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**THE DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY**

**Гулямов Илхом**

**The Survey of Semantic Analysis of Words in English**

**5220100 – Philology and teaching languages (The English language) for  
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## **QUALIFICATION PAPER**

**THE QUALIFICATION PAPER**

**Scientific advisor:**

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\_\_\_\_\_ Z.Salisheva

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## Introduction

One of the actual and important problems of modern linguistic researches is to study the linguistic semantics. However there have been researched a large number of semantic study, many aspect of the linguistic semantics are not sufficiently researched up to our time. Especially , this concern the Semantic Fields.

This qualification paper devoted to the study of “Linguistic characters of semantic field of words related to “Motherland” and their methods of teaching”. It can be characterized by the following:

The topicality of this work caused by several important points. The concept of ‘semantic field’, like the concept of ‘semantic frame’, opened up new domains of semantic research and it is certainly worth underlining at the beginning that the development of field theory has its roots in the research carried out by American anthropologists and German linguists at the turn of the 20th century.

The theories of semantic field is very important and actual topic of Lexicology science. It gave me lots of opportunities to the whole science to develop semantic fields, to go deeper into details, to find out to the significance of the semantic issues. All those theories influenced not only lexicology, but also some other important science as logic, psycholinguists, psychology and etc. In diploma work I provided main facts about semantic fields ,the theories semantic fields and their history, semantic as a science, because it is closely connected with the theories I provided here; then, what sort of research works has been done by the scientists such Trier and his followers, and Polish logician Tarsaki. These theories are difficult in comprehension because they ask a special attention and good knowledge of lexicology science. I tried my best to interpret them in an understandable way. Besides this, in this paper I do not attempt to present a semantic theory of a natural

language, but rather to characterize the form of such a theory. A semantic theory of a natural language is part of linguistic description of that language.

Our problem, on the other hand, is the part of the general theory of language, fully on a part with the problem of characterizing the structure of grammars of natural languages. A characterization of the abstract form of semantic theory is given by a metatheory which answer such question as these: What is domain a semantic theory? What are the descriptive and explanatory goals of a semantic theory? What mechanisms are employed in pursuit of these goals? What are the empirical and methodological constrains upon a semantic theory? What are the lexical characters of the words in the field “Motherland”? The present paper approaches the problem of characterizing the form of semantic theories by describing the structure of a semantic theory of English. There can be little doubt but that the results achieved will apply directly to semantic theories of languages closely related to English. The question of their applicability to semantic theories of more distant languages will be left for subsequent investigations to explore. Nevertheless, the present investigation will provide results that can be applied to semantics theories of languages related to English and suggestions about how to proceed with the construction of such theories. We may put our problem this way: what form should a semantic theory of a natural language take to accommodate in the most revealing way facts about the semantic structure of that language supplied by descriptive research? This question is of primary importance at the present stage of the development of semantics because semantics suffers not from a dearth of facts about meanings and meaning relations in natural languages , but rather from the lack of an adequate theory to organize, systematize, and generalize these facts. Facts about the semantics natural languages have been contributed to abundance by many diverse fields, including philosophy, linguistics, philology, and psychology. Indeed, a compendium of such facts is readily available in any good dictionary. But at present the superabundance of facts obscures a clear view of their interrelations, while such theories as have been proposed to

account for the facts have, in general, been either too closely formulated or too weak in explanatory and descriptive power to succeed.

According to the actuality of the theme we are able to represent the general goals of our qualification work.

- a) To study, analyze and sum up lexical-semantic field;
- b) To discover the meaning of functional semantic field of the concept “Motherland”;

There are several significance of this Qualification paper, one of them is to develop the English language in our country. As our President mention about the role and the importance of the science: “The task of a science is establishment of our future, direction of future, natural law which will be in reality .The science must become the means strength driving development of society forward”.<sup>1</sup>

The practical significance of the work can be concluded in the following items:

- a) The work could serve as a good source of learning English by young teachers at universities and colleges.
- b) The lexicologists could find a lot of interesting information for themselves.
- c) Those who would like to communicate with the English-speaking people through the Internet will be able to use the up-to-date words with the help of our qualification work.

Having said about the linguists studied the material before we can mention that our qualification work was based upon the investigations made by a number of well known English and Russian lexicologists as M.D. Stepanova , J. Trier, S. Atkins, Charles J, A. Lehrer Fillmore and some others.

If we say about the methods of scientific approaches used in our work we can mention that the method of typological analysis was used.

The main aim of the qualification paper is to highlight the lexico-stylistic field of the concept “Motherland” and its methods of teaching.

The subject of investigation is linguistic theory of semantic field and a lexico-semantic field” motherland”

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<sup>1</sup> Karimov I.A. Tarixiy xotirasiz kelajak yo'q- Toshkent: “O'zbekiston”,1999y.149-15 b.

The object of investigation is analysis of the characteristics of the semantic field and the words related to “motherland” in the some of the well-known English and Russian linguists’ works, recent investigations and scientific works on this topic.

The practical value of the research lies in the fact that it is impossible to reach high level of competence without understanding the nature of the concept "Motherland" in English.

The general structure of my qualification work consists of:

The work is composed onto three major parts: introduction, main part and conclusion. Each part has its subdivision onto the specific thematically items. There are two points in the introductory part: the first item tells about the general content of the work while the other gives us the general explanation of the lexical-semantic field of the concept in the English language.

Chapter 1 deals with the survey of semantic analysis of words in Linguistics, while the chapter II is about the linguistic analysis of the words related to motherland and Lingo-cultural peculiarities of concept “Motherland”.

Chapter III introduces the implementation of semantic field of “motherland” in practical lessons.

The last chapter Conclusion reflects the ideas we present as a result to the chosen theme.

## Chapter I The Survey of semantic analysis of words in Linguistics

### 1.1. The Notion of Semantics as a Science

Semantics (from Greek semantic, neuter plural of *semantikos* ) is the study of meaning. It focuses on the relation between signifiers, such as words , phrases, signs and symbols, and what they stand for, their denotata. Semasiology is the branch of study which deals with the meaning of the words .As semasiology concerned not with every kind of linguistic meaning but with lexical meaning only, it may be seemed as a branch of lexicology.

This does not mean that the semasiologist need to pay attention to grammatical meaning. On the other hand, grammatical meaning must be taking into account in so far as it bears a specific influence upon lexical meaning . This influence manifold and will be discussed at length later. At this stage it will adequate to point out that a certain basic component of the word meaning is described when one identifies the word morphologically, i.e. states to what grammatical word class it belongs.

If treated diachronically, semasiology studies the change in meaning which words undergo. Descriptive synchronic approach demands a study not of individual words, but of semantic structures typical of the language studied and of its general semantic system.

The main objects of semasiological study treated are as follows: semantic development of words, its causes and classification, relevant distinctive features and types of lexical meaning, polysemy<sup>2</sup> and semantic structure of the words, semantic grouping, such as fields and hyponymy and connections in the vocabulary system, i.e. synonyms, antonyms, terminological systems etc.

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<sup>2</sup> Arnold. I.V. Modern English Lexicology. Moscow, 1973.-p.112-113

Linguistic semantics is the study of meaning that is used by humans to express themselves through language. Other forms of semantics include the semantics of programming languages, formal logics and semiotics.

The word 'semantics' itself denotes a range of ideas, from the popular to the highly technical. It is often used in ordinary language to denote a problem of understanding that comes down to word selection or connotation. This problem of understanding has been the subject of many formal inquiries, over a long period of time, most notably in the field of formal semantics. In linguistics, it is the study of interpretation of signs or symbols as used by agents or communities within particular circumstances and contexts. Within this view, sounds, facial expressions, body languages and proxemics have semantic content, and each has several branches of study. In written language, such things as paragraph structure and punctuation have semantic content; in other forms of language, there is other semantic content. The formal study of semantics intersects with many other fields of inquiry, including lexicology, syntax, pragmatics, etymology and others, although semantics is a well-defined field in its own right, often with synthetic properties. In philosophy of language, semantics and reference are closely connected. Further related fields include philology, communication, and semiotics. Semantics contrasts with syntax, the study of combinatorics of units of a language (without reference to their meaning), and pragmatics, the study of the relationships between the symbols of a language, their meaning, and the users of the language.<sup>3</sup>

## 1.2 Main Concepts and Features of Semantic Fields

The origin of the semantic field theory of semantics is the lexical field theory introduced by Trier in 1930s, although according to John Lyons it has historical roots in the ideas of Wilhelm von Humboldt and Johann Gottfried Herder. However, it was

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<sup>3</sup> David Crononfield. *Semantics as science*, New York, 1996. p.213

Hatch, E. & Brown, C. 1995/2001. *Vocabulary, Semantics and Language Education*. London: Cambridge University Press/Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

not only Humboldt's doctrine on relations between language and thinking that had a considerable impact on the rise and development of field theory. It should be stated explicitly here that the birth of this linguistic current was also stimulated by the advent of Saussueran structuralism, a lexical field being defined as an organized totality the elements of which define and delimit each other. Meyer (1910) defines semantic systems as the set and correlation of a finite number of expressions from a definite point of view. It must be mentioned in this connection that these first doctrines were followed by plenty of other, more or less advanced, viewpoints such as those of Pozig (1928, 1934), Stern (1931), Trier (1931), Jolles (1934), Öhman (1951), Matoré (1951), Ullmann (1957, 1972), Oscaar (1958), Buttler (1967), Perchonock & Werner (1969), Kleparski (1985, 1988, 1990, 1996, 1997), Lehrer (1974) and others. However, it is generally agreed that Trier's (1931) version of field theory opened a new era in the history of semantics. Working on the field of intellect in Old and Middle High German periods the author proposed the notion of a linguistic field, that is a section of general vocabulary where the degree of importance of a given individual lexical item is determined by its neighbours. What is more, the great German scholar claimed that fields are covered by areas of words resembling mosaics, have clear-cut boundaries without any gaps or overlaps and the change of one component or its deletion within the field automatically results in changing of the whole system.

