**ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС**

**ТАЪЛИМ ВАЗИРЛИГИ**

**ЎЗБЕКИСТОН ДАВЛАТ ЖАҲОН ТИЛЛАРИ УНИВЕРСИТЕТИ**

**ИНГЛИЗ ТИЛИ ЛЕКСИКОЛОГИЯ КАФЕДРАСИ**

**холлиева муниса хусан қизи**

ИНГЛИЗ ТИЛИ 2 ФАКУЛТЕТИ 427 ГУРУХ

**инсоннинг ташқи кўринишини ўрганишга функционал ёндашув**

**5120100 – Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш (инглиз тили) таълим йўналиши бўйича бакалавр даражасини олиш учун**

**БИТИРУВ МАЛАКАВИЙ ИШИ**

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| **“Ҳимояга тавсия этилади”**  “Инглиз тили лексикологияси” кафедраси мудири  \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ МатякубовЖ.И.  2016йил “\_\_\_\_” \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ | **ИЛМИЙ РАҲБАР:**  \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ Мавлянова Н.А  2016йил “\_\_\_\_” \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ |

Тошкент – 2016

**THE MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND SECONDARY SPECIAL EDUCATION OF THE REPUBLIC OF UZBEKISTAN**

**THE UZBEK STATE WORLD LANGUAGES UNIVERSITY**

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ENGLISH FACULTY II GROUP 427

**QUALIFICATION PAPER**

**FUNCTIONAL APPROACH TO THE STUDY OF HUMAN appearance**

**5120100– Philology and teaching languages ( The English language) for granting the bachelor’s degree**

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| **“THE QUALIFICATION PAPER IS ADMITTED TO DEFENSE”**  The head of the English Lexicology department  \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_Matyakubov J.I.  “\_\_\_\_” \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ 2016 | **SCIENTIFIC SUPERVISOR:**  \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ Mavlyanova N.A  “\_\_\_\_” \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ 2016 |

Тashkent – 2016

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**Introduction**

The Resolution of the President of the Republic of Uzbekistan issued in December 2012 “On measures for further improvement of the foreign languages’ learning” states that the system of teaching and learning foreign languages in this country is aimed at upbringing of the younger generation as harmoniously developed, highly educated and progressively thinking people able to ensure the integration of the country into the world community[[1]](#footnote-2).

This strategy requires an overall reconsideration of the attitude to teaching and learning English as a global language through implementation of new interactive methods of teaching and ICT in education system.Here the notable place is assigned to the general applied linguistics which carries responsibility for such socially and scientifically important sphere of knowledge as Lexicology, Stylistics, Methodology of language teaching, Translation theory, Phonetics and so on.

My qualification paper presents the Functional approach to the study of human appearance. This research work presents the combination of several approaches to teaching a language with the focus on lexical items.

The relevance of research evaluative vocabulary that characterizes a person's appearance is that the evaluation is inextricably linked with the language and the main language level, expressing all kinds of assessments is lexical, as it is capable of vocabulary quickly, adequately and thoroughly reflect the changes taking place in the minds of the public and people's lives, and that the selection of lexical resources in speech primarily reflects the attitude of the subjects to each other, objects and phenomena.

**The topicality** of the qualification paper held is conditioned by the deep interest to investigate the lexical units related to human appearance, their lexical and derivational means, teaching ways of them and the result of this process as the means of formation and enrichment of English vocabulary.

**The aim** of our study was to conduct functional analysis of vocabulary relevant to man’s appearance of English language.

According to this general aim there put forward the following particular **tasks**:

* to survey the literature about the evolution of basic appearance terms;
* to collect appropriate amount of English lexical units which are going to be analyzed;
* to learn lexical and derivational means of the words and phrases
* to analyze semantically the idiomatic phrases with the meaning of human appearance
* to survey the teaching ways of vocabulary belonging to human appearance

**The degree of study**among the theoretical literature should be noted as a general scientific work on lexicology: N.N. Amosova, V.V. Vinogradov, A. Wierzbicka and profile, specialized work: J. Bagan, S.S. Berkner, Bochin T.G, Grigorieva G.S, N.M. Kravtsova, Meshcheriakova V. In their paper, the researchers have raised questions of valuation categories of vocabulary, concepts of femininity and masculinity, nature and semantics idioms etc.

**The object** of the study is estimated lexicon person's appearance in the English language.

**The subject** – is to identify the linguo-cognitive and linguocultural characteristics of human appearance, based on phraseological units, proverbs, sayings and literary texts of English and Uzbek.

**The scientific novelty** the main task of the work is to study words, phrases belonging to human appearance, and make research on the functional analysis. The present work is the first attempt to give an objective picture of different approaches and viewpoints on vocabularies connecting with person’s appearance, to study them by the way of componential approaches, analyze them according to their components with the help of methods of word formation in present day English.

The aim and the tasks of research define the **methods** of investigation, which represent the complex approach to the study of words and phrases related to human appearance, including semantic, lexical and derivational ways of analysis.

**The theoretical value** of this work is in the fact it will present some theoretical basis for working out concrete practical recommendation in studying English. The results of this qualification paper can be used by people who are involved in learning English Lexicology and vocabulary.

**The practical value** of this qualification paper is that it can be used as an aid for the theoretical courses of English lexicology, word formation and phraseology, as well as in the process of teaching English. In addition, it can be used as a topic for discussion for the students of Language Universities and Institutions.The scientific hypothesis of this qualification paper is that this investigation may be used in theoretical and practical lessons on Grammar, Lexicology, and Stylistics and soon in future.

**The structure** of this qualification paper is as follows: Introduction, three chapters, Conclusion and the list of used literatures.

**Introduction**determines the actuality, scientific novelty, the aim and tasks of the work, methods of research, and its practical value shows the material that served the basis for executed work.

**The first chapter** consists of three paragraphs, and devoted to the study of properties of the English vocabulary. The chapter also.provides the most relevant material regarding the study of the lexical system that must also include the study of the words’ combinatorial possibilities of their capacity to combine with one another in groups of certain patterns, which serve to identify meanings

**The second chapter** consists of three paragraphs, suggestinglexical, derivational and semantic analysis of words describing human appearance.

**The third chapter** consists of threeparagraphs and it deals with teaching methods of vocabularies and the ways of teaching them using variety of activities.

**The Conclusion** deals with the theoretical and practical results of this qualification paper.

**The list of used literatures** represents the list of the used literature, including scientific books, dictionaries and internet resources.

**CHAPTER I. PROPERTIES OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY**

**1.1 Lexicology is a branch of linguistics**

The word lexicology come from Greek lexicon “word” and logic “learning” is the part of linguistics. It deals with the vocabulary of a language and the properties of words as the main units of language.

Modern English lexicology aims at giving a systematic description of the word – stock of Middle English. Words their component part morphemes and various types of word groups and word equivalents commonly known as phraseological units are subjected to structural and semantic analyses primarily from the synchronic angle.

In other words, Middle English lexicology investigated the problems of word structure and word formation in Middle English, the semantic structure of English words the main principals of the classification of vocabulary units into various groupings, the laws governing the replenishment of the vocabulary. It also studies the relations existing between various lexical layers of the English vocabulary and specific laws and regulations that govern its development at the present time.[[2]](#footnote-3)

Middle English language as a subject of study forms parts of the theoretical Course of Middle English and such is inseparable from its other component parts, Grammar, Phonetics, Stylistics on the hand the course of the English language.

The general study of words and vocabulary, irrespective of the specific features of any particular lexicology. Linguistic phenomena and properties common to all languages are generally referred to as language universals. Special lexicology devotes its attention to the description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary in the vocabulary of a given language[[3]](#footnote-4).

The evolution of any vocabulary, as well of its single elements, forms the object of historical lexicology. This brand of linguistics discusses the origin of various words, their change and development and linguistic forces modifying their structure, meaning and usage. In the past historical treatment was always combined with the comparative criticized for its atomistic approach, for treating every word as an individual and isolated unit. Historical study of words is not necessarily atomistic. In the light of recent investigations it becomes clear that there is no reason why historical lexicology cannot survey the evolution of a vocabulary as a system, showing change and development in the course of time.

Descriptive lexicology deals with the vocabulary of a given stage of its development. It studies the function of words and their specific structure as a characteristic inherent in the system. The descriptive lexicology of the English language deals with word in its morphological and semantic structures, investigating the interdependence between these two aspects.

The theoretical value of lexicology becomes obvious if we realize that it forms the study of one of the three main aspects of language, its vocabulary, the other two being its grammar and sound system. The theory of meaning was originally developed within the limits of philosophical science. The relationship between the name and thing named has in the course of history constituted one of the key questions in the struggle of materialistic and idealistic trends.

Lexicology came into being to meet the needs of many different branches of applied linguistics, namely is closely connected with linguistics the history of the language, phonetics and stylistics and especially grammar.

The connection of lexicology with phonetics is very important. This importance stands explained on the acoustic level words consists of phonemes and therefore phonemes participate on a higher level, on level of morphemes. Nevertheless, phonemes are not lexicology irrelevant: as their function is building up morphemes, they serve to distinguish between meanings. Stylistics, although from the different angle, studies many problems treated in lexicology. There are the problems of meaning synonymy and differentiation of vocabulary according to the sphere of communication and some other issues.

The difference and interconnection between lexicology and grammar is one of the important controversial issues in linguistics and as it is basic to the problems under discussion, it is necessary to dwell it a little more than has been done for phonetics and stylistics[[4]](#footnote-5).

A close connection between grammar and lexicology is conditioned by the lexicography, literary criticism, standardization of terminology, information retrieval and last but not least of foreign language teaching. Lexicology plays a prominent part in the general linguistic training of every language philologist by summing up the knowledge acquired at the English lessons during all his years at the foreign language faculty. It also imparts the necessary skills of using different kind of dictionaries and reference books, and prepares for future independent work on increasing and improving one’s vocabulary.

