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Syntactic Position of Trivalent Components in a Sentence

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Abstract

In the world of linguistics, scientific research is conducted on the phonological, lexical and semantic layers of language, as well as on the identification of syntactic valence and semantics of syntactic units. There are various approaches to the theory of valence at the syntactic level, which has important significance in linguistics. From this point of view, one of the problems waiting to be solved, namely, the identification of the valence of paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of the structures of English sentences, the analysis of sentences based on syntactic valence and the disclosure of the semantics of syntactic units, as a priority area of linguistics, requires research.

Key Words: *valence, syntactic connection, categories of impersonality, transitivity, intransitivity, monovalent, divalent, trivalent component.*

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I. INTRODUCTION.

The concept of valence has emerged in linguistics relatively recently. The term "Valence" in the modern sense was used by the French linguist L.Tenier to denote the property of verbs to form a structural and semantic center, or a node of relations between the elements of a phrase. This concept was a further development and generalization of some traditional grammatical concepts, such as syntactic connection, control, categories of impersonality, transitivity, and intransitivity. The closest to the concept of valence are the traditional concepts of intransitivity and transitivity. Objectively, it coincides with the concept of control, considered in purely syntactic terms in relation to the formal characteristics of the dependent word. Depending on the syntactic and ultimately lexical content, some verbs show a tendency to object (compatibility with add-ons), while others do not detect it. Based on this, verbs were divided into two large subclasses: transitive and intransitive.

II. METHODS.

The content embedded in the concept of valence is reflected in the choice of a term to denote this concept. If the term "valence" means a certain value of an element, its ability to do something, then even more so the term "intention" is metaphorical, attributing to the verb something similar to a conscious intention, a conscious orientation. The terms "management" (not in the traditional sense) and "leadership" reflect the syntactically active role of the dominant elements of syntactic structures. Finally, the term "configuration" does not refer to valence, but to the syntactic structures created on its basis.

The scope of the concept of valence was initially relatively narrow (the valence of verbs, an influx only in relation to nouns), later it covered also, the circumstantial and predicative valence of the verb. L. Yelmslev, who uses the term "management" in the appropriate sense, understands it in an extended way and speaks about the management of not only verbs, but also adjectives, adverbs. The property of valence was extended from verbs to other classes of words and received a very wide scope due to the establishment of optional valence along with the necessary valence (in other terminology, "weak management" along with "strong").

The degree of differentiation of the concept of valence is also different. For example, in German linguists, due to the morphological fragmentation of valence groups, their number is much greater than in Tenier. There are other, less important differences between the various theories of valence, but it is more important to note the differences that exist between the categories of valence in general and the categories of traditional linguistics. Such a comparison allows us to reveal what structural linguistics has brought to this area of research.

In relation to traditional linguistics, progress also affects the moments of 1) expanding the scope of the concept (a higher degree of generalization has been achieved) and 2) increasing its internal differentiation.

The increase in volume is due to the inclusion of the subject in the system of valence connections (as a rule, all those

who have written about valence prefer to consider the subject as an element subordinate to the verb center), and b) the inclusion of impersonality in the number of types of verbal valences as its zero variety. Thus, valency covered all the types of verbs and sub-verbal substantive elements that exist in languages. The same concepts as the circumstantial valence of the verb, the valence of other parts of speech, mandatory and optional valence in the linguistics of the past simply did not exist.

A great differentiation was achieved by distinguishing into a special group such an interesting and important variety of verbs as trivalent verbs, which were usually considered in the same group as divalent verbs.

The theory of valences turned out to be an important step in highlighting the issues of syntactic properties of parts of speech, the construction of syntactic combinations, phrases. A single criterion was introduced to identify and evaluate the syntactic (semantic) capabilities of the verb, in part-and other parts of speech.

The peculiarity of the most coherent of the modern theories of valence is that they are based on a strict distinction between syntactic, semantic and morphological points of view and consistently consider valence as an essentially syntactic phenomenon in the distraction from both the external morphological designation of valence bonds (traditional management) and from semantic restrictions caused by the lexical content of the verb. Thus, a single typological valency model of the verb can be created, and, consequently,

the structure of the phrase for all languages that have a verb category. Comparing the valence features of semantically homogeneous verbs in different languages allows us to establish the corresponding transformations in the transition from one language to another, which is important for identifying commonalities and specifics of the internal grammatical form of languages, as well as of great importance for translation, including machine translation, and for language learning.

The subject is syntactically assumed by the verb to the same extent as the complement, it is an element of the same level. This is proved by the transformation of the complement into the subject when switching from the active construction to the passive one. The verb-subject relation is just as subordinate as the verb—complement relation.

Valence in general is a property inherent in any element of any system. It is no accident that the term "valency" penetrated into linguistics from chemistry. Thus, non-valent verbs are analogous to "noble gases" such as helium, whose atoms are not able to attach any atom of another substance, that is, they are also non-valent. There may be chemical parallels with the necessary, non-octave, saturated, unsaturated valence, etc. Of course, we are talking about a simple analogy, and there are no less structural discrepancies than similarities.

