қаради.

7. The phraseologisms denoting the notion “death”: дунёдан кўз юмди; маъноси: ўлмоқ, вафот этмоқ.

8. The phraseologisms denoting the notions “life, aliveness”: кўзи очик, кўзи очиклигида; маъноси: тириклигида, ҳаёт пайтида.

9. The phraseologisms denoting the notion “to be wait eagerly”: кўз тикди, кўзи тўрт бўлмоқ; маъноси: кутиш, орзиқиб кутиш.

10. The phraseologisms with gestures “eye”: кўз қисди, кўзини қисди, кўзини қисиб қўйди; маъноси: кўз тузилишини ўзгартириб қараш.

CHAPTER III The problems of working at a system of exercises for teaching English vocabulary

3.1 A lexical approach of teaching vocabulary

A lexical approach to language teaching foregrounds vocabulary learning, both in the form of individual, high frequency words, and in the form of word combinations (or chunks). The impetus for a lexical approach to language teaching derives from the following principles¹¹:

- a syllabus should be organised around meanings
- the most frequent words encode the most frequent meanings and
- words typically co-occur with other words
- these co-occurrences (or chunks) are an aid to fluency

A syllabus organised around meanings rather than forms (such as grammar structures) is called a semantic syllabus. A number of theorists have suggested that a syllabus of meanings – especially those meanings that learners are likely to need to express – would be more useful than a syllabus of structures. For example, most learners will at some time need to express such categories of meaning (or notions) as possession or frequency or regret or manner. Simply teaching learners a variety of structures, such as the present simple or the second conditional, is no guarantee that their communicative needs will be met. The present simple, for example, supports a wide range of meanings (present habit, future itinerary, past narrative, etc), some of which may be less useful than others. Wouldn't it be better to start with the more useful meanings themselves, rather than the structure?

A semantic syllabus – i.e. one based around meanings – is likely to have a strong lexical focus. The following sentences, for example, all involve the present

¹¹ www.Cambridge lesson UK

simple, but they express different notions. These notional meanings are signalled by certain key words (underlined):

Does this towel belong to you? (possession)

How often do you go to London? (frequency)

I wish I'd done French, (regret)

Exercise is the best way of losing weight, (manner)

Words like belong, often, wish and way carry the lion's share of the meaning in these sentences: the grammar is largely padding. A lexical approach argues that meaning is encoded primarily in words. This view motivated two coursebook writers, Dave and Jane Willis, to propose that a lexical syllabus might be the best way of organising a course. The Willises believed that a syllabus based around the most frequent words in the language would cover the most frequent meanings in the language. Accordingly, they based their beginners' course around the 700 most frequent words in English. They used corpus data (i.e. computer banks of naturally occurring text – see page 68) to find out how these words 'behaved' – that is, the kinds of words and structures that were associated with these high frequency words.

3.2 The principles of teaching lexical chunks

So far we have been talking about lexical chunks as if they were a single all chunks undifferentiated category. But there are different types of chunks and different degrees of 'chunkiness'. Of the different types, the following are the most important for teaching purposes¹²:

- collocations – such as widely travelled; rich and famous; make do with; set the table

¹² www.Cambridge lesson UK

- phrasal verbs – such as get up; log on; run out of; go on about
- idioms, catchphrases and sayings – such as hell for leather; get cold feet; as old as the hills; mind your own business; takes one to know one
- sentence frames – such as would you mind if... ?; the thing is ...; I'd... if I were you; what really gets me is ...
- social formulae – such as see you later; have a nice day; yours sincerely
- discourse markers – such as frankly speaking; on the other hand; I take your point; once upon a time; to cut a long story short...

Within these categories further distinctions can be made in terms of fixedness and idiomaticity. Fixed chunks are those that don't allow any variation: you can say over the moon (to mean ecstatic) but not under the moon (to mean not ecstatic). Nor over the full moon, over the sun, etc. Many chunks are semi-fixed, in that they allow some degree of variation. Nice to see you is semi-fixed in that it allows lovely, good, wonderful, etc. in the nice slot, and meet, talk to, hear from, etc. in the see slot.

Some chunks are transparent in that the meaning of the whole is clear from their parts, as in the case of as old as the hills and to knock down. Others are much more idiomatic: to spill the beans and to knock off (meaning to steal). Neither fixedness nor idiomaticity are absolute values, however. Rather there is a cline from very fixed to very free, and from very idiomatic to very transparent. Phrasal verbs are a case in point. Some phrasal verbs are syntactically flexible: I'll bring up the paper or I'll bring the paper up. Others are not: I can't tell the twins apart but not I can't tell apart the twins. Moreover, the combination bring up has a range of meanings, some literal (I'll bring up the paper), some semi-idiomatic (Don't bring that subject up again) and some very idiomatic (They brought their children up to speak Italian).