The treatment of words in lexicology cannot be divorced from the study of all the other elements in the language system to which words belong. It should be always borne in mind that in reality, in the actual process of communication, all these elements are independent and stand in the definite relations to one another

The word, as it has already been started, is studied in several branches of linguistic and not in lexicology, only, and the latter, in its turn manifold and is severable ties between the objects of their study. Even isolated words as presented in a dictionary bear a definite relation on the grammatical system of the language because they belong to some part of speech and conform to some lexico – grammatical characteristic of the word class to which the belong. Words seldom occur in isolation. They are arranged in certain patterns conveying the relations between the things for which they stand; Therefore alongside with their lexical meaning they possess some grammatical meaning.

Main types of English dictionaries. All dictionaries may be roughly divided into two main types – encyclopedic and linguistic. Linguistic dictionaries are word – books; their subject matter types are vocabulary units (their semantic structure, usage). Encyclopedic as are thing – books dealing with concepts (objects and phenomena, their origin and development, relations to other concepts).

A linguistic dictionary is a book of works in a language usually listen alphabetically with definitions, pronunciations, etymologies and other linguistic information or with their equivalents in another language.

As far as the information they provide is concerned all linguistic dictionaries fall into those presently a wide range of date about the vocabulary items in ordinary use (they might be called general dictionaries) and those restricting themselves to one particular aspect (specialized dictionaries). To general dictionaries belong to most widely used types of dictionaries – explanatory and parallel (or translation dictionaries)[[5]](#footnote-6).

Specialized and antonyms, collocations, word frequency, new words, slang. There also phraseological, etymological, pronouncing dictionaries may be monolingual or bilingual the information may be given in the same language or in another language.

There is an abundance explanatory dictionaries, big and small, complied in English speaking countries, the new English – Dictionary on historical principles commonly abbreviated into NED, Webster’s New International Dictionary, and Shorter Oxford Dictionary on Historical Principles etc.

In explanatory dictionaries of the synchronic type the entry usually presents the following data: spelling and pronunciation, grammatical characteristics, meanings, illustrative examples, derivatives, phraseology, etymology, synonyms and antonyms.

Translation dictionaries (sometimes called parallel) are word – books containing vocabulary items in one language and their equivalents in another language. The most reprelantative translation dictionaries for English are : The Russian – English dictionary under Prof. A. I. Smirtinsky’s[[6]](#footnote-7) general direction and the English – Russian Dictionary by Prof. V.K. Miller.

Included in this class are dictionaries that concentrate either or giving fuller treatment to certain part of the vocabulary or on providing information limited to one particular aspect.

Out of the numerous synonym – books available perhaps the best known are A Dictionary of English Synonyms and synonymous Expressions by R. Soule and Webster’s Dictionary of Synonyms.

Another types of word – books which is also widespread in the English speaking countries, is what we call phraseological dictionary, those treating phraseology. English and American lexicographers have accumulated vast collections of idiomatic or colloquial phrases, proverbs and other, usually image – bearing, word groups with profuse illustrations.

Lexicography that is the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries is an important branch of applied linguistics. It has a common object of study with lexicology as both describe the vocabulary of a language. The essential difference between the two lies in the degree of systematization and completeness each of them is able to achieve. It aims at systematization revealing characteristic features of the words. It cannot, however, claim any completeness as regards the units being very great, systematization and completeness could not be achieved simultaneously.

The province of lexicography, on the other hand is the semantic, formal and functional description of all individual words. Dictionaries aim at a more or less complete description, but in so doing can not attain systematic treatment, so that every dictionary entry presents as it were, an independent problem.

For dictionaries in which the words and their definition belong the words language the term unilingual or explanatory is used, whereas bilingual or translation dictionaries are those that explain words by giving their in another language. Multilingual or polyglot dictionaries are not numerous; they serve chiefly the purpose of comparing synonyms and terminology in various language.

Both bilingual and unilingual dictionaries can be general and special.

General dictionaries represent the vocabulary as a whole with a degree of completeness depending upon the scope and bulk of the book in trusted to special dictionaries whose stated aim is to cover only a certain specific part of the vocabulary.

Big explanatory dictionaries were created in France and Italy before they appeared for the English language. As to pronunciation, attention was turned dictionary that must be mentioned first was published in 1780 by Tomas Sheridan.

The purpose of this monumental work is to trace the development of English words from their form in old English and if they were not found in old English; to show when they were introduced into the language, and also to show the development of each meaning and its historical relation to other meanings of the same word. For example and meanings which have become absolute the date of the latest occurrence is given. All this is done by means of dated quotations ranging from the oldest to recent appearances of the words in question.

English lexicography is probably the richest in the world with respect to variety and scope of the dictionaries published. The demand for dictionaries is very great. There is a great variety of unilingual dictionaries for children. They help to learn the meaning, spelling and pronunciation of words.

**1.2Functional communicativeapproach in linguistics.**

The Functional Approach is considered to be the second paradigm of psychology. This idea focuses on the function of the mental processes which involves conscious nesses. This approach was developed by William James in 1980. James was the first American Psychologist and wrote the first general text book regarding psychology[[7]](#footnote-8). In this approach, he reasoned that the mental act of consciousness must be an important biological function (Schacter et al., 2011) He also noted that it was a psychologist’s job to understand these functions so they can discover how the mental process operates. This idea was an alternative approach to the structuralism, which was the first paradigm (Gordon, 1995).

In second language acquisition,functional approaches are of similarities with Chomsky's Universal Grammar .Focus is on the use of language in real situations (performance) as well as underlying knowledge .The structural-functional approach is derived from earlier uses of functionalism and systems models in anthropology, sociology, biology, and political science. Structural functionalism became popular around 1960 when it became clear that ways of studying U.S. and European politics were not useful in studying newly independent countries, and that a new approach was needed. Structural-functionalism assumes that a bounded (nation-state) system exists, and studies structures in terms of their function within the system. For structural functionalists the question to be answered is what does a structure (guerrilla movement, political party, election, etc.) do within the political system ?The goal is to find out what something actually does in a political system, as opposed to what it is supposed to do. Thus, structural functionalists would not waste time studying constitutions in Third World countries if they found that the constitutions had little impact on political reality.

Almond claimed that certain political functions existed in all political systems. On the input side, he listed these functions as political socialization, political interest articulation, political interest aggregation, and political communication. Listed, as outputs were rule making, rule implementation, and rule adjudication. Other basic functions of all political systems included the conversion process, basic pattern maintenance, and various capabilities (distributive, symbolic, etc.). Structural functionalists argued that all political systems, including Third World systems, could most fruitfully be studied and compared on the basis of how differing structures performed these functions in the various political system[[8]](#footnote-9).

Structural functionalism is based on a systems model. Conceptually, the political process can be depicted as follows:

Structural functionalists, like systems analysts, have a bias toward systemic equilibrium, (ie toward stability). Such a bias tends to make this approach conservative, as stability, or evolutionary change, is preferred [and more easily analyzed], to radical, or revolutionary change. A problem which arises with this system-based model is that the nation-state's boundaries are often permeable in the real world, rather than being the neatly bounded nation-state conceptualized by structural functionalists. In other words, in the real world it is usually difficult to state exactly what the boundaries are, leading to some conceptual difficulties. For example, some international actors are only intermittent, such as the U.S. when it intervenes directly in Haitian or Panamanian politics. Should U.S. military forces be considered a part of the Panamanian or Haitian political systems?

The structural functional approach provides a useful framework for categorizing and comparing data, but has been criticized as being essentially static. It was not very useful for analyzing or predicting change; the issue of why, how, when, and in what direction, political development occurs. This issue of development, or change, is, of course, crucial for the Third World.

In response to criticisms, structural functionalists looked at history and concluded that political development takes place when an existing political system is unable to cope with problems or challenges confronting it without further structural differentiation or cultural secularization. Success at meeting such challenges constitutes political development[[9]](#footnote-10). By challenges, Almond meant changes in the size, content, and frequency of inputs (especially demands) for the system. For structural functionalists:

Political Development is defined as increased structural differentiation and increased cultural secularization.

Structural functionalists argued that, historically, there have been four major challenges to political systems, and that the challenges have occurred in the following sequence (in the West).

1. Penetration and integration (state building)

2. Loyalty and commitment (nation building)

3. Participation

4. Distribution

(Perhaps a fifth, international penetration, should be added to the list. The agents of international penetration would include other nations, international organizations, multinational corporations, prominent individuals, ideological movements, guerrillas, militaries, and technological sources such as radio broadcasts.)

The Third World is experiencing a fundamentally different pattern of challenge occurrence. In the Third World, the challenges are occurring simultaneously. In many cases "solutions" to historic systemic challenges in the West have been accompanied by violence and strong systemic resistance. (Extension of participation rights to workers; U.S. Civil Rights movement of 1960s) In Third World nations, all the challenges are occurring simultaneously, and demands for solutions are putting severe pressure on national political systems. From a structural functionalist point of view, the amount of violence and instability sometimes observed in Third World politics should, therefore, come as no surprise.

Durkheim clearly established the logic of the functional approach to the study of social phenomena, although functional explanations, it will be recalled, play a major part in Spencer's approach, and the lineaments of functional reasoning were already discernible in the work of Comte. In particular, Durkheim set down a clear distinction between historical and functional types of inquiry and between functional consequences and individual motivations. When . . . . The explanation of a social phenomenon is undertaken; we mustseek separately the efficient cause which produces it and the function it fulfills. We use the word "function," in preference to "end" or "purpose," precisely because social phenomena do not generally exist for the useful results they produce. We must determine whether there is a correspondence between the fact under consideration and the general needs of the social organism, and in what this correspondence consists, without occupying ourselves with whether it has been intentional or not.

"The determination of function is . . . necessary for the complete explanation of the phenomena. . . . To explain a social fact it is not enough to show the cause on which it depends; we must also, at least in most cases, show its function in the establishment of social order."

Durkheim separated functional analysis from two other analytical procedures, the quest for historical origins and causes and the probing of individual purposes and motives. The second seemed to him of only peripheral importance for sociological inquiry since men often engage in actions when they are unable to anticipate the consequences[[10]](#footnote-11). The quest for origins and historical causes, however, was to Durkheim as essential and legitimate a part of the sociological enterprise, as was the analysis of functions. In fact, he was convinced that the full explanation of sociological phenomena would necessarily utilize both historical and functional analysis. The latter would reveal how a particular item under consideration had certain consequences for the operation of the overall system or its component parts. The former would enable the analyst to show why this particular item, rather than some others, was historically available to subserve a particular function. Social investigators must combine the search for efficient causes and the determination of the functions of a phenomenon.