In the 1960s Stephen Ullmann saw semantic fields as crystallizing and perpetuating the values of society. For John Lyons in the 1970s words related in any sense belonged to the same semantic field, and the semantic field was simply a lexical category, which he described as a lexical field. In the 1980s Eva Kittay developed a semantic field theory of metaphor. This approach is based on the idea that the items in a semantic field have specific relations of a field by mapping them on to the existing relations of another field. Sue Atkins and Charles J. Fillmore in the 1990s proposed frame semantics as an alternative to semantic field theory.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>4</sup> Potter S. *Modern Linguistics*, London, 1957, p.56-67

Both concepts brought about ‘revolutions’ in semantics and provided semanticists with new tools for the study of semantic change and semantic structure. Although there have been several historical accounts of the development of field semantics, there exists no detailed study linking and comparing the development of field and frame semantics. In this research paper we shall reconstruct the contexts in which the concepts of ‘field’ and ‘frame’ appeared for the first time and highlight the similarities as well as the differences between the semantic theories built on them. One of the main differences between the older and the modern traditions is that the latter no longer study how lexical fields carve up a relatively amorphous conceptual mass, as most older traditions had done, but how lexical fields are conceptually and pragmatically ‘framed’ by or grounded in our bodily, social and cultural experiences and practices. In doing so they establish forgotten links with certain communicational and functional conceptions of semantic fields developed in the past.

### The anthropological discourse

Semantic field theory has informed the discourse of anthropology as Ingold relates : “Semasiology is not, of course, the same as semantics. Semasiology is based on the idea that signs have meaning in relation to each other, such that a whole society is made up of relationally held meanings. But semantic fields do not stand in relations of opposition to each other, nor do they derive their distinctiveness in this way , nor indeed are they securely bounded at all. Rather, semantic fields are constantly flowing each other. It may define a field of religion, but it soon becomes that of ethnic identity and then of politics and selfhood, and so on. In the very act of specifying semantic fields, people engage in an act of closure whereby they become conscious of what they have excluded and what they must therefore include.”<sup>5</sup>

The theory of semantic field is severely criticized by Russian linguists mainly on philosophical grounds since some of the proponents of the semantic – field theory

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<sup>5</sup> Ingold. Tim .Key debates in Anthropology,2000 ,p.127-175

hold the idealistic view that language is a kind of self-contained entity standing between man and the world of reality (Zwischenwelt).

The followers of this theory argue that semantic fields reveal the fact that human experience is analyzed and elaborated in a unique way, differing from one language to another. Broadly speaking they assert that people speaking different languages actually have different concepts, as it is through linguistic experience, but primarily through our actual contact with the real world. We know what hot means not only because we know the word hot, but also because we burn our fingers when we touch something very hot. A detailed critical analysis of the theory of semantics fields is the subject matter of general linguistics. Here we are concerned with this theory only as a means of semantic classification of vocabulary items.

A semantic field is a technical term in the discipline of linguistics to describe a set of words grouped by meaning in a certain way. The term is also used in other academic disciplines, such as anthropology and computational semiotics.

Brinton defines 'semantic field' or 'semantic domain' and relates the linguistic concept to hyponymy: "Related to the concept hyponymy, but more loosely defined, is the notion of a semantic field or domain. A semantic field denotes a segment of reality symbolized by a set of related words. The words in a semantic field share a common semantic property."<sup>6</sup> A general and intuitive description is that words in a semantic field are not synonymous, but are all used to talk about the same general phenomenon. A meaning of a word is dependent partly on its relation to other words in the same conceptual area. The kinds of semantic fields vary from culture to culture and anthropologists use them to study belief systems and reasoning across cultural groups. Anderson identifies the traditional usage of "semantic field" theory as: "Traditionally, semantic fields have been used for comparing the lexical structure of different languages and different states of the same language".

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<sup>6</sup> Richard M. Hogg, *The Cambridge History of the English Language*, 2000, p.14

In studying the lexicon of English (or any language) we may group together lexemes which inter-relate, in the sense that we need them to define or describe each other. For example, we can see how such lexemes as cat, feline, moggy, puss, kitten, tom, queen and miaow occupy the same semantic field. We can also see that some lexemes will occupy many fields: noise will appear in semantic fields for acoustics, pain or discomfort and electronics (noise= “interference”). Although such fields are not clear-cut and coherent, they are to the kind of groupings children make for themselves in learning a language. An entertaining way to see how we organize the lexicon for ourselves is to play word-association games.

### 1.3 Interpretations of Trier’s Theory on Semantic Fields

As we mentioned that, Lexical field theory, or word-field theory, was introduced on March 12, 1931 by the German linguist Jost Trier<sup>7</sup>. His theory was based on the Saussure’s theory of language which is considered to be as a synchronous system of networks held together by differences, oppositions and other distinctive values. Trier; however, started working on intellectual terms in Old and Middle High German. Trier argued that words acquired their meaning through their relationships to other words within the same word field. An extension of the sense of one word narrows the meaning of neighbouring words, with the words in a field fitting neatly together like a mosaic. The semantic areas of the units limit one another and covered up the whole sphere. This so called sphere according to Trier is a linguistic, conceptual or lexical field and; as a result he gave the following definition: “Fields are linguistic realities existing between single words and the total vocabulary; they are parts of a whole and resemble words in that they combine into some higher unit, and the vocabulary in the they resolve themselves into smaller units.”<sup>8</sup> If a single word undergoes a semantic change, then the whole structure of the lexical field changes. Trier’s theory assumes that lexical fields are easily definable closed sets, with no overlapping meanings gaps.

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Barantsev S.T, English Lexicology in Practice, Kiev,1954.p.233-234

These assumptions have been questioned and the theory has been modified since its original formulation. After Trier's discoveries and his publication of book, lots of research works were done in this field by W. Porzig, G.Ipsen, A. Jolles and other authors.<sup>9</sup> Ipsen studies Indio-European names of metals and notice their connection with colour adjectives.

Porzig says attention to regular contextual ties: dog-bark, blind-see, see-eye. A. Jolles takes up correlative pairs like right-left. Besides this, Trier regards language as a super-individual cultural product shaping our concepts and our whole knowledge of the world. His ideas about the influence of language upon thought, and the existence of an "intermediate universe" of concepts interposed between man and the universe, is wholly untenable. Another investigation was done by A. Shaikevitch which was based on the hypothesis that semantically related. Some words were chosen from concordance dictionaries for Chaucer, Spencer, Shakespeare and other English poets. This material was studied statistically, and the result proved the hypothesis to be correct. Groups were obtained without making use of their meaning on a strictly formal basis, and their elements proved to be semantically related. For example: faint, feeble, weary, sick, tedious and whole "healthy" formed one group. Thin, thick, subtle also came together. This experiment shows that a purely formal criterion of co occurrence can serve as a basis of semantic equivalence. A syntactic approach to the problem of semantic field has been initiated by the Moscow structuralist group. From the point of view, the detailed syntactic properties of the word are its meaning. Y. Apresyan proposes an analysis, an indication of the frequency of each configuration pattern and an enumeration of meanings that occur in each pattern. A semantic field can therefore be described on the basis of the valency potential of its members. Since a correlation has been found between the frequency of a configuration pattern and the number of word meanings which may appear in it, Apresyan proposes that a hierarchy increasingly comprehensive word fields should be by considering configuration patterns of increasing frequency.

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<sup>9</sup> I. V. Arnold, *Modern English Lexicology*, 1973, p.208-209

## Porzig's syntagmatic semantic field

In contrast with Trier's theory, another German linguist Porzig developed a notion of semantic field which is called syntactic field by some scholars. Porzig's study was based on the analysis of the internal relation of the co-occurrence between words. It studied the probability for a lexical item to co-occur with others in the same context, e.g., bite and teeth, lick and tongue, bark and dog, etc. They are bound together by what Porzig called essential meaning-relations. The general nature of these relations is like this: What does one bite with? With the teeth, of course. What does one lick with? With the tongue, obviously. What is it that barks? A dog. This is illustrated by a few examples which are so banal that one may be inclined to overlook it and above all to underestimate its importance. However, because the appearance of one word in a syntagmatically -related lexical system always predicts the occurrence of the other and because there is a kind of expectancy and prediction between them, this syntagmatic relationship is essential to the acquisition of the depth of word knowledge. The core point of syntagmatic semantic field is that the components in a phrase are not only grammatically related, but also semantically related. For example, in the phrases "open the door" (to make open or become open), "open an envelope" (to unfold or spread out), "open a shop" (to begin business), "open a road" (to make it possible to use a passage by removing the things that are blocking it), and "open a conference" (to start), open has different meanings in different contexts, and these meanings are determined by its collocation. A word has one of its meanings only when it collocates with a certain word or words, and in this way specific collocations are constituted, which constrains the appearance and existence of a certain meaning of one word. The syntagmatic semantic field is always used to analyze collocation, polysemy and metaphorical meanings.

The different versions of the semantic field theory have one general feature in common:

Lexical items<sup>10</sup> are grouped in certain fields under various criteria. According to Zhao (2001:55), things in the objective world are in disorder, so in order to fully understand them, our human mind must deposit and memorize them through analyzing, judging and classifying. As far as vocabulary learning is concerned, learners remember words by sound clot or by semantic links. Adult college students have already had an existing schema about the world and language. When new second language (L2) words appear, what they should do is to find a suitable place for the words in this schema by certain links. It seems that a semantic interrelationship is an effective choice. Therefore, it seems feasible to enlarge vocabulary gradually and deepen the understanding of vocabulary items on the basis of the semantic field. The discussion of semantic relations leads to semantic fields grouped under certain unifying features. In this paper, both paradigmatic relations of synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy and syntagmatic relations of collocation, polysemy and metaphorical meaning will be studied. It is predicted that constructing semantic fields by paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations can be a teaching approach that is effective in helping learners develop an interrelated system of vocabulary.