The ability to deploy a wide range of lexical chunks both accurately and appropriately is probably what most distinguishes advanced learners from intermediate ones. How is this capacity developed? Probably not by learning rules – as we saw with word formation, the rules (if there are any) are difficult to learn and apply. A lexical approach is based on the belief that lexical competence comes simply from:

- frequent exposure, and
- consciousness-raising

To which we could perhaps add a third factor:

- memorising

Classroom language provides plentiful opportunities for exposure to lexical chunks. Many learners are familiar with expressions like I don't understand and I don't know long before they have been presented with the 'rules' of present simple negation. By increasing the stock of classroom phrases, teachers can exploit the capacity of chunks to provide the raw material for the later acquisition of grammar. Many teachers cover their classroom walls with useful phrases and insist on their use whenever an appropriate opportunity arises. A sampling of phrases I have noticed on classroom walls includes:

What does X mean? How do you say X?

What's the (past/plural/opposite, etc.) of X?

Can you say that again? Can you write it up?

How do you spell it? I'm not sure.

I've forgotten. I left it at home.

I haven't finished yet. It's (your/my/his) turn.

The repetitive nature of classroom activity ensures plentiful exposure to these chunks. This is vital, because occasional and random exposure is insufficient. Many learners simply aren't aware if a combination is one that occurs frequently (and is therefore a chunk) or if it is a one-off. Nevertheless, there is more chance of encountering instances of chunking in authentic text than in text that has been 'doctored' for teaching purposes.

This is yet another argument for using authentic texts in the classroom, despite the difficulties often associated with them.

Here, for example, is an extract from a fairly well-known authentic text:

Yo, I'll tell you what I want what I really really want,

So tell me what you want what you really really want

I'll tell you what I want what I really really want,

So tell me what you want what you really really want

I wanna I wanna I wanna I wanna I wanna really really really wanna

zigzag ha If you want my future, forget my past,

if you wanna get with me, better make it fast

Now don't go wasting my precious time

Get your act together we could be just fine ...

If you wannabe my lover, you gotta get with my friends

Make it last forever, Friendship never ends

If you wannabe my lover, you have got to give,

Taking is too easy but that's the way it is.

What d'ya think about that? Now you know how I feel.

Say you can handle my love, are you for real?

I won't be hasty, I'll give you a try

If you really bug me then I'll say goodbye

(from Wannabe by the Spice Girls)

Like many pop songs, the lyrics of this song are rich in lexical chunks, including sentence frames (I'll tell you what I...; what I really [really] want [is ...]; If you wanna ... better ...; If you really, then I'll ...), collocations (wasting my precious time; last forever; taking it... easy; give you a try), and catchphrases (better make it fast; get your act together; that's the way it is; are you for real?).

How could you use the above song text? Essentially, the approach need not be very different from the approach to the legal English text on page 110. That is:

- check understanding of text (for example, by eliciting a paraphrase or translation of the text)
- using transcript, set tasks focusing on features of words in combination

Examples of such tasks might be:

- Underline all contractions. Decontract them (i.e. wanna = want to)
- Find examples of these sentence patterns in the song:

... tell... what...

If you ... imperative ...

If you ... you have got to ...

If you ... then I'll...

- Write some more examples, using these patterns, that would fit the theme of the song.

- Use examples from the song to show the difference between tell and say.

Here are some more ideas for teaching collocation:

Learners sort words on cards into their collocational pairs (e.g. warm + welcome, slim + chance, golden + opportunity, lucky + break, mixed + reception, etc). Use the same cards to play pelmanism. Or they sort them into binomial pairs (pairs of words that follow a fixed sequence and often have idiomatic meaning such as hot and cold, to and fro, out and about, sick and tired). Or into groups, according to whether they collocate with particular 'headwords': e.g. trip (business, day, round, return, boat), holiday (summer, family, public, one month, working) and weekend (long, every, last, next, holiday). Follow up by asking learners to write sentences using these combinations.

Read out a list of words: learners in groups think of as many collocations or related expressions as they can. The group with the most collocations wins a point. Good words for this include parts of the body (face, head, back, foot, hand), colours (red, green, blue, black, etc.) and opposites, such as weak/strong, narrow/wide, safe/dangerous, old/young, etc.

Fill in a collocational grid, using dictionaries, to show common collocations. For example, here's a very simple (and completed) one for wide and broad.

3.3 The principles of teaching phrasal verbs

Phrasal verbs are another instance of the fuzziness at the boundary between words and grammar. They are particularly problematic for learners both because of

their lexical meanings (which are often idiomatic) and their grammatical form. Here is how phrasal verbs are often grouped, according to their grammar:

2 There are four types of phrasal verb.

Type 1: intransitive e.g. come to (recover consciousness) These don't take an object.

Type 2: transitive inseparable e.g. look into (investigate) These must take an object which always comes after the verb.