The concept of function played a key part in all of Durkheim's work from The Division of Labor, in which he sees his prime objective in the determination of "the functions of division of labor, that is to say, what social needs it satisfies," to The Elementary Forms of Religious Life, which is devoted to a demonstration of the various functions performed in society through religious cults, rites, and beliefs. An additional illustration of Durkheim's functional approach is his discussion of criminality.

In his discussion of deviance and criminality, Durkheim departed fundamentally from the conventional path. While most criminologists treated crime as a pathological phenomenon and sought psychological causes in the mind of the criminal, Durkheim saw crime as normal in terms of its occurrence, and even as having positive social functions in terms of its consequences. Crime was normal in that no society could enforce total conformity to its injunctions, and if society could, it would be so repressive as to leave no leeway for the social contributions of individuals. Deviance from the norms of society is necessary if society is to remain flexible and open to change and new adaptations. "Where crime exists, collective sentiments are sufficiently flexible to take on a new form, and crime sometimes helps to determine the form they will take. How many times, indeed, it is only an anticipation of future morality--a step toward what will be." But in addition to such direct consequences of crime, Durkheim identified indirect functions that are no less important. A criminal act, Durkheim reasoned, elicits negative sanctions in the community by arousing collective sentiments against the infringement of the norm. Hence, it has the unanticipated consequence of strengthening normative consensus in the common weal. "Crime brings together upright consciences and concentrates them."

Whether he investigated religious phenomena or criminal acts, whether he desired to clarify the social impact of the division of labor or of changes in the authority structure of the family, Durkheim always shows himself a masterful functional analyst. He is not content merely to trace the historical origins of phenomena under investigation, although he tries to do this also, but he moves from the search for efficient causes to inquiries into the consequences of phenomena for the structures in which they are variously imbedded. Durkheim always thinks contextually rather than agonistically. As such, he must be recognized as the direct ancestor of that type of functional analysis which came to dominate British anthropology under the impact of Radcliffe-Brown and Malinowski and which led. Somewhat later, to American functionalism in sociology under Talcott Parsons and Robert K. Merton.

The sections that follow will provide more information on Durkheim the man, and on his activities as an applied scientist and engaged reformer. This section was limited to his theoretical work, but it could not possibly do justice to all the facets of the work of so complicated a social theorist as Emile Durkheim. Space did not permit a discussion of Durkheim's contributions to the sociology of education, although they are considerable; nor could justice be done to Durkheim's fascinating if highly speculative work on the importance of professional associations as intermediary links between individuals and the all-encompassing, and possibly suffocating, powers of the state. Even his important contributions to the sociology of law could be alluded to only in passing[[11]](#footnote-12).

As a social theorist, Durkheim, to quote him directly, had as his "principal objective . . . to extend scientific rationalism to human behavior." In addition, although he may have failed in many particulars, the fact that his work has become part of the foundation for all modern sociology testifies to his overall s Studying Gene Expression and Function

Ultimately, one wishes to determine how genes—and the proteins they encode—function in the intact organism. Although it may sound counterintuitive, one of the most direct ways to find out what a gene does is to see what happens to the organism when that gene is missing. Studying mutant organisms that have acquired changes or deletions in their nucleotide sequences is a time-honored practice in biology. Because mutations can interrupt cellular processes, mutants often hold the key to understanding gene function. In the classical approach to the important field of genetics, one begins by isolating mutants that have aninteresting or unusual appearance: fruit flies with white eyes or curly wings, for example. Working backward from the phenotype—the appearance or behavior of the individual—one then determines the organism's genotype, the form of the gene responsible for that chaos.

**1.3Vocabulary as a system of linguistics**

For different purposes of study, different types of grouping may prove effective: synchronic, diachronic, or formal, depending on possible distribution or taking words is isolated unit. There is no optimum short out equally good for all purposes.

The simplest, most obvious non - semantic grouping, extensively used in all branches of applied linguistics is the alphabetical organization of written words, as represented in most dictionaries. It is of great practical value as the simplest and the universal way of facilitating the search for the necessary word. Even in dictionaries arranged according to the similarity of their ends. Some other principles we have an alphabetical index for the reader to refer to before searching the various categories.

The rhyming, inverse, dictionary presents a similar non - semantic grouping of isolated written words, differing from the first in that the sound is also taken into consideration and in that grouping is done the other way round and the words are according to the similarity of their ends.

One more type of non - semantic grouping of written words is based on their length the number of letters they contain.

On a higher on the morphological level, words are divided into four groups according to their morphological structure, namely the number and type of morphemes, which compose them.

1. Root or morpheme words. Their stem contains one free morpheme.
2. Derivatives contain no less than two morphemes of which at least one is bound.
3. Compound words consist of not less than two free morphemes; the presence of bound morphemes is possible but not necessary.
4. Compound derivates consist of not th less than two free morphemes and one bound morpheme referring to the whole combination. This division is basic one for lexicology.

Another type of traditional lexicological groupings 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 their root morpheme.

Sharply defined extensive fields are found in terminological systems. Terminology constitutes the greatest part. Terminology constitutes the greater part also its most intensely developing part, the class giving the largest number of formations. Terminology of a language consists of many systems of terms.

Many of the influential works on linguistics that appeared in the last years devote much attention to the problems of sociolinguistics that appeared in the last years devote much attention of the problems of sociolinguistics. Sociolinguistics may be roughly defined as the study of the influence is particularly strong in lexis. A term is, in many respects a very peculiar type of word. An ideal term is monosomantic and when used within its own sphere, does not depend upon the micro – context, provided it is not expressed by a figurative variant of a polysemantic word. Its meaning remains constant until some new discovery of invention changes the referent or the nation. The origin of terms shows four channels, two of which are specific for terminology.

These specific ways are:

1. The using of combining forms from Latin and Greek like *aerodrome, telegraph*. The process is common to terminology in many languages.

2. Borrowing from another terminological system within the same the respective fields. The remaining two methods are common with other layers of the vocabulary. There are word – formation in which composition, semantic shift and derivation take the leading part and borrowing from other languages.

The everyday English vocabulary, especially the part of it characterized by a high index of frequency and polysemy, constitutes a constant source for the creation of new terms.

Dictionaries for the most part include these terminological meaning in the semantic structure of the head – word. The fact that one of the meanings is terminological meanings in the signaled by showing in brackets the field where it can be used. The above survey of terms as a specific type of words was descriptive the approach was strictly synchronic. Investigation need not stop at the descriptive stage. On the contrary, the study of changes occurring in a group of terms or whole terminological subsystem, such as sea terms, building terms, during a long period of time can give very valuable data concerning the independence of the history of language and the history of society. The development of terminology is the most complete reflection of the history of science, culture and industry.

The term “semantics” is used to cover several different meanings. It is also used to denote the phenomena studied the meaning of the words and phrases. Had this been all, it might have been tolerated, because the same double purpose is served by the terms “phonetics” and “grammar”. In the case of “semantics”, however, there are other meanings, not sufficiently divorced from linguistics and apt to create confusion. “Academic semantics”, also called “pure semantics”, is a branch of symbolic or mathematical logic originated by R. Carnar. It aims at building of an abstract theory of relationship between signs and their referents (things meant). It is a part of semiotics – the study of signs and languages in general, including all sorts of codes, such as military signals, traffic signals. Unlike linguistic semantics has as its subject formalized as idealistic and too abstract to be made use of by linguistics. Recently, however many scholars show are different attitude and appear to be deeply interested in the possibilities applied to linguistics, especially in the field of machine translation and information retrieval.

It is clear then that “semantics” is an inappropriate term for the mere reason, that, having several different referents, it creates confusion.

Modern English has a very extensive vocabulary; the number of words according to the dictionary data is no less than 400000. A question naturally arises whether this enormous word-stock is composed of separate independent lexical units, or may it perhaps be regarded as a certain structured system made up numerous independent and interrelated sub – systems or groups of words.

In the spelling system of the language words are the smallest units of written discourse: they are marked off by solid spelling. The ability of an average speaker to segment any utterance into words is sustained by literacy. Yet it is a capacity only reinforced by education: it is well known that every speaker of any language is always able to break any utterance into words. The famous American linguist E. Sapir testified that even illiterate American Indians were perfectly capable of dictating to him — when asked to do so — texts in their own language “word by word”. The segmentation of a word into morphemes, on the other hand, presents sometimes difficulties even for trained linguists.

Many authors devoted a good deal of space to discussing which of the two: the word or the morpheme is to be regarded as the basic unit. Many American linguists (Ch. Hockett or Z. Harris, for instance) segmented an utterance into morphemes ignoring words. Soviet lexicologists proceed from the assumption that it is the word that is the basic unit, especially as all branches of linguistic knowledge and all levels of language have the word as their focal point. A convincing argumentation and an exhaustive review of literature is offered by A. A. Ufimtseva[[12]](#footnote-13).

If, however, we look now a little more closely into this problem, we shall see that the boundaries separating these three sets of units are sometimes fluid. Every living vocabulary is constantly changing adapting itself to the functions of communication in the changing world of those who use it. In this process the vocabulary changes not only quantitatively by creating new words from the already available corpus of morphemes and according to existing patterns but also qualitatively. In these qualitative changes new morphemic material and new word-building patterns come into being, and new names sometimes adapt features characteristic of other sets, those of groups of words, for instance.

Orthographicwords are written as a sequence of letters bounded by spaces on a page. Yet, there exist in the English vocabulary lexical units that are not identical with orthographic words but equivalent to them. Almost any part of speech contains units indivisible either syntactically or in terms of meaning, or both, but graphically divided. A good example is furnished by complex prepositions: *along with, as far as, in spite of, except for, due to, by means of, for the sake of,* etc[[13]](#footnote-14).

The same point may be illustrated by phrasal verbs, so numerous in English: *bring up* ‘to educate’, *call on* ‘to visit’, *make up* ‘to apply cosmetics’, ‘to reconcile after a disagreement’ and some other meanings, *put off “*to postpone’. The semantic unity of these verbs is manifest in the possibility to substitute them by orthographically single-word verbs.