When talking about the valence of a particular element, it means certain abilities—potency, on the one hand, the need to combine for its

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implementation with other elements - on the other. Therefore, in valence, one should distinguish between the paradigmatic and syntagmatic moments. Valence itself is a potential property of linguistic elements taken outside of syntagmatic relations, but it is a property that is fully revealed only in syntagmatics. If the valence exists in the word outside and before use, then it is still the focus on a particular use is the paradigmatic significance of an element in terms of its syntagmatic potency (potential compatibility, potential distribution). This is the meaning of the word as the basis of its use, the linguistic property underlying speech implementations. Hence, a much broader understanding of valence is possible than even in terms of "necessary" and "optional valence". Valence in the broadest sense is a linguistic significance, a value, but only a syntagmatic one." All other definitions of valence are only special cases of this general definition. In this sense, we can talk about valence, that is, compatibility, potential distribution of phonemes (phonological valence), morphemes (morphological valence), etc.

Before proceeding to lexical and syntactic valence, it is necessary to define the concept of a syntactic element. An indivisible element of the syntactic level is an element that is represented at the morphological level by a word-form, synthetic or analytical. Thus, the indivisible syntactic elements will not only be the synthetic forms of house, house, but analytical: the book, more beautiful, etc.

III. RESULTS.

U.Usmanov defined syntactic valence as follows: regardless of the verb form in a simple sentence, a syntactic unit participating on the basis of one syntactic connection (no matter which part of speech it belongs to) is a monovalent component, a syntactic unit participating on the basis of two syntactic connections is a divalent component, and on the basis of three syntactic connections is a trivalent component.

In the structure of a simple English sentence, syntactic units are considered trivalent when they take part in three syntactic connections. After analyzing the materials collected on the topic, it should be noted that trivalent components perform the function of an application and can have three syntactic connections. According to V. O. Pavlov, if one of these components is explicitly (directly) attached by means of an appositive syntactic connection, then the other two connections manifest themselves implicitly (mediocre). Implicit syntactic connections and their differential syntactic features can be identified by applying different types of transformational method.

Trivalent elements in the position of non-nuclear dependent appositive predicated (NAP1) components. When analyzing such elements in the sentence structure, it was revealed that they explicitly enter into a direct appositive relationship with the nuclear predicate component (NP1 – subjects), as well as indirectly into a nuclear predicative relationship with the nuclear predicate and nuclear predicate (NP2 – predicate). Hence, the non-nuclear appositive predicate

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(NAP1) component is considered trivalent, since it has the property of entering into one appositive and two nuclear predicative bonds. This can be clearly shown by analyzing the following example:

In the sentence Don't you go, Mr. John? Mr. John acts as a non-nuclear appositive predicate (NAP1) component. The integration and component models of this proposal look like this:

	J.M.4	$\underline{NP_1} \cdot \underline{NP_2} \cdot \overline{N}AP_1$ K.M.4
		Pnp Vf S

The syntactic unit Mr. John in this sentence is a trivalent component, and this can be proved using the transformational method:

(4a) Don't you go, Mr. John? → (4a) you are Mr. John.

	J.M.4a	$\underline{NP_1} \cdot \underline{NP_2}$ K.M.4a
		Pnp cS

Thus, as part of this sentence, the Mr. John component in the NAP1 position is explicitly connected by an appositive connection with the syntactic unit you in the nuclear predicate position, and implicitly enters into a nuclear predicative connection. In addition, in order to identify the third implicit nuclear predicative relationship, a type of trans-formation method of changing the position was used and the possibility of swapping the you component in the position of the nuclear predicated (NP1) and Mr. John in the position of the non-nuclear appositive predicated (NAP1) component was revealed:

(4) Don't you go, Mr. John? → (46) Don't Mr. John go?

This proposal as a result of the transformation has become as follows: (4b) Don't Mr. John go?

	J.M.46	$\underline{NP_1} \cdot \underline{NP_2}$ J.M.46
		auxngS Vf

In the study of this question, the linguistic methods of Professor A.M. Mukhin, as well as the views of U. Usmanov, were used.

Trivalent syntactic units in the sentence structure can act in the positions of non-nuclear appositive predicate (NAP1), non-nuclear dependent appositive (NAD), as well as homogeneous dependent non-nuclear predicate (HNDP2) components. The trivalent components at the (NAP1) or (NAP2) position are combined by a double nuclear predicative direct and mediocre appositive coupling. Trivalent non-nuclear appositive dependent (NAD) syntactic units enter into direct appositive, indirect subordinative, and nuclear predicative relationships.