Type 3: transitive separable e.g. put off (postpone) The object can either come between the verb and the particle or after the verb. If we use a pronoun then it must go between.

Type 4: three-part, e.g. put up with (endure) These are always transitive inseparable.

from Naunton J, Think Ahead to First Certificate, Longman

Traditional approaches to the teaching of phrasal verbs have tended to focus on these rules¹³. Hence, when phrasal verbs are presented they are categorised according to whether they are Type 1, Type 2, etc. They are also often grouped according to their lexical verb (that is, the word that carries the major share of the meaning): get up, get back, get off, get over, etc, and exercises are designed to test the learner's knowledge of the difference. For example:

Use phrasal verbs with get to complete these sentences:

- 1 I can't _____ how much Julia has changed: it's amazing!
- 2 Excuse me, I want to _____ at the next stop.
- 3 The concert was cancelled so I'm going to see if I can _____ my money _____.

¹³ www.English Lec.net

Typical exercise types used in the teaching of phrasal verbs include:

- sentence gap-fills (as the example above)
- re-phrasing: e.g. changing the verb in the sentence (e.g. depart) to a phrasal verb that has a similar meaning (e.g. set off)
- matching: e.g. matching the phrasal verb with its synonym

More recently, exercise types have focused on the meanings of the particles – a particle being the adverb or preposition component of the phrasal verb (in, back, off, around, etc). A focus on particles aims to sensitise learners to the shared meanings of a group such as carry on, drive on, hang on, go on and come on.

Conclusion

In modern linguistics, there is considerable confusion about the terminology associated with these word-groups. Most Russian scholars use the term "phraseological unit" which was first introduced by Academician V.V. Vinogradov whose contribution to the theory of Russian phraseology cannot be overestimated. The term "idiom" widely used by western scholars has comparatively recently found its way into Russian phraseology but is applied mostly to only a certain type of phraseological unit as it will be clear from further explanations.

There are some other terms denoting more or less the same linguistic phenomenon: set-expressions, set-phrases, phrases, fixed word-groups, collocations.

The confusion in the terminology reflects insufficiency of positive or wholly reliable criteria by which phraseological units can be distinguished from "free" word-groups.

It should be pointed out at once that the "freedom" of free word-groups is relative and arbitrary. Nothing is entirely "free" in speech as its linear relationships are governed, restricted and regulated, on the one hand, by requirements of logic and common sense and, on the other, by the rules of grammar and combinability. One can speak of *a black-eyed girl* but not of *a black-eyed table* (unless in a piece of modernistic poetry where anything is possible). Also, to say *the child was glad* is quite correct, but a *glad child* is wrong because in Modern English *glad* is attributively used only with a very limited number of nouns and names of persons are not among them.

Free word-groups are so called not because of any absolute freedom in using them but simply because they are each time built up anew in the speech process whereas idioms are used as ready-made units with fixed and constant structures.

Phraseology is important for the study of semantic processes, associated with the development of the meanings of words, the birth of new signs processes to improve our competence in the study functioning of the language

system. All this testifies to the importance and need to explore this part of the lexicon. Being explored different types of EF, we study their structure, syntactic context. Widely considered thematic, synonyms and antonymic ranks in phraseology.

Studies somatic FE (sphere) are becoming more relevant. To far the sphere has been studied enough. In literature there are few works devoted to this subject. In recent years, a growing number of works performed in line with comparative study of EF in different languages. English Phraseology was subjected to a comparative analysis of the relatively recently, and works on the subject estimated units. Relevance of the studies is that at present time there is a theoretical and a practical necessity in relation specific linguistic units in specific language pairs. Establishment regular functional and semantic identity between the units of the two languages dictated by the translation and methodological needs. All become more popular in the field of comparative studies phraseology, because here there are more complex relationships transposing proposed research is conducted on the material of somatic phraseology, that is FE, which contain the names of the parts as components body (from the Greek. "soma = body). The paper attempts to compare FE English and languages containing component - somatizm in Uzbek.

The choice of this component is nonrandom and is due to the fact that the data somatizm characterized by high productivity and broad potencies, they are quite numerous, have a high incidence use and form the vast ranks of the English and phraseology languages.

While investigating the phraseological units with the component "head" we have analyzed the following problems. Phraseological units with the component "head" from the structural point of view divide into several types. Besides that we come across to the following structures. They are the phraseological units of different structure and they contain 55% of phraseological units as a whole.

Phraseological units with the component "head" is divided into the following semantic. The lexic somatizm "head" as a part of body has the ability forming many phrases in Uzbek. There are nearly 90 somatic phraseological units

with the component “head”. Somatic phraseologisms in Uzbek language contains the long history of the nation, its culture, customs and traditions.

Finally we can say that somatic phraseologisms in English and Uzbek have their own position in the linguistic field and they serve to strengthening the vocabulary of each language.

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