**To sum up:** the vocabulary of a language is not homogeneous. If we view it as a kind of field, we shall see that its bulk, its central part is formed by lexical units possessing all the distinctive features of words, i.e. semantic, orthographic and morphological integrity as well as the capacity of being used in speech in isolation. The marginal elements of this field reveal only some of these features, and yet belong to this set too. Thus, phrasal verbs, complex prepositions, some compounds, phraseological units, formulaic expressions, etc. are divided in spelling but are in all other respects equivalent to words. Morphemes, on the other hand, a much smaller subset of the vocabulary, cannot be used as separate utterances and are less autonomous in other respects but otherwise also function as lexical items. The new term recently introduced in mathematics to describe sets with blurred boundaries seems expressive and worthy of use in characterising a vocabulary — such sets are called fuzzy sets.

**CHAPTER II. LEXICAL AND DERIVATIONAL MEANS FOR DESCRIBING HUMAN APPEARANCE IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.**

**2.1. Lexical means for describing human appearance**

As a lexical means for describing human appearance we investigated the most productive types of lexical units, they are compound words and phraseological units.

The most productive type of compound words describing human appearances and character in English language are:[[14]](#footnote-15)

1. Adjectives with the components ***looking:*** *good looking*
2. Solid compounds as N+Adj: lemon-yellow
3. Adj+Adj compounds : dark-blue, grey-white
4. Adj+N+ed compounds : blue eyed
5. Compound words with suffix **- like :** froglike

Simple words describe human appearances in general but compound nouns give specific information. In English :battleaxe - an unpleasant woman who tells people what to do in a determined and rather frightening way.chatterbox - someone who talks a lot .

The research shows that such examples we can fined such compounds in both languages.E.g.: bald-head ; hunch-back - букур одам , big-belly - мешқорин, white-skin - оқбадан; сарвиқомат - nice-looking , тепакал - bald-pate

The Janitor was a horsey-looking customer (A. Coonin). She patted her mouse-colored hair with the pen*[[15]](#footnote-16)* (A. Coonin). There was a perplexed creature with a pear-shaped face (J.C. Gates). Kathleen had a small straight nose and large- brown eyes. She was a plump, rosy-cheeked, wholesome apple-faced young woman (Ch. Dickens).

1)compound words describing men appearance in English :

In English : bald-coot – (*with little or no hair on your head: a bald spot on the top of his head; go bald (lose your hair) I started going bald in my twenties.* bullet-head – (having *a small, round head*. camel-back – (a man who is hunched); clod-hopper – (*clumsy, heavy-footed person, a rough farm worker*. grey-haired – (*a person whose hair is greying or becoming white*. lack-beard – (*without beard-*lack – *a situation in which you do not have any or do not have enough of something you need.*[[16]](#footnote-17)

The material which was used during the research showed that compound words in English language describe the head and face of men.

2)compound words describing women appearance in English and Uzbek languages :

In English: blue-stocking – (*an educated woman who is interested in serious subjects.* damsel-fly – (*a young beautiful girl*); demi-rep – (*a woman who is on the fringe of respectable society*. good-looker – (*physically attractive, especially with an attractine face*. large-eyed – (*with big eyes*); wasp-waisted – (*slender at the waist*)); white-haired– (*a grey-haired woman*); pie-eyed – (*an unpleasant girl*);[[17]](#footnote-18)

In this group, together with a description of positive assessment appearance meets the predominance of negative descriptions estimate the characteristics of appearance women using complicated words in the English language.

3. Gender unmarked words describing the appearance of person in English:

In English language: baby-faced – (*a baby-faced adult has a round face like a young child’s.* dry-eyed – (*not crying, although you are in a very sad situation.* fair-haired – (*with hair that is light in colour.*good-looking – (*physically attractive, especially with an attractive face*

Thus, the gender factor in the appearance and character of the person in compound words acquires particular significance in English and Uzbek languages. Gender marked difficult words describing the character and appearance of the man in fiction, is considered moral, behavioral, on the basis of values: good - bad, the good and the evil, beautifully - ugly. The analysis revealed gender marked difficult words describing the character and appearance of the man in the positive and negative evaluation plan.

**Phraseological Units Describing Human Appearance**

Phraseological units describing human appearence are usually based on a joke or irony. But sometimes such units may be offensive. Most of phraseological units were created by people of a particular nation.

Phraseological units describing people can be divided into two sub-groups: connected with ***positive*** and ***negative***qualities, for example: *His fingers are all thumbs (he’s clumsy) or good as a pie (surprisingly kind and friendly).* How people relate to the social norm, for example: *all brawn and no brain ( someone who is physically very strong but not very intelligent).*

The class of phraseological units describing human appearance may be divided into several subclasses, according to the object which is described. It comes as follows:

1. ***Facial features, beauty*** - one may be attractive or ugly. One’s face may express different emotions, such as anger, happiness etc.

- *chubby cheeks* - refer to full or fat cheeks. Admittedly, on the right person, they can be cute.

- *Plain Jane* - A plain Jane is a woman who isn't particularly attractive.

*How could she win the beauty contest? - She is just a plain Jane.*

- *graceful as a swan* - very graceful.

*Jane is graceful as a swan*

- *fair as a lily* - is a very beautiful woman

*Her daughter is fair as a lily.*

- *face is made of a fiddle* - means that somebody has attractive appearance

*His face is made of a fiddle that’s why many people adore him*.

- *look the picture* - if someone looks the picture, they look very pretty.

*The little girl looked the picture in her new dress.*

2. ***Eyes*** - one’s eyes may have different shape or express different emotions.

- *pie-eyed* - completely drunk.

*He had never taken an alcoholic drink so after one beer the boy was pie-eyed.*

- *eyes like saucers* - eyes opened widely as in amazement.

*Our eyes were like saucers as we witnessed another display of the manager's temper.*

- *saucer eyes* - having large round wide-open eyes

She had saucer eyes when she’s got the present.

3. ***Nose*** - one’s nose may be big or small, hooked or straight.

- *snub nose* - a small nose that curves up at the end

Jane’s face is really beautiful with full lips and a snub nose.

- *nose to light candles at* - red nose

After playing snowballs our noses were to light candles at.

4. ***Hair*** - one may have hair or not, or lose hair. Different hair-does may be dscribed.

- *thin on the top* - If someone, usually a man, is thin on the top, they are losing their hair or going bald.

Dad's gone a bit thin on the top in the last few years.

- *bald as a coot* - a person who is completely bald is as bald as a coot.

My grandfather is bald as a coot.

- *hell of hair* - used to tell that somebodie’s hair is untidy and scruffy

Albert Einstein usually had a hell of hair on his head.

5. ***Beard*** - PUs are used to describe the shape of it.

- *Vandyke beard* - is a style of facial hair named after 17th century Flemish painter Anthony van Dyck

A young gentleman with a Vandyke beard was talking loudly.

6. ***Body shape*** - one may be fat or thin[[18]](#footnote-19).

- *turkey neck* - refers to what is otherwise called a “double chin”. It’s an extra fold of fatty, loose skin that hangs under the chin. It is said to look similar to the neck of a turkey.

You should exercise your body otherwise you will have a turkey neck.

- *pot belly* - is simply another term for a fat belly

Santa has a pot belly!

- *mountain of flesh* - very high and clumsy person

John, a mountain of flesh, was the biggest man in the village.

- *all brawn and no brain* - Someone who is physically very strong but not very intelligent[[19]](#footnote-20)

He's an impressive player to watch, but he's all brawn and no brain.

- *fat as butter* - somebody is extremely fat

I saw the woman as fat as butter.

7. ***Height*** - one may be tall or short.

- *head and shoulders above* - very tall or having far superior to

He looked like a leader, head and shoulders above.

- *mushroom growth* (grow up like a mushroom) - to grow rapidly

My son grew up like mushroom.

- *vertically challenged* - This term is a humoristic way of referring to someone who is not very tall.

High shelves are difficult for vertically challenged shoppers.

8. ***Age*** - one may be young or old.

- *old head on young shoulders* - his expression refers to a child or young person who thinks and expresses themselves like an older more-experienced person.

*When she heard Emily warning her brother to stay out of trouble, her mother thought : "That's an old head on young shoulders."*

- *be too long in the tooth* - a bit too old to do something.

She's a bit long in the tooth for a cabaret dancer, isn't she?

- *old as a Methuselah* - very old (A biblical patriarch said to have lived 969 years)

His grandfather was old like a Methuselah.

9. ***Clothes, tidiness*** - clothes may be tidy or untidy, fit well, be fashionable etc.

- *be a bad fit* - when something doesn’t suit someone

Her new dress was a bad fit.

- *down at heel* - A person who is down-at-heel is someone whose appearance is untidy or neglected because of lack of money[[20]](#footnote-21).

The down-at-heel student I first met became a successful writer.

10. ***Health*** - state of one’s health.

- *like death warmed up* - you look very ill or tired.

My boss told me to go home. He said I looked like death warmed up.

- *full of beans* - active and healthy.

He may be getting old but he's still full of beans.

- *full of piss and vinegar*- very lively, healthy, boisterous or full of youthful vitality.

I had to look after a group of kids full of piss and vinegar.

The most common classification of English phraseological units is thematic. In the framework of different scholars have identified the meaning by semantic composition of phraseology . This report examines the significance of phraseology with the component of a person's appearance.

The problem of a person's appearance is not particularly difficult, because the very concept of "appearance" is interpreted relatively unique in dictionaries and references. So, by definition, S.I. Ozhegova "Appearance - 1) the appearance of something; 2) the outer shape of the person .

On the other hand, a person's appearance is quite complex and offer the formation of a system of elements that can be identified by visual learning object. Moreover, a person's appearance should be attributed not only the elements that make up the physical type of person - the sex (as pretty as a picture - писанаякрасавица), age (as green as gooseberry - молодой, оченьнеопытный), figure (a bag of bones - костямигремит, оченьхудой) , and anatomical features of the outer structure of the human body, but also functional features: posture, gait (it is a good horse that never stumbles - коньначетырехногах, итотспотыкается), habits, behavior (be on one's best behaviour - вестисебяпримерно). Phraseological units characterizing a person's appearance, also can be attributed to the manner of dressing (dressed up up to the nines - разодетыйвпухипрах).