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<sup>10</sup> Allen, V. F. 1983/ 2002. Techniques in Teaching Vocabulary. Oxford: Oxford University Press/p,56-59

## Chapter II Linguistic analysis of the Semantic Field “Motherland” in English

### 2.1. Main features of grouping in Linguistics

For different purposes of study different types of grouping may prove effective; synchronic or diachronic, semantic or formal, depending possible distribution or taking words as isolated units.

The simplest, most obvious non-semantic grouping, extensively used in all branches of applied linguistics is alphabetical organization of written words, as represented in most dictionaries. It of great practical value as the simplest and the most universal way of facilitating the search for the necessary word. The theoretical value of alphabetical grouping is almost null, because nor other property of the word can be predicted from the letter or letters the word begins with a p. Only in exceptional cases some additional information can be obtained on a different viz. the etymological level. For example, words beginning with w are mostly native and those beginning with ph borrowed from Greek. But such cases are few and far between. The practical value of this type is much more limited. These dictionaries are intended for poets.<sup>11</sup>

The following type of non-semantic grouping of written words based on their length, i.e. the number of letters they contain. This type, worked out with some additional details may prove useful for communication engineering, for automatic reading of messages and correction of mistakes. It may prove useful for linguistic theory as well although chiefly in its modified form.

Finally, a very important type of non-semantic grouping for isolated lexical unit is based on statistical analysis on their frequency. Frequency counts carried out for practical purposes of lexicography, language teaching and shorthand enable the lexicographer to attach to each word a number showing its importance and range of occurrence.

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<sup>11</sup> I.V. Arnold, The English Word.1973.p.200-202

## Morphological grouping

The words which are in morphological level can be divided into four groups according to their morphological structure. They are:

1. Root or morpheme words. Their stem consists of one free morpheme  
e.g. cat, hold

2. The words which contain no less than two morphemes, at least one of them is bound.

e.g. dogged, handy, handful, doggedly;

3. Compound words consist of not less than two free morphemes, the presence of bound morphemes is possible, but not necessary: dog-cheap “very cheap”, dog days “hottest part of the year”, handball, handbook;

4. Compound derivatives consist of not less than two free morphemes and one bound morpheme referring to the whole combination. The formula is ( stem+ stem) + suffix  
dog-legged-“crooked or bent like a dog’s hind leg; left-handed.

This classification is the typical one for Lexicology.

Another type of traditional lexicological is known as word families. The number of groups is certainly much greater, being equal to the number of root morphemes if all the words are grouped according to the root morpheme.<sup>12</sup>

For example; dog, doggy, dogless, doglike, doggy, to dog, dogged, doggedly, dog-wolf, dog-days, dog-biscuit, dog-cart. Hand, handy, handicraft, handbag, handball, handful, handmade, handsome, handy.

Similar groupings according to a common suffix or prefix are also possible, if not as often made use of. The greater the combining power of the affix, the more numerous the group. Groups with such suffixes as -ish, -less, -ness constitute infinite sets, i.e.

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<sup>12</sup> E.M. Mednikova . Вопросы языкознания,1971,р.5

are almost unlimited because new combinations are constantly created. When the suffix is no longer productive the group may have a diminishing number of elements as with the adjective forming suffix-some: gladsome, gruesome, handsome, lithesome, lonesome, tiresome, troublesome, wearisome, wholesome, winsome, etc.

The next step is classifying words not in isolation, but taking them within actual utterances. Here the first contrast to consider is the contrast between notional words and form or functional words . Actually the definition of the word as a minimum free form holds good for notional words only. It is only notional words that can stand alone and yet have meaning and form a complete utterance. They can name different objects of reality, the qualities of these objects and actions or the process in which they take part. In sentences their functions as a primary or secondary members. Even extended sentences can be consists of notional words only. They can also express the attitude of the speaker towards reality.

Form words, also called functional words, empty words or auxiliaries, are lexical units which are called words, although they do not conform to the definition of the word because they are used only combination with notional words or in reference to them. This group comprises auxiliary verbs, prepositions, conjunctions and relative adverbs. Primarily they express grammatical relationships between words. This does not however imply that they have no lexical meaning of their own. What other opposition, indeed, if not a lexical one, exist between the prepositions: across, from, into, round, out of, through to?

The borderline between notional and functional words is not always very clear and does not correspond to that between various parts of speech. Thus, most verbs are notional words, but the auxiliary verbs are classified as form words or not . The situation is very complicated if we consider pronouns. Personal, demonstrative, interrogative pronouns as their syntactical functions testify , are notional words reflexive pronouns seem to be form words building up such verb forms as I warmed

myself, but this is open to discussion. As to prop words ( one, those, etc), some authors think that they should not be considered as a separate, third group.

It is a typical of the English language that the boundary between notional and functional words sometimes lies within the semantic structure of one and the same word so that in some contexts they appear as notional words and in other contexts as form words.

The systematic use of form words is one of the main devices of English grammatical structure, surpassed in importance only by fixed word order. Form words are therefore in grammatical rather than in lexicology which concentrates its attention upon notional words.

The linguists who divide all the words into three classes ( notional words, form words and prop words) consider the latter as pointing words ( this , that, they, there, then, thus, here, how, who, what, where, nobody, never, not). Deictic words are orientational words , relative to the time and place of utterance. They ultimately stand for objects of reality, if only had second hand.

Very interesting treatment of form words given by Charles Fries<sup>13</sup> .The classes suggested by him, are based on distribution, in other words, they are syntactic positional classes. Fries establishes them with the view of having the minimum number of different groups needed for a general description of utterance. According to his classification that all words could fill the same “set of positions’ in the patterns adjectives modifying the Class I words.

of English single free utterances without a change of the structural meaning, must belong to the same class. His categorization may be represented as follows. The majority of words in the articulation he analyzed is consisted by four main classes. He gave them only numbers, instead of names. Class I: water, time, heating, thing, green, the sixth, summer, history etc;

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<sup>13</sup> Ch. Fries, The Structure of English, New York,1952.p.102-111

Class II: felt, arranged, sees, forget , guess, know, help, forward “send on”.

Class III: general, eighth, good, better, outstanding, white, young;

Class IV: there, here, now, usually, definitely, first, twice. If each word is counted only once in the recorded material and repeated instances of the same word ignored, the percentage of the total vocabulary in these four classes is over 93%. The other 7% are constituted by 154 form words. These, though few in number, occur very frequently, so that if each word is counted ever time it happens, then the form words make up about one third of the total vocabulary bilk within texts.<sup>14</sup>

The functional words are classified into 15 subclasses, and as Fries could not give for them any general identifying characteristics, they are referred to be recognized and learnt as a separate words, so that they form 15 subsets defined by listing all elements. As an example of form words the group of determiners may be taken. These are words which in Fries classification system serve to mark the so called Class I forms. They can be substituted for the in the frame (The) concert is good. That is to say, they are words belonging to the group of limiting noun modifiers, such as a, an, any, each, either , every, neither, no one, some, the, that, those, this, what, whatever, which, whichever. Possessive adjectives and possessive case forms. Determiners may occur before descriptive adjectives modifying the Class I words.

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<sup>14</sup> Fries' s statistical data are based on telephone conversation recorded by him.

## Lexico - grammatical groups

The division into such classes as parts of speech takes place on a still higher level as it observed both modern and historical relationships words and also their meaning. There is no necessity to dwell here upon the parts of speech because they are dealt with in grammar<sup>15</sup>.

The constituent of parts of speech, in other words they may called lexico-grammatical groups. Approaching with lexico-grammatical group, we realize a collation of words which exist having formulaic lexico-grammatical meaning, familiar apothecosis, the same substituting elements and possibly a characteristic set of suffixes rendering the lexico-grammatical meaning. These groups are classified parts of speech, several lexico-grammatical groups constitute one parts of speech. Somehow, English nouns are categorized about into the advance lexico- grammatical groups: personal names, animal names, collective names (for people), collective names (for animals), abstract nouns, material nouns, object nouns, proper names for people, toponymic proper nouns.

If for instance, we consider a group of nouns having the following characteristics: two number forms, the singular and the plural; two case forms; animate substituted in the singular by he or she; common, i.e. denoting a notion and not one particular object ( as proper names do); able to combine regularly with the indefinite article, some of them characterized by such suffixes as -er/-or, -ist,- ee, -eer, and the semi affixes-man ,we obtain the so-called personal names: agent, baker, artist, volunteer, visitor, workman.

Observing the semantic structure of the words, belonging to this group we find a great deal of semantic likeness within it, not only in the denotative meanings as such but also in the way various are combined. Personal nouns, for instance, posses a comparatively simple semantic structure.

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<sup>15</sup> B. Ilyish, The structure of Modern English, 1999.p.31ff

A structure consisting of two variants predominates. In many cases the secondary, i.e. derived meaning is due to generalization or specialization. Generalization is present in such, words as advocate, which may mean any person who supports or defends a plan or a suggestion anywhere, not only in court; apostle, which alongside its religious meaning may denote any leader of any doctrine or any reform.

Specialization is observed in cases like beginner, where the derived meaning corresponds to a notion of narrower scope: 'one who has not had much experience' as compared to one who 'begins'.

The group is also characterized by a high percentage of emotionally coloured, chiefly derogatory words among the metaphorical derived variants, such as baby "a person who behaves like a baby" or witch "an ugly and unkind woman".

It is also common knowledge that words belonging to another lexico-grammatical group, namely those denoting well known animals, very often metaphorical expressive names for people possessing qualities rightly or wrongly attributed to the respective animals: bitch, cow, fox, swine.

The subdivision of all the words belonging to some part of speech into groups of the kind described above is also achieved on this basis of oppositions. Should we want to subgroups of the English nouns, we may take as distinctive features the relations of the given word to the categories of number and case, their combining possibilities with regard to definite, indefinite and zero article their possible substitution by he, she, it or they, their unique or notional correlations.