There are examples of phraseology describing some aspects of a person's appearance:

**About attractive appearance:** as pretty as a picture; look like a million dollars - картинка; писанаякрасавица. **About ugly appearance:** as ugly as a sin; a missing link - никожинирожи; кошкадраная. **About a fat man**: a mountain of flesh; as fat as a pig - лопатьсяот (с) жиру; поперексебявтолще; вдверьнепроходит. **About a thin man**: as lean as a rake; a bag of bones - костямигремит; живые (ходячие) мощи. **About a tall man:** ringtail snorted (высокийпарень, верзила); built like a brick - коломенскаяверста; каланчапожарная. **About a low, short stature**: knee-high to a duck; Tom Thumb - отгоршкадвавершка; корочеворобьиногоноса; сноготок[[21]](#footnote-22).

Thus, in the analysis of a person's appearance using phraseological units should take into account all the characteristics of the external appearance of the person: sex, age, physique, gait, etc. These idioms are quite diverse in its lexical composition and structure and can have positive and negative evaluative component. Most of them are adjectival (ie having a key element of an adjective) and substantive (having the main element of a noun). This situation is quite explained by the large descriptive potential of these parts of speech. As a result, idioms become more meaningful and expressive.

#### Tosumup,appearanceofpeopleplays a greatroleincreatingidioms. On the contrary to the classical dictionaries, where phraseological units are combined accordingly to the word used in the construction of it, but not due to the object described, here you may find phraseological units describing human appearance selected especially for the topic. Such approach may be very useful while studing the theme “human appearance”. Because idioms which include, for example, a word denoting the part of the body not always describes the human appearance but even has absolutely different meaning :*a painintheneck*- youcansaysomeoneis a painintheneckiftheyannoyyou, orsomethingis a painintheneckifyoudon'tlikedoingit; a headstart - Ifyouhave a headstart, youstartsomethingaheadofothersorwithanadvantageoverothers.

**2.2 . Derivational means for describing human appearance**

In English object properties such as color, size, texture and other physical attributes can be described with adjectives. We will consider human appearance and nature features exemplified by English adjectives. The thing is the compound adjectives express the object's properties more exactly. In the paragraph the ways how these adjectives are formed and their meanings are under consideration.

The vocabulary of any language is renewed in two ways: words can be plagerized from the other languages, or created on determined patterns from available in language components. The other group is renewed and continues to be renewed by word-formation. The word- formation more directly than other linguistic systems reflects all changes occurring in surrounding us reality.

This paragraph is devoted to the study of the person's appearance and nature features exemplified by English compound and derived adjectives. As actual material the examples from fiction sources and dictionaries were used. Our purpose is to distinguish the ways of the adjectives word-formation and classify them semantically. We also try to identify the most productive models of the given adjectives.

The most productive way of the compound adjectives formation is the complex of affixation and word- combination.

In these adjectives it is the suffix that forms a word (big-head-ed, kind-heart-ed) and two bases are combined: an adjective and a noun (big+ head, kind + heart).

The bases participating in word-formation can be root, complex or derived. Some complex adjectives are formed by combining two root bases (coal-black "black as coal", snow-white "white as snow" and etc.) A compound adjective is a modifier of a noun. It consists of two or more morphemes of which the left-hand component limits or changes the modification of the right-hand one.

The complex adjectives are also formed as a result of adding root and derived bases (sandy-haired "with hair of the sand colour", round-faced "with a round face " and etc.) and are equivalent to the word combinations (blear-eyed (with blear eyes); big-headed (with a big head) and etc.).

English suffix -ed derives adjectives with the general meaning 'having X, being provided with X'. It can be combined only with the nouns bases. The majority of derivatives cannot be divided to the components as they have the phraseological meaning (empty-headed, pig- headed, air-minded, fair-minded, broad-minded, pig- headed).

We came to the conclusion that most compound adjectives with the suffix —ed can be formed to describe person's appearance and character.

*Two other youths, oblique-eyed, dark-haired, rather sly-faced...[[22]](#footnote-23)*.

For person's appearance description the component *-headed* is used*(black-headed, grey-headed, white- headed red-headed, shockheaded)* as well as the component *-haired (short-haired, long-haired, grey- haired* in the meaning *"having some kind of hair" (colour, length )*).

But the component -headed in the combination with a simple adjective has formed a number of derived adjectives with the metaphorical meaning (clear-headed, bright-headed, steady-headed, fuzzy-headed, wooly- headed, fat-headed empty-headed, thick-headed, wooden-headed, boneheaded, light-headed). With the help of these adjectives person's intelligence is shown.

*She was Annie, a pretty, voluptuous, empty-headed girl*...[[23]](#footnote-24).

*Get up, you fat-headed chunk![[24]](#footnote-25)* .

As it is seen from the examples these adjectives are used in the informal style and they make the speech more expressive.

Another group of derivatives describing person's appearance is formed by the adjectives having the meanings "the shape of the face" (moon-faced, pug-faced, round-faced), "the skin of the face" (smooth-faced).

The point is some adjectives have metaphorical meanings. For example the compound adjective red- headed has two different meanings: 1) having red hair or a red head; 2) excitable, impetuous; hot-tempered (about person's character).

Another example:

*This red blue-eyed, light-lashed, tow-haired face stuck...*

The adjective *blue-eyed* can be referred as: 1. *having blue eyes; 2. favored, preferred (the blue-eyed boy can do no wrong)*.

So the first meaning is direct and the second is an indirect one.

There are some well-established permanent compound adjectives with phraseological meanings which cannot be equivalent to the word-combinations (squint- eyed, silver-tongued, hard-mouthed, starry-eyed). Though these adjectives include the components -eyed, -mouthed they are not to define person's appearance but the character.

Having done the analysis of compound and derived adjectives exemplifying person's appearance we can say that most adjectives have been formed as a result of the word-combination and the derivation (affixation).

Some of the adjectives can be freely derived in the speech and their meanings are equivalent to the word-combinations ones. But there are a number of adjectives with the phraseological meanings which cannot be divided to the components and such derivatives are usually fixed by dictionaries (hard-mouthed, starry-eyed).

As a result of our investigation we came to the conclusion that the most productive model of the given adjectives word-formation is the model of simultaneous word-composition and affixation. The first component in the derivatives can be an adjective or a noun: adj. (n) + n + ed (black-haired, kind-heart-ed) and (raven-hair-ed, chicken-hearted). The second component is a based unit represented by a noun.

The role of the noun as the left-hand component is the comparison with the word that gives associations and defines a correlative sign (raven-hair-ed with the meaning "having black hair as a raven"). Such comparatives are common for informal use and they have metaphorical meanings.

We have seen that words can be composed of smaller meaningful elements and we have detected these elements largely by following our intuition. While our intuition works nicely with rather unproblematic complex adjectives we found it possible to determine the rules that underlie the make - up of complex words in English. For example, if a speaker knows the meaning of the right-hand component of the adjective represented by a noun and the suffix -ed the meaning of the compound adjective can be easily identified, even if we have never seen that word before. So there must be some kind of system in the speakers' minds that is responsible for that.

**2.3 .Principles of semantic analysis of words describing human appearance**

Words can be classified in various ways. Here, however, we are concerned only with the semantic classification of words. Classification into monosemantic and polysemantic words is based on the number of meanings the word possesses. More detailed semantic classifications are generally based on the semantic similarity (or polarity) of words or their component morphemes. The scope and the degree of similarity (polarity) may be different.

Words may be classified **according to the concepts** underlying their meaning. This classification is closely connected with the theory of conceptual or semantic fields. By the term “semantic fields” we understand closely knit sectors of vocabulary each characterised by a common concept. For example, the *young, middle-aged, elderly, old, in his/her 30’s*etc. may be described as making up the semantic field of human age, the words *pale, sunburned/ sunburnt,  tanned, olive-skinned, fair-skinned, oriental , brown, black*etc. — as members of the semantic fieldof human complexion terms, the words *thin, slim, skinny, plump*, etc. asbelonging to the fieldof human built, and so on.

The members of the semantic fields are not synonyms but all of them are joined together by some common semantic component — the concept of human age or the concept of human built, etc. This semantic component common to all the members of the field is sometimes 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 is semantically delimited and determined by them. It follows that the word meaning is largely determined by the place it occupies in its semantic field.

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 units making up these lexical groups. Any of the semantic components may be chosen to represent the group. For example, the word ***blue-stocking*** –may be analysed into the semantic components ‘human’, ‘female’, ‘professional’. Consequently the word ***blue-stocking***may be included into a lexico-semantic group under the heading of **human** together with the words **man, woman, boy, girl,** etc. and under the heading **female** with the *words* **girl, wife, woman** and also together with the words **teacher, pilot, butcher,** etc., as **professionals.**

It should also be pointed out that different meanings of polysemantic words make it possible to refer the same word to different lexico-semantic groups. Thus, e.g. **fat** in the meaning of ‘having a lot of flesh on the body’ is naturally a member of the same lexico-semantic group as the words **oil, large** etc , whereas in the meaning of **hand** it is regarded as a member of a different lexico-semantic group made up by the nouns **person, control, writing, clap,** etc.

Another way to describe hyponymy is in terms of genus and differential.

The more specific term is called thehyponym of the more general, and the more general is called thehyperonymor the classifier.

It is noteworthy that the principle of such hierarchical classification is widely used by scientists in various fields of research: botany, geology, etc. Hyponymic classification may be viewed as objectively reflecting the structure of vocabulary and is considered by many linguists as one of the most important principles for the description of meaning

Another approach to the classification of vocabulary items into lexico-semantic groups is the study of **hyponymic relations** between words. By hyponymy is meant a semantic relationship of inclusion. Thus, e.g., **hair** includes *abundant, ash-blonde , auburn, bald / bald-headed, bobbed / shingled, braids / plaits*and so on;*well-fed, bony, paunchy, slim, plump, slender, stocky* implies **figure;.** Thus the hyponymic relationship may be viewed as the hierarchical relationship between the meaning of the general and the individual terms.The general term **(hair, figure**, etc.) is sometimes referred to as the classifier and serves to describe the lexico-semantic groups, e.g.