Lexico-grammatical group should not be confused with the parts of speech. A few more examples will have to grasp the difference. Audience and honesty, for instance, belong to the same part of speech but to the different lexico-grammatical groups, because their lexico-grammatical meaning is different: audience is a group of people, and honesty is a quality; they have different paradigms: audience has two forms, singular and plural, honesty is used only in the singular; also honesty is hardly

ever used in the Possessive case, unless personified. Other words belonging to the same lexico- grammatical as audience are people, party, jury, but not flock or swarm, because the lexico-grammatical meaning of the last two words is different : they are substituted by it and denote groups of living beings but not persons, unless of course, they are used metaphorically.<sup>16</sup>

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<sup>16</sup> I.V. Arnold, *Modern English Lexicology*, 1973, p.204-205

## Semantic Fields as Thematic and Ideographic groups.

A further subdivision within the lexico -grammatical groups is achieved in the well- known thematic subgroups such as terms of kinship, names for the parts of human body, colour terms, military terms and so on.

The basis of grouping this time is not only linguistic, but also extra linguistic: the words are associated, because the things they name occur together and are closely connected in reality. It has been found that these words constitute quite definitely articulated spheres held together by differences, oppositions and distinctive values.

In briefly, by the term “semantic fields” we understand closely knit sectors of vocabulary each characterized by a common concept. For instance, the words blue, red, yellow , black, etc .may be described as making up the semantic field of colours, the words mother, father, brother, cousin, etc.-as members of semantic field of kinship terms, the words joy, happiness, gaiety , enjoyment, etc. as belonging to the field of pleasurable emotions and so on.

The members of semantic fields are not synonyms but all of them are joined together by some common semantic component- the concept of colours or the concept of motherland, etc. This semantic component common to all the members of the field is sometime described as the common denominator of meaning. All members of the field are semantically interdependent as each member helps to delimit and determine the meaning of its neighbours and it semantically delimited and determined by them. It followed that the word meaning is to a great extent determined by the place it occupies in its semantic field.

Thus the semantic field may be viewed as set of lexical items in which the meaning of each is determined by the co-presence of the others.

It is argued that we can not possibly know the exact meaning of the word if we do not know the structure of the semantic field to which the word belongs, the number of the members and the concepts covered by them, etc. The meaning of the word captain

is determined by the place it occupies among the terms of the relevant rank system. In other words we know that captain means only if we know whether his subordinate is called mate or first officer( merchant service), commander (navy) or lieutenant ( army) Semantic dependence of the word on the structure of the field may be also illustrated by comparing members of analogues conceptual fields in different languages. Comparing, for example, kinship terms in Russia and in English we observe that the meaning of the English term mother-in-law is different from either the Russian *tyosha* or *sverkov*, as English term covers the whole area which in Russia is divided between the two words. The same is true of the members of the semantic field of colours (cf. blue- *siniy*, *goluboy*), of human body (hand, arm-*ruka*) and others.<sup>17</sup>

Words making up such semantic fields may belong to different part of speech and linked by a common concept. The words bread, cheese, milk, meat, etc. make up a group with the concept of food as the common denominator of meaning. Such smaller lexical groups consisting of words of the same part of speech are usually termed lexico-semantic groups. It is observed that the criterion for joining words together into semantic fields and lexico-semantic groups is the identity of one of the components of their meaning found in all the lexical items making up these lexical groups. Any of the semantic components may be chosen to represent the group. For example, the word saleswoman may be analyzed into the semantic components “human”, “female”, “professional”.

Consequently, the word saleswoman may be included into a lexico-semantic group under the heading female with the words girl, wife, woman and also together with the words teacher, pilot, butcher, etc. as professionals.

It should be also pointed out that different meanings of polysemantic words make it possible to refer the same word to different lexico-semantic groups. Thus, e.g. “make in the meaning” construct” is naturally member of the same lexico-semantic

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<sup>17</sup> Roget's Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases, London, 1973  
R.S. Ginzburg: "modern English Lexicology" 1987, p.48.216

group as the verbs produce, manufacture, etc, whereas in the meaning of compel it is regarded as a member of a different lexico-semantic group made up by the verbs force, induce, etc.

Lexico-semantic groups seem to play a very important role in determining individual meanings of polysemantic words in lexical contexts. Analyzing lexical contexts we saw that the verb take ,e. g. in combination with any member of the lexical group denoting means of transportation is synonymous with the verb go( take the tram, the bus, etc.). Such word-groups are often used not only in scientific lexicological analysis, but also in practical class-room teaching. In a number of textbooks we find words with some common denominator of meaning listed under the headings flowers, Fruit, Domestic Animals, and so on.

The words in semantic field share a common semantic property. Most often fields are defined by subject matter, such as body parts, landforms, diseases, colours, food or kinship relations. Let's consider some examples of semantic fields. The field of "stages of life" is arranged sequentially, though there is considerable overlap between terms. ( e.g Child, toddler) as well as some apparent gaps ( e.g. There are no simple terms for the different stages of adulthood). Note that a term such minor or juvenile belongs to a technical register, a term such as kid or tot to a colloquial register and a term such as sexagenarian or octogenarian to a more formal register. The semantic field of 'water 'could be divided into a number of subfields; in addition, they would appear to be a great deal of overlap between terms such as sound/fjord or cove/harbor.<sup>18</sup>

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<sup>18</sup> P.B Faber, R.M. Uson, Constructing, A Lexicon of English Verbs, 1999 ,p.67.

## 2.2 Structural and semantic analysis of the words related to “Motherland”

As we mentioned above the words in the semantic field share a common semantic property. Words making up semantic fields are not synonyms, they may belong to different parts of speech, but all of them are joined together by some common semantic component. E.g., in the semantic field of space there are nouns – surface, expanse; verbs – extend, spread; adj. – spacious, vast, etc.

The semantic field of “Motherland” also includes the words which are from the different parts of speech, such as home- noun, live-verb, homesick- adjective etc.

The word “Motherland” means as given in the Cambridge Advanced dictionary, the country where you were born or which you feel is your original home.

The nouns in the semantic field ‘motherland’ can be analyzed as follows:

As we consider, nouns according to their lexical structure can be compound, stem and derivative. First of all we can classify the Compound words. They are mostly derived by this formula:

### (1) Noun Stem+ Noun Stem

These compounds consist of simple stems:

Motherland stem (mother) + stem (land)

Fatherland

Homeland

Mother tongue

Country man (countrywoman)

Nation state

Successor state

Birthplace

Some compounds where at least one of the constituents is a derived stem, they called derivational compounds, for instance:

**(2) Adjective stem + derived noun stem**

Native speaker

**(3) Noun Stem+ Derived noun stem**

Asylum seeker

The other compound nouns have different structure:

**(4) Adjective Stem+ Noun Stem**

The Old Country

Some nouns in the semantic field “motherland” are derived words. They have both stem and stem building elements.

**(5) Noun Stem + derivational suffixes: -hood, -tion , -y**

Neighborhood                  Army

Statehood

Convention

Tradition

**(6) Noun Stem + suffix- er**

Eastener

Dweller

Some nouns are neither compound nor derivative. They consist of only stem, for instance:

Nation	Soil	Family
Home	Compatriot	Ancestor
Citizen	Diaspora	Descendent

Folk                      Subject                      Heritage

Abode                      Expatriate

Anthem                      Flag

### Adjectives in the field of “Motherland”

They usually made by adding suffixes to nouns, so most of adjectives are derived

#### (1) Noun stem+ derivational suffixes: -al,-less

National

Traditional

Aboriginal

Dual

Transnational

Stateless

Homeless

Compound adjectives. They should be compound to free phrases. Thus for example, this type

#### (2) Noun stem +Adjective Stem

Nation-wide

Homesick

Home-grown

### Verbs in the field of ‘Motherland’

Verbs mostly produced by the conversion, so they do not have stem building elements, but only stem.<sup>19</sup>

Live

Settle

Move

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<sup>19</sup>I.V. Arnold The English Word ,1978.p.70-74

Emigrate

Derived verbs

Naturalize

Relocate

### Semantic analysis of some words in the field of “**Motherland**”

While analyzing and searching the words related to motherland I came across some words which were difficult to understand, what are their meaning? When we can use them? So, taking into consideration such kind of questions I tried to do semantic analysis of those words.<sup>20</sup>

A Motherland is the concept of the place (cultural geography) with which an ethnic group holds a long history and deep cultural association- the country in which particular national identity began. As a common noun, it simply connotes the country of ones origin. When used as a proper noun, the word as well as its equivalents in other languages, often have ethnic nationalist connotations. Motherland is a place of one’s birth the place of origin of an ethnic group or emigrant, or a **Metropole** in contrast to its colonies.

The term Motherland is used throughout German-speaking Europe, as well as in Dutch. Fatherland in English has become associated with domestic British and American anti nazi propaganda during world war II. This is not the case in Germany itself, where the word remains used in the usual patriotic contexts .

It is not surprising that, fatherland would be the term for one’s native country in any language that has any historical association with the Romance.

In the OED the expression Mother country has an earlier documentation date than fatherland, but fatherland precedes motherland:

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<sup>20</sup> Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, 2008, London  
[www.teachers.com](http://www.teachers.com)

1578 Mother country: a country in relation to its colonies.

1595 Motherland: one's native land

1623 fatherland: country of one's birth

1711 motherland: a country as producer of anything; one's native country

In the 1930s the expression “the Fatherland” was widely used to refer to Germany.

<sup>21</sup>For many English speakers the association remains. When the United States adopted the term “**Homeland Security**” after the attack on the World Trade Center, the expression bothered me no end. “Homeland made me think “*fatherland*” and that made me think of Nazis. “Homeland Security” no longer raises hackles, but the word fatherland still holds negative connotations for me. Here you can see number of examples the usage of the word “motherland”:

“There are now mature men and women, working on various fronts for the development of our beloved **motherland**”

“**Motherland** of all Negroes, from where all Negroes in slavery were taken against their will”

“**Motherland** is as precious as our mother, there is no any place which is such adorable”

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<sup>21</sup> M. Hogg, The development of the Language, London, 1998, p.345-350

The meaning and the usage of the some words in the field “Motherland”

**Compatriot-** a person who came from the same country ( from your motherland). This word is a formal word,used in serious writing and communicating with people in serious and polite way.

e.g. During my business trip in Europe I lost everything: money, cards, at that time Mr Watson who was the compatriot helped me so much.

**The Diaspora-** spreading of people from one original country to another countries. This is also a formal word, used only in singular form.

e.g. The Jews living different parts of the world outside Israel or the various places outside Israel in which they live

**Asylum seeker-** someone who leaves their own country for their safety, often for political reasons. This is the word which used in formal writing it has both singular and plural forms.

e.g. A record number of asylum seekers arrived in the UK last month

**Abode-** a place where someone lives. This is usually used in singular, formal word

e. g. The defendant is of no fixed abode

**Expatriate-** someone who does not live their own country. This is an informal word, usually used in singular form

e.g. A large community of expatriates has settled there

**Soil-** it is a literary word, used the same meaning with the word country. Nowadays it is rarely used in the colloquial speech

e. g. It was the first time we had set foot on foreign American soil<sup>22</sup>

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<sup>22</sup> Collins Advanced Learners Dictionary,2006

### 2.3 Lingo- Cultural peculiarities of the semantic field ‘Motherland’

The word “Motherland” has broad meanings and from culture to culture we can see different usage of this. In English this word is old use, nowadays it is not often used in United States and other English speaking countries. By the word “ Motherland” they understood only literary meaning, because they do not often tell “ My motherland” refer to their country, instead of this they say “ **My America**” or “**My England**”.

A country closely associated with the word motherland is Russia. In fairy tales, and in Russia literature before 1917, one often encounters the expression “Mother Russia”. After the Revolution, the Soviets preferred the expression **Rossiia-Matushka**, which it translated as “Mother Motherland”.

There are different words Russian words to describe the personal relation to the country. The word “**Rodina**” is better translated as a Motherland because of its connotations to the word “rodit ”,i.e. ”give birth to”. On the other hand, the word, the word “Otchizna” which means the same as “Rodina” but it is better translated as Fatherland since “**Otche**” means “father”. So, the choice is yours and depends mostly on the context. And, of course, neither 1917 revolution nor Soviets has nothing to do with that, and there is no such strange thing as “**Mother Motherland**” because “**Matushka**” is just dated “mummy”, “dear mom”.<sup>23</sup>

As to a “rule” for the use of fatherland with motherland, I think the depend upon the connotation sought by the author in a particular context. Fatherland suggests government and order. Motherland connotes birth and nurturing.

The problem having with Motherland and Fatherland is no mystery to people who speak languages with feminine and masculine nouns. Brazil, for example, is a

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<sup>23</sup> Rossner, Richard- Bolitho, Rod: Currents of Change in English Language Teaching, Oxford University Press,1990 .p.119-123

matriarchy and would never be considered fatherland by its natives. The same goes for Russia, Italy, Mexico, etc. Germany is evidently a patriarchy, so fatherland is more adequate. It is all a question of the society in question on how they see their own country.

Culture learning is the process of acquiring the culture-specific and culture-general knowledge, skills, and attitudes required for effective communication and interaction with individuals from other cultures. It is a dynamic, developmental, and ongoing process which engages the learner cognitively, behaviorally, and affectively.

Culture learning goals and outcomes. In this newer perspective, the learning goals shift from the memorization of cultural facts (including sociolinguistic conventions for language use) to higher order learning outcomes including: the acquisition of “interactional competence” (a term suggested by Allen and Moore at the 1996 culture conference in Minneapolis) and learning how to learn about culture.

Putting culture at the core of language education means preparing students to be culture learners. Thus, it is never enough to find and accept someone else’s static definitions of the culture. Words and their meaning are linked to a cultural context, and language and cultural patterns change over time and vary according to the situation.. To become effective culture learners, students must develop a variety of learning strategies ranging from reflective observation to active experimentation or what Kolb refers to as ‘experiential learning’ style.<sup>24</sup>

All of the culture-specific concepts which occur in the source language but are totally unknown in the target language are the most notorious for the creation of problems with finding equivalents. There may be also a situation where the source culture and source language make different distinctions in meaning from the target culture and target language.

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<sup>24</sup> Quirk R, The use of English, London,1963,p.56-78

In Uzbek language, the word “Motherland” is used with the different contexts. It is more broadly used rather than in English speaking countries. The word usually matches with the following words: **“Ona yurt”**, **“Kindik qon to’kilgan makon”** ( as above mentioned “ the birth place”). For instance, if a person is another country he may say: “I have to return my home” the word “home” used refer to the word “motherland”, also “Ona O’zbekiston”, is completely match with the meaning of the motherland.

We can see also, a number of culture specific idioms related to the field of “Motherland”. In English, **“East or West Home is Best”** refer to the meaning of there is no any other place you feel comfortably and safely except your mother country or home. In Uzbek, **“O’z uying O’lan to’shaging”**, the word “uying” again used as the meaning of “Motherland”.

## Chapter III Implementation of semantic field “motherland” in practical lessons

### 3.1 The problem of teaching vocabulary

The learning of vocabulary is the core of second language acquisition (SLA). British linguist Wilkins once said: “Without grammar, little can be conveyed; without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed” (1972). Unlike learning grammar and phonetics, vocabulary learning is an incremental and unending task for any language learner. After analyzing the traditional vocabulary teaching approaches in his survey, he summarized that “vocabulary instruction remains the major headache for English teachers and researchers in ESL countries”.

This section tries to explore vocabulary instruction on the basis of an important theory in semantics, the semantic field theory. The theory suggests that the lexical content of a language is best treated not as an aggregation of independent words or an unstructured list of words but as a collection of interrelating networks of relations between words. It is argued that the meaning of a word can only be adequately described through its semantic relations and contrasts to other words. The specific research questions explored in the present study are listed below:

- 1) How can words be taught with related meanings and in collocations?
- 2) How effective could vocabulary instruction be by applying the semantic field theory? How can it contribute to vocabulary acquisition and retention?

The different versions of the semantic field theory have one general feature in common: lexical items are grouped in certain fields under various criteria. According to Chinese linguists, things in the objective world are in disorder, so in order to fully understand them, our human mind must deposit and memorize them through analyzing, judging and classifying. As far as vocabulary learning is concerned, learners remember words by sound or by semantic links. Adult college students have already had an existing schema about the world and language. When new second language (L2) words appear, what they should do is to find a suitable place for the words in this schema by certain links. It seems that a semantic

interrelationship is an effective choice. Therefore, it seems feasible to enlarge vocabulary gradually and deepen the understanding of vocabulary items on the basis of the semantic field. The discussion of semantic relations leads to semantic fields grouped under certain unifying features. In this paper, both paradigmatic relations of synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy and syntagmatic relations of collocation, polysemy and metaphorical meaning will be studied. It is predicted that constructing semantic fields by paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations can be a teaching approach that is effective in helping learners develop an interrelated system of vocabulary.

When it comes to English vocabulary, learners usually go through the following five essential steps proposed by Brown & Payne (1994): encountering the new words; getting a clear image, either visual or auditory or both, for the forms of the new words; learning the meaning of the words; making a strong memory connection between the forms and meanings of the words; and using the words. It appears that each step represents something learners must do, at least at some basic level in order to achieve full productive knowledge of words. It presents a synthetically pedagogical procedure of teaching new words as: pre-reading brainstorming of the words in the same field; getting the pronunciation, spelling and meaning of the new words; constructing semantic fields based on various semantic relations; consolidation during passage analysis; and revision of the word knowledge.<sup>25</sup>

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<sup>25</sup> Guo Changhong, Chinese journal of applied linguistics, 2010, June

According to Guo and his surveys about teaching vocabulary, one of the effective way of teaching new words or the same field goes as follows. In the first step of vocabulary instruction, learners are asked to do the brainstorming concerning romance. The result of this pre-reading activity is as follows:

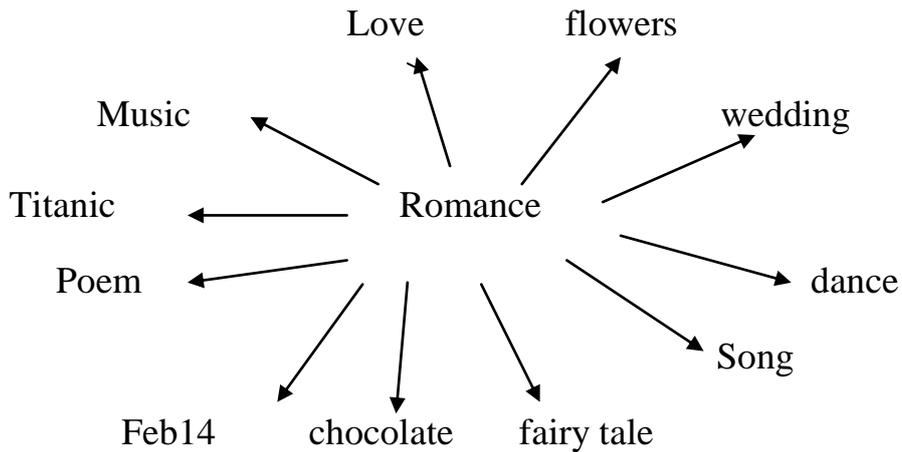
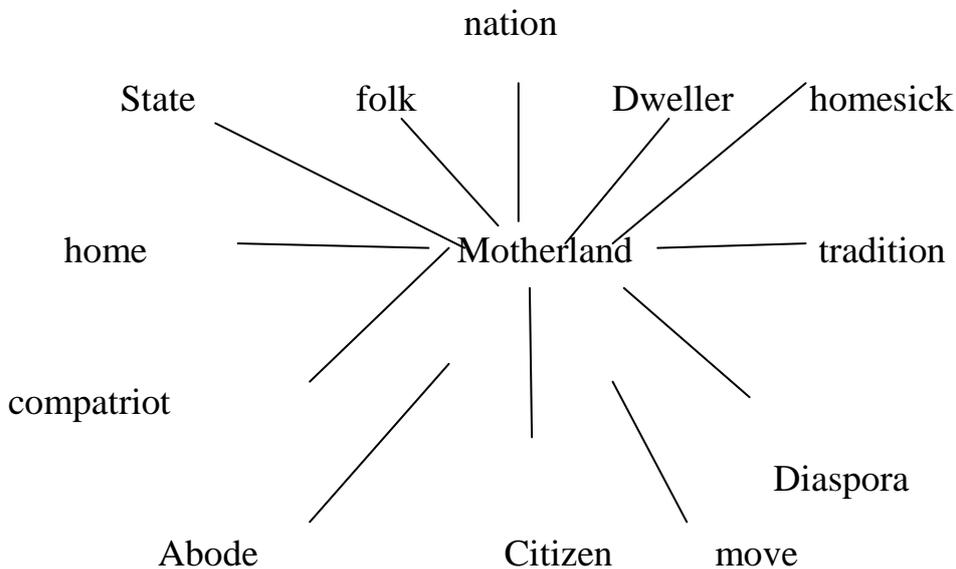


Figure 1 . (Brainstorming of romance)

I also used this activity in the semantic field of “motherland” and it will be found such words by the learners:



Linguists emphasize that, by this method learners not only enlarge their vocabulary but also, it helps for the reading skill .

Learners take an active part in this task and get a better understanding of the topic, thus becoming more interested in reading the passage. This helps to improve the reading efficiency. Meanwhile, the encounter with words in context helps increase learners' knowledge about those words and their meanings. Learners may need various encounters with the same word in multiple contexts rather than in just one context, so this is just the beginning of vocabulary instruction of this unit. Learners first encounter words in this simple way before they learn them in the passage. In addition to these, learners read the passage and guess the meaning of new words from the context in which they are used. Then they underline or copy the words that are new or difficult for them and mark out the pronunciation, spelling and meaning of the new words. Learners are asked to get familiar with the pronunciation and spelling of the new words because many errors seem to come from confusing words similar in pronunciation and form. For the meaning of the new words, in this step, learners largely learn these words respectively.

The essential step of the application of the semantic field theory in vocabulary instruction is the construction of semantic fields. In order for learning to occur, new information must be integrated with and be built upon what learners already know. In other words, instruction should guide learners to use words and ideas they already know to help them associate meaning with words they do not know. Therefore, words in the same semantic field can be taught together. By this way, the teacher should find appropriate words to set up semantic fields of the new items, and at the same time make the presentation procedure an interesting learning process for the learners.

Semantic field construction uses features to identify the relationship of lexical items within a field, with the goal of discovering how terms within the field or domain are similar to each other. In semantic feature analysis, by contrast, the primary goal is to find

those features that are distinctive, that have consequences for the grammar of the language, and that help to clarify the various meanings of a single word. Teachers may first check the glossary and pick out words belonging to the same semantic field, because the words or phrases of the same semantic field usually share part of the meaning or the same structure which will be easier to learn as a group than as separate items. Teaching vocabulary in this way saves time and energy and achieves better results at the same time. When the phrase *make one's way* is being taught, other phrases of the same semantic field can also be discussed, such as *force one's way*, *feel one's way*, *shoulder one's way*, *elbow one's way*, *worm one's way*, which share the same component *one's way* and same semantic feature *go*. This is a type of hyponymy, in which *make one's way* is a co-hyponym of the other phrases mentioned above. While teaching them, teachers can point out the pattern of these phrases, that is, *verb + one's way*. Thus, applying the semantic field theory to teaching can not only stimulate learners' interest and creativity but also help them bridge the newly acquired knowledge with previously acquired knowledge.

Semantic feature analysis is used to analyze the pair of synonyms *policeman* and *cop*

<sup>26</sup>

*Policeman* = [man] - [slang] + [member of a police force]

*Cop* = [man] + [slang] + [member of a police force]

The semantic feature [+SLANG] distinguishes this pair of synonyms. Also when teachers are discussing the word *slim*, they may compare it with its synonyms such as *thin*, *slender*, *slight*, *skinny* and *bony*. As for polysemy, teachers can start with the word's core meaning or a best example. Take *pursue* as an example. The core meaning of *pursue* is to follow somebody, usually in order to catch them, and the prototypic *pursue* can be found in phrases like *pursue a fox*, or *pursue a thief*. Based on the core meaning or prototypic examples, teachers can continue with extended

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<sup>26</sup> Guo Changhong, Chinese journal of applied linguistics, 2010, June

meanings and more examples of pursue, such as pursue one's own interest, pursue economic reform and democracy, pursue a topic, etc. In this way, word meanings will be demonstrated and learners may find it comfortable to learn and understand these items one after another. Another polysemous word, delicate in this unit can be explained by finding out different synonyms or antonyms of its different meaning. teaching vocabulary by constructing the semantic fields of an under-discussed item is efficient as well as necessary. However, vocabulary is not an easy subject to deal with. The present study could not possibly embrace all the factors concerned. One limitation of the study was that writing compositions was not the best way to measure the efficiency of vocabulary instruction. At the same time, other aspects of vocabulary instruction remain to be investigated.<sup>27</sup>

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<sup>27</sup> Hatch, E. & Brown, C. 1995/2001. *Vocabulary, Semantics and Language Education*. London: Cambridge University Press/Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

### 3.2 Methods and approaches in semantic fields teaching and their influence on students' acquisition

However many theories about vocabulary learning process were written, it still remains the matter of memory. Thus, there are several general principles for successful teaching, which are valid for any method. According to Wallace, the principles are:

- aim – what is to be taught, which words, how many
- need – target vocabulary should respond students' real needs and interests :
- frequent exposure and repetition
- meaningful presentation – clear and unambiguous denotation

Reference should be assured Learning vocabulary is a complex process. The students' aim to be reached in learning vocabulary process is primarily their ability to recall the word at will and to recognize it in its spoken and written form.

Generally, knowing a word involves knowing its form and its meaning at the basic level. In deeper aspects it means the abilities to know its (Harmer 1993):

- 1) Meaning, i.e. relate the word to an appropriate object or context
- 2) Usage, i.e. knowledge of its collocations, metaphors and idioms, as well as style and register (the appropriate level of formality), to be aware of any connotations and associations the word might have
- 3) Word formation, i.e. ability to spell and pronounce the word correctly, to know any derivations (acceptable prefixes and suffixes),
- 4) Grammar, i.e. to use it in the appropriate grammatical form

How words are remembered ? When we hear this question, every Linguists answer this accounting of memory of the learner. Unlike the learning of grammar, which

is essentially a rule based system, vocabulary knowledge is largely a question of accumulating individual items. The general rule seems to be a question of memory. And during the process of teaching and learning vocabulary an important problem occurs: How does memory work? Researchers into the workings of memory distinguish between the following systems ( Thornbury , 2002)

- short– term store
- working memory
- long– term memory

#### Short - term store

Short-term store is the brain capacity to hold a limited number of items of information for periods of time up to a few seconds. It is the kind of memory that is involved in repeating a word that you have just heard the teacher modelling. But successful vocabulary learning involves more than holding words for a few seconds. To integrate words into long - term memory they need to be subjected to different kinds of operations.

#### Working memory<sup>28</sup>

Working memory means focusing on word long enough to perform operations on them. It means the information is manipulated via the senses from external sources and/or can be downloaded from the long- term memory. Material remains in working memory for about twenty seconds. The existence of articulator loop enables this new material processing. It works a bit like audiotape going round around again. It assures the short- term store to be kept refreshed The ability to hold a word in working memory is a good predictor of language learning aptitude. The better ability to hold words in working memory the smoother the process of learning foreign languages is.

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<sup>28</sup> Henrikson, B. . Three dimensions of vocabulary development. Cambridge University Press. 1999

## Long –term memory

Long-term memory can be seen as kind of filing system. Unlike working memory, which has a limited capacity and no permanent content, this kind of memory has an enormous capacity and its contents are durable over time. However, to ensure moving new materials into permanent long-term memory, requires number of principles to be followed, described by Thornbury, 2002:

- Repetition – repetition of encounters with a word is very important, useful and effective. If the word is met several times over space interval during reading activities, students have a very good chance to remember it for a long time.
- Retrieval - another kind of repetition. Activities, which require retrieval, such as using the new items in written tasks, help students to be able to recall it again in the future.
- Spacing - it is useful to split memory work over a period of time rather than to mass it together in a single block.
- Pacing – to respect different learning styles and pace, students should be ideally given the opportunity to do memory work individually.
- Use - putting words to use, preferably in an interesting way, is the best way of ensuring they are added to long – term memory. This is so called “Use it or lose it” principle.
- Cognitive depth - the more decisions students make about the word and the more cognitively demanding these decisions are, the better the word is remembered.
- Personal organizing - personalization significantly increased the probability that students will remember new items. It is achieved mainly through conversation and role-playing activities.

- Imaging – easily visualized words are better memorable than those that do <sup>29</sup> not evoke with any pictures. Even abstract words can be associated with some mental image.
- Mnemonics – tricks to help retrieve items or rules that are stored in memory. The best kinds of mnemonics are visuals and keyword techniques.
- Motivation - strong motivation itself does not ensure that words will be remembered. Even unmotivated students remember words if they have to face appropriate tasks.
- Attention - it is not possible to improve vocabulary without a certain degree of conscious attention.