Lexico-semantic groups (LSG) of hair styles, human figure, etcLexical units may also be classified by the criterion of **semantic similarity and semantic contrasts.** The terms generally used to denote these two types of semantic relatedness are synonymy and antonymy.

Synonymy is often understood as semantic equivalence. Semantic equivalence however can exist between words and word-groups, word-groups and sentences, sentences and sentences. For example, **John is more cute than Bill** is semantically equivalent to **Bill is plain than John.** may be considered semantically equivalent.

As can be seen from the above these sentences are paraphrases and denote the same event. Semantic equivalence may be observed on the level of word-groups, Thus we may say that **adorable creature** is synonymous with **lovely woman,** etc.

Here we proceed from the assumption that the terms synonymy and synonyms should be confined to semantic relation between words only. Similar relations between word-groups and sentences are described as semantic equivalence.

In the discussion of polysemy and context we have seen that one of the ways of discriminating between different meanings of a word is the interpretation of these meanings in terms of their synonyms, e.g. the two meanings of the adjective **handsome** are synonymously interpreted as **handsome** — ‘beautiful’ (usually about men) and **handsome — ‘**considerable, ample’ (about sums, sizes, etc.).

Secondly, it seems impossible to speak of identity or similarity of lexical meaning as a whоle as it is only the denotational component that may be described as identical or similar. If we analysewords that are usually considered synonymous[[25]](#footnote-26), e.g. **chubby**, **husky** or **heavyset** ,**plump** or **curvy** **,** etc., we find that the connotational component or, to be more exact, the stylistic reference of these words is entirely different and it is only the similarity of the denotational meaning that makes them synonymous. The words, e.g. **plump, skinny, cute,** etc., may be considered identical as to their stylistic reference or emotive charge, but as there is no similarity of denotational meaning they are never felt as synonymous words.

Thirdly, it does not seem possible to speak of identity of meaning as a criterion of synonymity since identity of meaning is very rare even among monosemantic words. In fact, cases of complete synonymy are very few and are, as a rule, confined to technical nomenclatures where we can find monosemantic terms completely identical in meaning as, for example, **spirant** and **fricative** in phonetics. Words in synonymic sets are in general differentiated because of some element of opposition in each member of the set. The word **handsome,** e.g., is distinguished from its synonym **beautiful** mainly because the former implies the beauty of a male person or broadly speaking only of human beings, whereas **beautiful** is opposed to it as having no such restrictions in its meaning.

Thus it seems necessary to modify the traditional definition and to formulate it as follows: synonyms are words different in sound-form but similar in their denotational meaning or meanings. Synonymous relationship is observed only between similar denotational meanings of phonemically different words.

Differentiation of synonyms may be observed in different semantic components — denotational or connotational.

Thus a more acceptable definition of synonyms seems to be the following: synonymsarewordsdifferent in their sound-form, but similar in theirdenotationalmeaning or meaningsandinterchangeable at least in somecontexts.

Antonymy in general shares many features typical of synonymy. Like synonyms, perfect or complete antonyms are fairly rare.It is usual to find the relations of antonymy restricted to certain contexts. Thus **thick** is only one of the antonyms of **thin** (a thin slice—a thick slice), another is **fat (a thin man—a fat man).**The definition of antonyms as words characterised by semantic polarity or opposite meaning is open to criticism on the points discussed already in connection with synonymy. It is also evident that the term oppositemeaning is rather vague and allows of essentially different interpretation.

If we compare the meaning of the words **kind — ‘**gentle, friendly, showing love, sympathy or thought for others’ and **cruel** — ‘taking pleasure in giving pain to others, without mercy’, we see that they denote concepts that are felt as completely opposed to each other. Comparing the adjective **kind** and **unkind** we do not find any polarity of meaning as here semantic opposition is confined to simple negation. **Unkind** may be interpreted as **not kind** which does not necessarily mean **cruel,** just as **not beautiful** does not necessarily mean **ugly.**

It is more or less universally recognised that among the cases that are traditionally described as contradictories which represent the type of semantic relations that exist between pairs like **cute** and **ugly, underweight** and **overweight, perfect** and **imperfect,** etc.

To use one of the terms is to contradict the other and to use **not** before one of them is to make it semantically equivalent to the other, cf. **not fat=slim, not curly=straight.**

Among contradictories we find a subgroup of words of the type **young — old, big — small,** and so on. The difference between these and the antonymic pairs described above lies in the fact that to say **not young** is not necessarily to say **old.** In fact terms like **young** and **old, big** and **small** or **few** and **many** do not represent absolute values. To use one of the terms is to imply comparison with some norm: **young** means ‘relatively young’. We can say **She is young but she is older than her sister. To be older** does not mean ‘to be old’.

It is also usual for one member of each pair to always function as the unmarked or generic term for the common quality involved in both members: **age,** size, etc.This generalised denotational meaning comes to the fore in certain contexts. When we ask **How old is the baby?** we do not imply that the baby is old. The question **How big is it?** may be answered by **It is very big** or **It is very small.**

It is of interest to note that quality nouns such as **length, breadth, width, thickness,** etc. also are generic, i.e. they cover the entire measurement range while the corresponding antonymous nouns **shortness, narrowness, thinness** apply only to one of the extremes[[26]](#footnote-27).

We know that polysemy may be analysed through synonymy. For example, different meaning of the polysemantic word **handsome** can be singled out by means of synonymic substitution a **handsome man—a beautiful man;** but a **handsome reward—**a **generous reward. In** some cases polysemy may be also analysed through antonymy (e.g. **a handsome man**—**an ugly man, a handsome reward—an insufficient reward,** etc.). This is naturally not to say that the number of meanings of a polysemantic word is equal to the number of its antonyms. Not all words or all meanings have antonyms (e.g. **face, eyes,** etc. have no antonyms). In some cases, however, antonymy and synonymy serve to differentiate the meanings as in the word **handsome** discussed above. Interchangeability in certain contexts analysed in connection with synonyms is typical of antonyms as well.

So classification of vocabulary into thematic groups is based on common contextual associations. Contextual associations are formed as a result of regular co-occurrence of words in similar, repeatedly used contexts within the framework of sentences.

The main criterion underlying semantic classification of vocabulary items on the paradigmatic axis is the type of meaning relationship between words.

The criterion of common concept serves to classify words into semantic fields and lexico-semantic groups.

**CHAPTER THREE. METHODS OF TEACHING ENGLISH VOCABULARY**

**3.1. Language teaching methods**

Europe and Asia have had a long tradition of teaching and learning foreign languages. Memorization of vocabulary and translation of sentences often formed the major part of such learning processes in the past. Ancient languages such as Sanskrit and Pali were mastered in Asia through the process of memorization of texts and vocabulary lists. Learning vocabulary lists indeed formed the core of language learning.

The progress of Reformation in Europe brought within its wake change in methods of learning foreign and classical languages. While writing paradigms for individual verbs continued to be emphasized, teachers began to focus more on oral aspects of language. Until then learning a language was synonymous with learning the written language.

Two scholars during the progress of Reformation stood out as distinguished contributors for the change of language teaching methods: Erasmus and Comenius.

Erasmus, a contemporary of Martin Luther, in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, argued that speaking the foreign language should begin early in one’s attempt in learning it. Good and understandable oral communication, he said, was the important thing to master. Next in importance was reading, and, then, writing came at last[[27]](#footnote-28).

Erasmus wanted that we learn the language through exposure to interesting and practical conversations and stories accompanied by visuals such as picture. Note that this is still one of the cornerstones of current thinking on teaching foreign/second language. In addition, Erasmus suggested several rhetorical exercises which focused on “transforming verse into prose, imitating the style of a prominent writer, translating, or recasting propositions in various forms.”

Currently these types of exercises are not favored in teaching and learning languages. These are good exercises, no doubt, but are more useful in teaching literature, or more appropriately, teaching writing of literary pieces. Presently we do make a distinction between learning language and literature. We may learn a language in order to study the literature written in it. But learning a language need not be necessarily done through studying its literature.

The contribution of Comenius to modern secular education is enormous. His thoughts on methods of teaching languages had influenced generations of European teachers. He wanted a graded presentation of sentence structures. He insisted that grammar should be taught through an inductive approach, by giving many examples of the same sentence type, so that the pupils would understand and master the structures. He insisted that the understanding of the content, and mastery of linguistic forms must proceed on parallel lines. In other words, he recommended that we do not introduce a content topic, if, for the understanding and expression of which, the pupils do not yet have some parallel linguistic mastery in the language they are learning.

Comenius recommended that new words be introduced to the pupils with the visuals of objects or phenomena they represented. He asserted that “words should not be learned apart from the objects to which they refer. Comenius held that the subject matter of lessons should have appeal to pupils, that modern languages should have priority over classical languages, that language should be learned by practice rather than by rules (though rules were seen as complementing practice), and that the subject matter of initial exercises should already be familiar to pupils” In subsequent centuries several methods came to be used.

Language teaching methods.

Grammar-Translation. “This method emphasizes reading, writing, translation, and the conscious learning of grammatical rules. Its primary goal is to develop literary mastery of the second language. Memorization is the main learning strategy and pupils spend their class time talking about the language instead of talking in the language. The curriculum requires the memorization of paradigms, patterns, and vocabulary, with translation being used to test the acquired knowledge. Consequently, the role of L1 (that is, mother tongue or native language) is quite prominent”.

The Natural Method. “Since children learn naturally to speak before they read, racy (should) precede literacy and that receptive skills precede productive ones. Proponents of the method tended to avoid the use of books in class . . . Like the child in his home, the pupil was to be immersed in language and allowed to formulate his own generalizations . . . it consists of a series of monologues by the teacher, interspersed with exchanges of question and answer between instructor and pupil—all in the foreign language . . . A great deal of pantomime accompanies the talk. With the aid of gesticulation, by attentive listening, and by dint of repetition, the beginner comes to associate certain acts and objects with certain combinations of sound, and finally reaches the point of reproducing the foreign words or phrases . . . The mother tongue is strictly banished”

The Phonetic Method. This method emphasized “oral expression as the basis of instruction, stressing pronunciation, avoiding grammatical rule giving, and seeking to impart a practical mastery of language forms for use in-country; cultural information was also provided. The teacher would read a passage aloud, explaining unfamiliar words as pupils followed along. After discussing questions on the passage, pupils would paraphrase the story aloud. Next would come written answers to questions, phonetic work on new words, and ultimately recitation. Gestures, pictures, and interesting contexts were to be used in making applications of familiar material. Graded reading would come later.” This method demanded “heavy requirements for linguistic expertise on the part of the teachers.”