Other important factors in language learning process <sup>30</sup>

Perhaps it is useful to think in terms of methods to the extent that some of them will be better suited than others to particular learning styles, or particular cultural and educational traditions, but at the same time it is vital to remember that there are much more fundamental factors that determine success in language learning:

1. motivation
2. data (samples of the language, plus - maybe - information about the language)
3. opportunities to experiment with the data
4. feedback – to confirm that you are heading in the right direction, or to re-direct you if you are not

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<sup>30</sup> [www.onestopenglish.com/teacher support/ask/methodology/method5.htm](http://www.onestopenglish.com/teacher-support/ask/methodology/method5.htm)

Vocabulary knowledge does not only involve just knowing the meaning of a word in isolation, but includes knowing the word that usually co-occurs with it. These words that co-occur with high frequency are called collocations, e.g. heavy rain, strong coffee but not powerful coffee, a brief discussion but a short man. Collocations help students to define the semantic area of a word such as: Synonyms- words with identical meaning; however (Nattinger, 1989:99) warns that absolute substitutability is not possible, since factors such as register and style determines the usage of synonymous words. Examples of synonyms include commence/begin, end/ terminate. Antonyms - antonyms refers to a notion of semantic opposition or unrelatedness (Carter, 2000).

Examples of antonyms include married/ single, buy/ sell, big/ small. Hyponymy refers to a relationship existing between a specific and general lexical item e.g. (a) super ordinate grouping (vehicle- car) (b) co-ordinate grouping (car-sedan). Word formation refers to the recognition and production (speaking and writing) of word formation processes (Carter, 2000). Below is an example of a word form chart.<sup>31</sup>

### WORD FORM CHART

NOUN	VERB	ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
OBSESSION	OBSESS	OBSESSIVE	OBSESSIVELY
QUALIFICATION	QUALIFY	QUALIFIED	
COMPETITION	COMPETE	COMPETITIVE	COMPETITIVELY
ION, -TION	-E, -ATE, EY	IV, -ED	LY

(Carter, 2000)

Figure1

<sup>31</sup> Mukrolli Joseph "Effective Vocabulary Teaching for the English for Academic Purposes ESL Classroom"(2011),p.501

## Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition (IVA)

Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition is a vocabulary learning strategy, defined as the learning of new words as a by-product of a meaning-focused communicative activity, such as reading, listening and interaction. It occurs through multiple exposures to a word in different contexts. Learners are able to acquire vocabulary through extensive reading, communicative interactions and exposure to natural input such as movies and television. This strategy entails extensive comprehensible input and independent learning (Huckin and Coady, 1999:185).

Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition has many advantages:

It is contextualized and gives the learner a richer sense of word use and meaning that can be provided in group activities. It also allows vocabulary learning and reading to happen at the same time. It is individualized and learner-centered because the vocabulary to be learned depends on the learner's own selection of reading materials. Presentation, consolidation and lexical development occur at the same time. On the other hand; Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition also has a few disadvantages: It does not work for learning core vocabulary, since it is individualized and the vocabulary that is acquired is dependent on the learner's own selection of reading material. There is no control over what learners learn, so learning might not even take place. Incorrect guessing might lead to incorrect understanding of vocabulary <sup>32</sup>

### Teaching word family

Development in lexical semantics and the mental lexicon have prompted the development of the semantic field theory, semantic networks or semantic grid strategies, which present and organize words in terms of interrelated lexical meanings (Gus and Johnson, 1996:64). The semantic field theory suggests that the lexical content of a language is best treated not as a mere aggregation of independent words or unstructured list of words but as a collection of interrelating networks of relations

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<sup>32</sup> Huckin and Coady, Teaching vocabulary.1999: p.186.

between words (Stubbs, 2001). The meaning of most words is governed, in part, by the presence in the language of other words whose semantic functions are related in one or more ways to the same area of situational environment or culture (Robins, 1980).

A simple example of a semantic field is the set of kinship terms: father, mother, brother, sister, son, daughter, uncle, aunt or the various body parts learned as a subset. Words may be grouped together (related to each other) according to different criteria. Animals for example may be grouped in terms of physical or perceptual features such as pet, wild, food etc. According to How (1999) individual word meanings exist within systems of related meaning (kinship) and knowledge of the meaning relations among a set of words would seem to follow from knowledge of the constituent meaning. There is ample psychological evidence that supports this assumption (How, 1999). Adults are better at remembering words from a list that contain semantically related subsets than words from lists of unrelated words. Semantic interrelationships among words cannot be acquired incidentally through reading. They need direct systematic instruction, which enables the learner to recognize the semantic relatedness between words. This strategy also enhances retention of vocabulary learned in this manner (How, 1999)

### 3.3 Methods and culture specific activities of teaching words and semantic fields

Linguists have contrasting views on how many times learners need to be exposed to a lexical item before they can commit it to memory. According to Whorf (2002) it is not only the amount of times but also how well learners encounter a lexical item that determines how well they retain it. If learners encounter a lexical item many times but do not do much with it (incidental learning), the learners are likely not to retain it. If the learners are actively involved in processing the lexical item (intentional learning), they are likely to remember it. It is therefore the teachers' responsibility to create meaningful contexts in which learners have the opportunity to recycle and reuse the vocabulary they have learned (Whorf, 2002).

### Keeping a vocabulary journal

It is important for language learners to record the words they learn or encounter. Vocabulary journals can serve as a reference source in and out of the class room. Once learners record the target vocabulary, it becomes easy for them to remember or use it (Gruber, 2002:199).

### Eliciting

The learner calls out or writes the target word. This can be in the form of definition, antonyms or synonyms. This activity enables the learner to express meaning and explore knowledge of the target vocabulary deeply (Herrel, 2004:110).

### Contextualization

The learners learn to use the word in sentences through gap filling activity, story-building or role-play activity (McCarthy, 2002:33).

### Labeling

Learners label various parts or objects in class. This activity can be extended at home or immediate environment (Morgan and Rinvolcri, 1986:56).

### Personalization

This process is also known as deep-processing. The learners visualize themselves doing a specific activity relating to the target vocabulary, e.g. learners imagine themselves rowing a boat.

Target vocabulary = row.<sup>33</sup>

Students can also be asked to think and express what freedom means to them individually (Morgan, 1986: 55).

Learning vocabulary by identifying productive pre-fixes and post-fixes Learning the most common productive pre-fixes and post-fixes can enable learners to understand a

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<sup>33</sup> Zimmerman, C.B. (2007). Vocabulary learning methods. Cambridge Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.

thousand other academic words, which uses one or more of those word parts. Word part clues

are highly memorable because they are simple to understand e.g. bi- means 2, anti- means against. Once learners have mastered the word part, they can create their own words (Schmidt and McCarthy, 1989:22).

### Association

Learners learn to associate the new vocabulary or target word with something they already know or something that is meaningful to them (Schmidt and Schmid 1995:45).

### Semantic mapping

This to motivate and involve students in thinking, reading and writing. It enhances vocabulary development by helping students to link new information with previous experience. This is done by making an arrangement of words into a picture, which has a key concept at the centre and related words and concepts linked with the key concept. Below is an example of a semantic map.

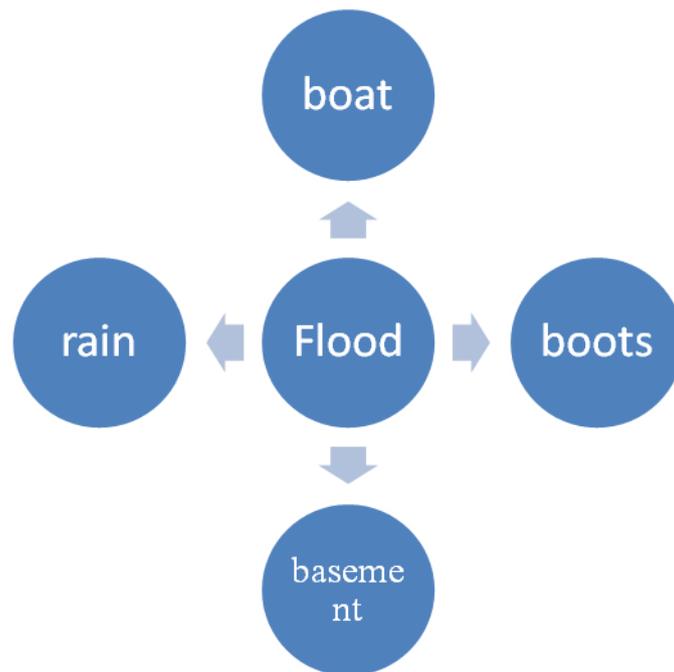


Figure 4

(Mc.Carter.2009)

So, this semantic mapping can be followed with any kind of fields and it helps to teach easily semantic fields and the relations of the words in the same field. Another useful methods of teaching vocabulary and the words related to the same field are:

#### Character trait vocabulary chart

After reading a story students are asked to describe what each of the characters was —really like and the teacher creates a chart of the students' responses (Manyak, 2007). The brain storming process prompts students to analyze the characters and provide the teacher with a rich context in which to teach new vocabulary.

#### Learning vocabulary via analogy

An analogy is an implied (unstated) relationship between two pairs of objects (Gardner, 1993). Analogies require students to identify a similar relationship between dissimilar objects. Understanding analogies requires the use of higher thinking skills. The major forms of vocabulary via analogy are: synonyms, antonyms, homonyms,

word and word structure, part to whole, whole to part and characterization. An example of an analogy is: which one does not belong to the group:

1. flood
2. debris
3. facility
4. rain
5. current (answer: facility)

<sup>34</sup>Or, which word does not related to the semantic field of motherland:

- |              |                                  |
|--------------|----------------------------------|
| 1.tongue     | 4.industrial                     |
| 2.compatriot | 5.tradition (answer: industrial) |
| 3.people     |                                  |

Using Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling (TPRS) to teach vocabulary

This teaching strategy is used to build language proficiency in the use of grammatical structures and vocabulary. This is done by the presentation of target vocabulary structures. Gestures can also be taught and practiced with the new vocabulary to help students remember the target vocabulary. Three steps are involved in TPRS:

Step1 – Teacher establishes meaning by presentation of target vocabulary.

Step2- Teacher asks students to tell a story with a general outline by using the target vocabulary. The teacher then asks students to provide specific details.

Step3 – Teacher discusses story with students and ask questions about the story and how it relates to students‘ lives. One of the well-known linguist suggested this method as an effective and interesting way of teaching vocabulary in the classroom.

Learning vocabulary through story innovation

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<sup>34</sup> Gardner, Teaching Vocabulary,1995,p.55

The learning vocabulary through story innovation strategy was introduced by Martin and Brogan. It is a procedure for innovating sentence patterns by using the structure of a sentence to create a semantically new one through word substitutions. Story innovation is a way for learners to enjoy writing and reading and learn vocabulary in a scaffolded format. The finished product is a new text that is easy for learners to read because they are familiar with the patterns in the original story and with the new vocabulary used to create the innovation.

### Categorizing words

Students are asked to categorize words. Categories can include action verbs - to run, run on gasoline; nouns - knight, night; auxiliary verbs- will –future tense, a will, be, bee; adjectives -round, round of applause; prepositions -in, to, two, too

### Vocabulary finder

These are problem-solving activities that involve a list of words that the learners try to locate in a square or rectangular maze of letters (Garner, 1989).The difficulty of these puzzles is determined by the number of lexical items to be located and the quantity of the unrelated alphabetic distracters (random letters). Below is an example of a vocabulary finder.<sup>35</sup>

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<sup>35</sup> Mc Carthy, Methods of teaching Vocabulary,20008.p.402-434

### Animal Word Search:

(Garner, 1989)



Figure 5

### Tic-tac-toe

This is a structure that features three rows with three columns each. Students are asked to discover a relationship in three lexical items in a diagonal, vertical or horizontal row (Summer, 1994).

### Scrambled format

Students are asked to unscramble the letters which belong to the field of motherland (Schmidt, 2005).

### Use of bilingual dictionaries

According to Baxter (2009:44) the continuous and extended use of bilingual dictionaries slows down a student's vocabulary development. However, Summer (1993:116) argues that dictionaries can be valuable tools in vocabulary acquisition when properly used.

Garner (2009) suggested the following ways of helping learners to remember previously learned words. Spend time on a word by dealing with two or three aspects of the word, such as its spelling, pronunciation, parts, related derived forms, its meaning, its collocations, its grammar, or restrictions on its use. Get learners to do graded reading and listening to stories at the appropriate level.

Get learners to do speaking and writing activities based on written input that contain the words. Let learners do prepared activities that involve testing and teaching vocabulary such as; Same or different? Find the difference, word and picture matching. Set aside time each week for word by word revision of the vocabulary that occurred previously. List the words on the board. Break the words into parts and label the meanings of the parts and suggests collocations for the words.

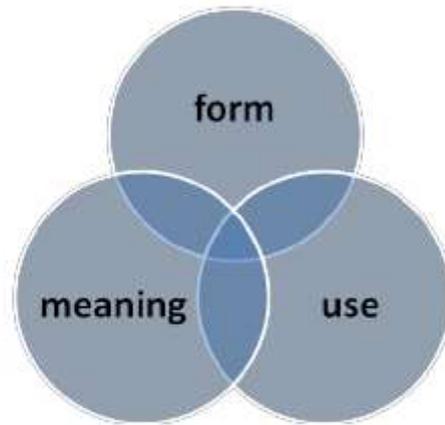
Garner (2009) proposed vocabulary teaching methods that concentrate on input that focuses on the meaning of vocabulary items and pronunciation that explains how the language operates. He also proposes teaching strategies that allow students to learn vocabulary independently through intensive reading. It is important for teachers in the English for Academic Purposes ESL classroom to focus on the complexity and quality of the semantization process in order to enhance the organizational structure of the learners' lexicon. Effective vocabulary teaching strategies enhance word retention, broaden the depth and breadth of word knowledge and therefore expedite the vocabulary development of the English language learner.<sup>36</sup>

In the following step I am going to present some strategies used in the practical lessons by some teachers, I found them much effective and also I myself used for my pupils. There are lots of linguists, first of them is Tim Brendell at Riverside Language Program.

Brendell, a teacher at Riverside Language Program, focuses on form, meaning and use of words when teaching vocabulary in his ESL classroom.

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<sup>36</sup> (The above references on various vocabulary teaching methods were all cited in Herrel (2004).



**Form-** pronunciation, spelling, inflections, and derivations of the word

Figure 6

Meaning- basic and literal meaning, figurative meanings, semantic relation and the connotation of the word

Use- sub-categorization, collocation, socio-linguistic and stylistic meaning of the word Brendell mainly uses the Presentation, Practice and solidation and lexical and semantic development teaching strategy as outlined below.

#### Presentation

The teacher provides a description, explanation or example of a new term. Students are asked to restate the description, explanation or example of the new term. Students then construct a picture, symbol or graphic design of the term. The teacher engages students in activities that will help in mastering the new concepts. Students are asked to discuss the new terms often in class.

#### Practice and Consolidation

Teacher uses songs and games when teaching vocabulary and employ semantic field and semantic mapping strategies. Teacher uses the key word method to reinforce important concepts and provide sufficient practice. Regular review of important concepts and vocabulary is done in class.

## Lexical and Semantic Development

Teacher employs extensive reading activities in and out of the classroom and facilitates communicative activities such as role-play and debates to enhance fluency and confidence in speech. <sup>37</sup>

Another effective activities of teaching semantic fields go as follows:

This is a simple game you can play with semantic fields (that is groups of nouns related by meaning).

### Preparation

Prepare a set of flashcards. On each one write the name of a semantic field. For example,

kitchen items

things in my bedroom

office equipment

fruit

When you choose the semantic fields, make sure they are relevant to your class. If you teach Business English to a group of beginners who are all furniture sales staff, you could have cards with:

furniture

colours

material

A more advanced class of road engineers might have cards on which you've written:

building materials

construction equipment

surveying equipment

The activities which can be played in the classroom :

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<sup>3737</sup> Effective Vocabulary Teaching Strategies For English For Academic Purposes Esl Classroom  
Joseph Mukoroli.2011

## In the Class

Students take it in turns to choose a card at random. They then have to tell to the rest of the class items which fit into the semantic field they have. The class have to guess the semantic field on the card.

For example, in a General English beginners class the card might read clothes and the student might begin:

shirt... jacket... tie... trousers... hat...

## Notes

- 1) To make the game easier, especially with younger learners or beginners, instead of having a semantic field written on the card, the student is given a picture on which a selection of items is shown (such as the picture at the top of this page). The student then names as many items as they can and with the class tries to work out the semantic field.
- 2) You can make the semantic field as general or as specific as your class can handle. This means going from "clothes" to "items in my closet". From there you can move to more esoteric fields such as "things which are soft" or "things which break when you drop them". (See the selection of Fun Semantic Fields below!)
- 3) The game can easily be made into the competition between groups in the class. How many words does it take for a group to guess the semantic field?

Teaching vocabulary is not so complicated than teaching grammar or writing skills, it will be more interesting with many kind of funny activities, for example:

## Fun Semantic Fields

Things which won't fit in my pocket.

Breakfast food.

Things which you can find in the rubbish bin.

Things which people often lose.

Attitudes which annoy me.

Emotions.

Round things.

Yellow things.

This game may be played with beginner and intermediate level learners. It is much more exciting because, teacher make students think and they have to remember all the new words which learnt by heart.

## Conclusion

The investigation made in this qualification paper is devoted to the study of Linguistic characteristics of the semantic field of words related to motherland in English language. The object of investigation is too large, and here an attempt to comprise as much of the information towards this theme as possible is obviously seen. The very qualification paper is carried out by mean of linguistic and literary terms and rearious observations. A detailed consideration of different problems of classification of semantic fields gave an opportunity to make the following conclusion: semantic field is an important part of language and one of the essential way of learning words, so problems observations and anything connected with fields play an important role in our everyday speech. It is an extremely complex thing to examine it thoroughly and the use of other disciplines-lexicology, grammar, philosophy, history, etc. – without any doubt would be very helpful.

The study of numerous approaches to the investigation of semantic fields enable to state that there are as many heads as men. Every scholar tries to give his own method to study, analyze different fields thinking his way is the best one and trying “to blacken” all others.

During the investigation we have revealed that semantic fields have their history, structure and function . And we dealt with them separately.

There are many notions of semantic fields. Each linguist gave the definition of semantic field, but they express the same thought, and every notion has been proved.

A proper study of semantic fields is impossible without a preliminary through investigation of free word groups and the lexical valency of their member – words.

The results of the research showed that in literature is used different word fields and word combinations. Semantic fields are used more in the classroom while working with the vocabulary.

Having done this research I have found many interesting information about semantic fields, their usage, also found the answer to the questions why we need semantic fields? We can not possibly know the exact meaning of the word if we do not know the structure of the semantic field to which the word belongs, the number of the members and the concepts covered by them, etc. The meaning of the captain, e.g., can not be properly understood until we know the semantic field in which this term operates- the army, the navy, or the merchant service. It follows that the meaning of the word captain is determined by the place it occupies among the terms of the relevant rank system. In other words we know captain means only if we know whether his subordinate is called mate or first officer ( merchant service), commander (navy) or lieutenant (army).

Furthermore, in the semantic fields words share different combinability and not only the same parts of speech, but also there may have the words from various parts of speech. In the semantic field ‘motherland’, as I classified there more nouns than verbs and adverbs. Compounds and derived words also can be seen.

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