Teaching of receptive skills (listening and reading) rather than teaching of productive skills (speaking and writing) was encouraged as the first step. Contrastive analysis of the native language of the learner with the target language was done. Teachers were required to have a good knowledge of the phonetics of the language they teach, but they would use it to teach pronunciation and not phonetics. This method was indeed an extension of the Natural Method, with greater emphasis on and sophistication of knowledge of linguistics[[28]](#footnote-29).

The Audiolingual Method. The audio lingual method in some sense represents a return to the direct method, as its main goal is to develop native-like speaking ability in its learners. It is an extension as well as a refinement of the Direct Method. Translation and reference to L1 are not permitted. Underlying this approach, however, is the notion that “L2 learning should be regarded as a mechanistic process of habit formation . . . Audio-lingual learning comprises dialogue memorization and pattern drills, thus ensuring careful control of responses. None of the drills or patterns are to be explained, since knowledge of grammatical rules would only obstruct the mechanical formation of habits.”

“Just as the Direct Method was an extension of the Natural Method, so Audiolingualism had its theoretical roots in the Direct Method.” The Audio-lingual method used exhaustively the linguistic structures identified in the descriptive analysis of the target language. It resulted in carefully prepared materials. It was skill oriented, with a practical emphasis on racy. “It provided contextualized language practice in true-to-life situations including dialogue. It provided a wide variety of activities to help maintain interest, and it made extensive use of visuals. It arranged for abundant practice, although “the grammar-based Audio-lingual approach moved cautiously from supposedly simple to more and more linguistically complex features, often without adequate consideration for what might be needed in everyday situations.”

Some of the things which led to the spread and success of this method in this century include: Greater allotment of time, smaller classes, greater emphasis on oral-aural practice which led to automatic production of sentences repeated or in the internalization of sentence structures through repetition and inductive generalization, the structural description and gradation of sentence and other linguistic utterances presented to the pupils for drill, contrastive analysis between the structures of the native and target languages, and careful preparation and presentation of learning materials based on all these.

Communicative Language Teaching. This approach argues that “merely knowing how to produce a grammatically correct sentence is not enough. A communicatively competent person must also know how to produce an appropriate, natural, and socially acceptable utterance in all contexts of communication. ‘Hey, buddy, you fix my car!’ is grammatically correct but not as effective in most social contexts as ‘Excuse me, sir, I was wondering whether I could have my car fixed today . . . (Communicative competence) includes having a grammatical knowledge of the system, . . . knowledge of the appropriateness of language use . . . (such as) socio cultural knowledge, paralinguistic (facial and gestural) and proxemic (spatial) knowledge, and sensitivity to the level of language use in certain situations and relationships.

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Language teaching methods

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**3.2.Teaching ways of vocabulary in the context belonging human appearance**

Learning is one of the primary activities of students in the classroom. Successful learning is only on the right way to lead the process. Good learning atmosphere and method can guide the pupils to learn more and meaningful. To accomplish such condition, teachers must create varitype and attractive methods for the class. What should a teacher do if their pupils get bored? Using variety activities can be alternative solution to handle this problem. Games, pictures as a matter of fact, can help and encourage many pupils to sustain their interest and work. By this paper, we want to share experiences about “how to teach English vocabulary using range of activities”.

There is a common perception that all learning should be serious and solemn in nature and that if one is having fun and there is hilarity and laughter, then it is not really learning. This is a misconception. It is possible to learn a language as well as enjoy oneself at the same time. One of the best ways of doing this is through games. Games can help the teachers to create contexts in which the language is useful and meaningful. In the whole process of teaching and learning by games, the pupils can take part widely and open-mindedly. To win the games each pupil or group should competitively answer the questions addressed by the teacher or other pupils or groups. In order to do so they must understand what the teacher or others are saying or have written, and they must speak or write in order to express their own point of view or give information The English instruction in elementary school is intended to endorse the mastery and development of the four basic abilities and skills. Those are reading, writing, speaking and listening as reflected in abilities and skill concerning language use so that the pupils are able to express simple expression with emphasis our vocabulary mastery in order to avoid to vocabulary infraction and attain better out comes, the teacher should choose an appropriate teaching method, which is suitable with subject matter in teaching learning process. The need to use various instructional media will be able to help pupils to increase their English vocabulary. Teaching vocabulary is clearly more than just presenting new words. It also includes decision that words should teach the basic of how frequent they are used by speaker of the language. The words are most commonly used are those a teacher should teach first. But commonly and usually the way of teaching makes the pupils lazy and bored. The teacher needs something different to make pupils interested, mostly children, because they are very easy to get bored. Therefore, teacher needs something interesting which can make motivate them. It is based on the characteristics and attitude of the children that they are curious and often seeks something that the teacher notices them and shows appreciation for. As an example we applied the following activities in teaching vocabulary for elementary level of university students, for instance;

Pre-teaching lexis

The teacher may select some activities specifically designed to revise, teach and practice vocabularies before moving on to work on the text or recording. The lexis selected for teaching is likely to be that most needed for completion of whatever listening or reading tasks are to be set. Although this is usually called pre- teaching, remember that this work may be helping students to recall items they already know as much as introducing new items. The main aim is to help ensure that the following activity will work (because there will be fewer stumbling blocks of unknown lexical items). This work may, of course, also teach or revise some lexis that may be useful in its own right.

**To sum up** we want to say that teaching vocabulary is clearly more than just presenting new words. Because a large vocabulary is extremely important for understanding and communication. A major aim of teaching vocabulary is to help students to gain a large vocabulary of useful words. David Cross stated two ways of presenting vocabulary:

First is teacher can showthe meaning in some way;

Second is teacher can use language that the students already know in order to make clear the meaning of the new lexical items.

In developing an effective classroom atmosphere, a teacher can take several different paths to achieve a positive motivational outcome. The needs of the class will vary from year to year and grade to grade, but a successful classroom will have an atmosphere that is safe, comfortable for both the teacher and the students and it will have a physical setup that will be conducive to the class activities and the teaching style.

**3.3.The study of lexical system in present-day lexicology.**

It has been claimed by different authors that, in contrast to grammar, the vocabulary of a language is not systematic but chaotic. In the light of recent investigations in linguistic theory, however, we are now in a position to bring some order into this “chaos”.

Lexicology studies the recurrent patterns of semantic relationships, and of any formal phonological, morphological or contextual means by which they may be rendered. It aims at systematisation.

There has been much discussion of late, both in this country and abroad, concerning different problems of the systematic nature of the language vocabulary. The Soviet scholars are now approaching a satisfactory solution based on Marxist dialectics and its teaching of the general interrelation and interdependence of phenomena in nature and society.

There are several important points to be made here.

The term system as used in present-day lexicology denotes not merely the sum total of English words, it denotes a set of elements associated and functioning together according to certain laws. It is a coherent homogeneous whole, constituted by interdependent elements of the same order related in certain specific ways. The vocabulary of a language is moreover an adaptivesystem constantly adjusting itself to the changing requirements and conditions of human communications and cultural surroundings. It is continually developing by overcoming contradictions between its state and the new tasks and demands it has to meet.

A set is described in the abstract set theory as a collection of definite distinct objects to be conceived as a whole. A set is said to be a collection of distinct elements, because a certain object may be distinguished from the other elements in a set, but there is no possibility of its repeated appearance. A set is called structured when the number of its elements is greater than the number of rules according to which these elements may be constructed. A set is given either by indicating, i.e. listing, all its elements, or by stating the characteristic property of its elements. For example the closed set of English articles may be defined as comprising the elements: *the, a/an* and*zero.* The set of English compounds on the other hand is an infinite (open) set containing all the words consisting of at least two stems which occur in the language as free forms.

In a classical set theory the elements are said to be definite because with respect to any of them it should be definite whether it belongs to a given set or not. The new development in the set theory, that of fuzzy sets, has proved to be more relevant to the study of vocabulary. We have already mentioned that the boundaries of linguistic sets are not sharply delineated and the sets themselves overlapping.

The lexical system of every epoch contains productive elements typical of this particular period, others that are obsolete and dropping out of usage, and, finally, some new phenomena, significant marks of new trends for the epochs to come. The present status of a system is an abstraction, a sort of scientific fiction which in some points can facilitate linguistic study, but the actual system of the language is in a state of constant change.

Lexicology studies this whole by determining the properties of its elements and the different relationships of contrast and similarity existing between them within a language, as well as the ways in which they are influenced by extra-linguistic reality.

The extra-linguistic relationships refer to the connections of words with the elements of objective reality they serve to denote, and their dependence on the social, The notions rendered in the meanings of the words are generalised reflections of real objects and phenomena. In this light it is easy to understand how things that are connected in reality come to be connected in language too. As we have seen above, the original meaning of the word *post* was ‘a man stationed in a number of others along a road as a courier’, hence it came to mean the vehicle used, the packets and letters carried, a relay of horses, the station where horses could be obtained (shortened for *post-office),* a single dispatch of letters. E. g.: *It is a place with only one post a day* (Sidney Smith). It is also used as a title for newspapers. There is a verb *post* ‘to put letters into a letter-box.'

The reflection of objective reality is selective. That is, human thought and language select, reflect and nominate what is relevant to human activity.

Even though its elements are concrete and can be observed as such, a system is always abstract, and so is the vocabulary system or, as Academician V.V. Vinogradov[[30]](#footnote-31) has called it, the lexico-semantic system. The interdependence in this system results from a complex interaction of words in their lexical meanings and the grammatical features of the language. V.V. Vinogradov[[31]](#footnote-32) includes in this term both the sum total of words and expressions and the derivational and functional patterns of word forms and word-groups, semantic groupings and relationships between words. The interaction of various levels in the language system may be illustrated in English by the following: the widespread development of homonymy and polysemy, the loss of motivation, the great number of generic words and the very limited autonomy of English words as compared with Russian words are all closely connected with the mono-morphemic analytical character of the English language and the scarcity of morphological means. All these in their turn result, partly at least, from levelling and loss of endings, processes undoubtedly connected with the reduction of vowels in unstressed syllables.

The term sуstem as applied to vocabulary should not be understood to mean a well-defined or rigid system. As it has been stated above it is an adaptive system and cannot be completely and exactly characterised by deterministic functions; that is for the present state of science it *is* not possible to specify the system’s entire future by its status at some one instant of its operation. In other words, the vocabulary is not simply a probabilistic system but a set of interrelated adaptive subsystems.

An approximation is always made possible by leaving some things out of account. But we have to remember that the rules of language are mostly analogies.

The following simple example offered by J. Lyons illustrates this point: the regular, that is statistically predominant, pattern for adjective stems is to form abstract nouns by means of the suffix *-ness: shortness, narrowness, shallowness.* All the antonyms of the above-mentioned words, however, follow a different pattern: they have a dental suffix: *length, width, depth.* This second analogy becomes a constraint on the working of the first. Moreover, the relationship of the adjective *big* with the rest of the system is even more unpredictable, as it is mostly correlated with the noun *size.* The semantic correlation then is as follows:

*short-narrow -shallow-long -wide - deep -big shortness narrowness shallowness length width depth size[[32]](#footnote-33)*

At this point it will be helpful to remember that it is precisely the most frequent words that show irregular or suppletive derivation and inflection.

Last but not least, one final point may be made about the lexical system, namely that its elements are characterised by their combinatorial and contrastive properties determining their syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships. A word enters into syntagmatic (linear) combinatorial relationships with other lexical units that can form its context, serving to identify and distinguish its meaning. Lexical units are known to be context-dependent. E. g. in *the hat on her head* the noun *head* means ‘part of the body’, whereas in *the head of the department Head* means ‘chief. A word enters into contrastive paradigmatic relations with all other words, e. g. *head, chief, director,* etc. that can occur in the same context and be contrasted to it. This principle of contrast or opposition is fundamental in modern linguistics and we shall deal with theory of oppositions[[33]](#footnote-34).

Paradigmatic and syntagmatic studies of meaning are functionalbecause the meaning of the lexical unit is studied first not through its relation to referent but through its functions in relation to other units.

Functional approach is contrasted to referential or onomasiological approach, otherwise called theory of nomination, in which meaning is studied as the interdependence between words and their referents, that is things or concepts they name, i.e. various names given to the same sense. The onomasiological study of lexical units became especially prominent in the last two decades. The revival of interest in onomasiological matters is reflected in a large volume of publications on the subject. An outline of the main trends of current research will be found in the monographs on the Theory of Nomination issued by the Institute of Linguistics of the Academy of Sciences.

The study of the lexical system must also include the study of the words’ combinatorial possibilities of their capacity to combine with one another in groups of certain patterns, which serve to identify meanings. Most modern research in linguistics attaches great importance to what is variously called valency, distributional characteristics, colligation and collocation, combining power or otherwise. This research shows that combinatorial possibilities of words play an important part in almost every lexicological issue.

Syntagmatic relationships being based on the linear character of speech are studied by means of contextual, valency, distributional, transformational and some other types of analysis.

Paradigmatic linguistic relationships determining the vocabulary system are based on the interdependence of words within the vocabulary (synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, etc.)[[34]](#footnote-35).

Diachronically the interdependence of words within the lexical subsystem may be seen by observing shifts in the meaning of existing words that occur when a new word is introduced into their semantic sphere. This interdependence is one of the reasons why historical linguistics can never achieve any valuable results if it observes only the development of isolated words. Almost any change in one word will cause changes in one or several other words. Characteristic examples are to be found in the influence of borrowings upon native words. The native OE *haerfest*(ModE*harvest* /Germ *Herbst)* originally meant not only the gathering of grain’ but also ‘the season for reaping’. Beginning with the end of the 14th century, that is after the Romance word *autumne-autumn* was borrowed, the second meaning in the native word was lost and transferred to the word *autumn.*

When speaking about the influence of other aspects on the development of the vocabulary, we mean the phonetical, morphological and syntactical systems of the English language as they condition the sound form, morphological structure, motivation and meaning of words. This influence is manifold, and we shall have to limit our illustration to the most elementary examples. The monosyllabic phonological type of the English word, for instance, enhances homonymy. Сf. *miss* v ‘not hit’, ‘not catch’ and *miss* n — a title for a girl or unmarried woman.

The influence of morphology is manifest, for instance, in the development of non-affixed word-formation. Eg.:*harvest*n and *harvest* v.

The above considerations are not meant to be exhaustive; they are there to give some general idea of the relationships in question.

In this connection it is necessary to point out that various interpretations of the same linguistic phenomena have repeatedly been offered and have even proved valuable for their respective purposes, just as in other sciences various interpretations may be given for the same facts of reality in conformity with this or that practical task. To be scientific, however, these interpretations cannot be arbitrary: they must explain facts and permit explanation and prediction of other facts. Therefore they must fit without bringing contradictions into the whole system of the theory created for the subject.

**Conclusion**

The lexicology of present – day English, therefore, although having aims of its own, different from those of its historical counterpart, cannot be divorced from the latter. In what follows not only the present status of the English vocabulary is discussed: the description would have been sadly incomplete if did not pay attention to the historical aspect of lexical system of every epoch contains productive elements typical of this particular period, others that are obsolete and dropping out of usage, and finally some new phenomena, significant marcs of new trends for the epoch to come.

Thus, awareness of human value relations is reflected in the value judgments and is enshrined in the language of semantic and syntactic structures. In its structure, vocabulary estimated a person's appearance is divided into certain groups which have certain semantic features.

A special role in a person's appearance evaluative vocabulary plays an expression of the concepts masculinity / femininity, describing a person's appearance. They are critical in the use of evaluative vocabulary in relation to the subject, depending on their sex.

Due to the close relationship between man and the natural world, in the lexical group estimated lexicon has a significant amount phraseological units , which are widely used to refer to both external and internal qualities. In addition, idioms often carry a hidden negative connotation, which is a feature of the use of the language in relation to man.

Interest for the study is reflected in the assessment of semantics as a literary and spoken word. Estimated vocabulary appearance of the person served as an essential feature of each language. In addition, a special relationship has the character of spoken language - the unofficial relations of participants of communication, lack of preparation and the oral nature of the statements, no installation on the official nature of communication - are the cause of the existence and importance of evaluation in the semantics.

Application axiological approach to the analysis of linguistic units enables "penetration" of the closed to direct observation scope mentality. Linguistic axiology is focused on the study of values ​​and ways of their ethnic representation in the language and spiritual culture. The purpose of linguistic research is the reconstruction of axiological value system as a component of ethnic and cultural traditions. The study of the value system makes it possible to identify the ethnic uniqueness of his perception of the world, world perception and world view. A significant part of the culture of any people is realized through its language, and the language in all its richness is fixed primarily in the dictionary. The functional significance of such a system due to the needs of the community: an idea of ​​the value system of a native speaker in no small measure contributes to the development of intercultural "of sensitivity" and mutual understanding in the process of interpersonal communication.

Some of the adjectives can be freely derived in the speech and their meanings are equivalent to the word-combinations ones. But there are a number of adjectives with the phraseological meanings which cannot be divided to the components and such derivatives are usually fixed by dictionaries (hard-mouthed, starry-eyed).

As a result of our investigation we came to the conclusion that the most productive model of the given adjectives word-formation is the model of simultaneous word-composition and affixation. The first component in the derivatives can be an adjective or a noun: adj. (n) + n + ed (black-haired, kind-heart-ed) and (raven-hair-ed, chicken-hearted). The second component is a based unit represented by a noun.

The role of the noun as the left-hand component is the comparison with the word that gives associations and defines a correlative sign (raven-hair-ed with the meaning "having black hair as a raven"). Such comparatives are common for informal use and they have metaphorical meanings.

We have seen that words can be composed of smaller meaningful elements and we have detected these elements largely by following our intuition. While our intuition works nicely with rather unproblematic complex adjectives we found it possible to determine the rules that underlie the make - up of complex words in English. For example, if a speaker knows the meaning of the right-hand component of the adjective represented by a noun and the suffix -ed the meaning of the compound adjective can be easily identified, even if we have never seen that word before. So there must be some kind of system in the speakers' minds that is responsible for that.

As a lexical means for describing human appearance we investigated the most productive types of lexical units, they are compound words and phraseological units.

The most productive type of compound words describing human appearances and character in English language are:

1. Adjectives with the components ***looking:*** *good looking*
2. Solid compounds as N+Adj: lemon-yellow
3. Adj+Adj compounds : dark-blue, grey-white
4. Adj+N+ed compounds : blue eyed
5. Compound words with suffix **- like :** froglike

In this work idioms that describe human appearance are included. It may be described positively or negatively. The list is subgrouped into different groups accordingly to the part of the body described or the state of one’s body or clothes.These idioms are accepted as part of everyday speech and undoubtedly are of great practical value. This paper also includes the observation of main problems in definition of phraseological unit and different approaches to their classification. This can help not to make mistakes in choosing of the idiom and studying it. This knowledge (of slightly difference in terms) gives ability to work not only with native linguistics works but also with foreign manuals and dictionaries. An idiom may be treated as a natural manner of speaking to a native speaker of a language. Therefore, idioms are integral part of language, which make our speech more colourful and authentically native.

My research has produced some evidence, which shows that pictures are useful and more successful than other methods of vocabulary presentation and revision. Having such evidence at hand, I wish to recommend the wide use of pictures with vocabulary work as a successful way of acquiring language competence.

The present material can be used at the lessons of grammar, practical course of English language, lexicology, and speech practice in both Universities and English classes at college. This paper can help to create the teaching aids, textbooks, etc. Teachers and students might use the results of the present work for the further investigations

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