IV. DISICUSSION

Syntactic valence is the valency of a synthetic or analytical word form, resulting from its general grammatical meaning. So, in the verb "to break", you can distinguish between morphological valence (the valence of the prefix, root, ending), lexical (to break a nut, a head, but not water or paper), syntactic: in this case, we do not mean the limited lexical content of the verb, but its general syntactic meaning of the transition process (to break—what).

Syntactic valence - the valence of a given syntactic element as a representative of a grammatical class or subclass. Lexical valence imposes

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certain restrictions on syntactic valence. Thus, we can also talk about the lexical variation of syntactic valence in languages. Syntactic valence with its collateral varieties finds a diverse embodiment at the morphological level in the form of certain methods of formal designation. Control, coordination, and joining can be considered as morphological processes that serve to denote valence bonds. When studying languages in the syntactic aspect, it is necessary to abstract as from both lexical and morphological variation, although using data from the corresponding levels.

V. CONCLUSION

Finally, the valence category includes the concept of impersonality, which has been found to be correlative to the category of intransitivity-transitivity as its zero stage. Impersonal verbs are neither transitive nor intransitive. In the hierarchy of valence bonds, this is the initial, lowest level, where there is not only an object, but also a subject, where the process is even more self-sufficient, than v. intransitive ("subjective") verbs. All the considered categories of traditional grammar have predetermined the appearance of the valence category, which, however, is qualitatively different from the first one and provides an opportunity for a more generalized and, at the same time, differentiated study of the corresponding properties of parts of speech. A comparison of different teachings on valence shows that this concept was used by different linguists 1) with different shades of content; 2) in different volumes; 3) with different degrees of differentiated renunciation. Also, the concept of valence can be extended from the syntactic level to other levels of the language system.

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Pragmatic Functions of Aspectual Events in Publicistic Text

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Abstract

This article examines the text's aspectual semantic sequence of occurrences, which connects all of reality to time. As a result, information—whether explicit or implicit—that the speaker and listeners are sharing the speakers' intended activities has linguistic forms and is crucial for understanding how they are used. The principles of communicative engagement, speech conventions and customs, the viewpoints conveyed by various words, and other factors must all be considered when examining the aspectual semantics of verbs in a text.

Key Words: *aspectualizer, linguistic units, presupposition, pragmatic analysis.*

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Introduction

An essential consideration in analyzing the sentence's exterior structure is the syntactic and grammatical substance of various devices in the text. The functional role of any linguistic unit, its application in the content, and the activation of linguistic units in the communication text in accordance with their purpose are all explained by a pragmatic approach to the examination of individual units in a text. One way to ensure interpersonal interactions in speech is to use a range of phrases and texts. Various linguists have given varied interpretations to this idea of sentence and text. A logical approach is preferred by some, whereas a structural evaluation is made by others. As a result, it has been demonstrated that employing methodically applied analytical techniques in language analysis is successful. It has been demonstrated that these techniques, which include recognizing variances in the semantic representation of predicates and emphasizing minute distinctions between them, produce incredibly positive outcomes. In this instance, it becomes crucial to distinguish between the aspectual semantics of realities as stated in texts, identify the units that provide these semantic distinctions, and ascertain the characteristics of those units that guarantee the text's cohesiveness. The idea is that certain linguistic units serve as presuppositions, while others function as ways of maintaining the text's continuity and yet others serve as auxiliary to the entire meaning that is presented. Individual language components, or entities that provide aspectual meaning, highlight the need of doing independent analysis. This produces textual dependency, where every word used influences the predicate's meaning. Semantic continuity, development, beginning, conclusion, and linguistic mechanisms are identified that offer the connection of events presented from a pragmatic point of view, even if the focus is on the communicated content. Knowledge that is promoted by both the speaker and the listener may be defined as the information that the speaker learns and the message that the speaker wants to get over to the audience. It aids in ascertaining the text's semantics for each expression and the selection of linguistic units appropriate for each phrase. The concepts of pragmatics and semantics should be examined while evaluating logical forms or locating linguistic units that connect the ideas stated in the many sentences that make up a language. These topics are also extensively discussed. While others propose that sentences ("idealized structures") constitute the core of genuine speech [Langacker, 1999], a second group believes that all linguistic tools are acceptable for text analysis [Prince, 1978]. Regarding the examination of written and spoken communication, there are still differences of opinion. When sentences are intended to be connected to the ways words are articulated in that speech, they take the shape of formal or logical structures. Pragmatism governs the determination of the speaker's goal and the audience's interpretation of this goal. It is well acknowledged that

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pragmatic analysis may be used to find generalizations about how to accomplish specific objectives. However, the linguistically established objectives and orientations are closely tied to the fact that some ideas are analyzed in a linked manner [Morgan, 1977; 278]. It makes sense to discuss implicature and context while utilizing a statement. However, the concept of implicature becomes evident when discussing how specific statements affect context. In order to properly characterize the premise and modification of the sentence, it will be required to take into account the contents of the entire paragraph. Here, presupposition serves to indicate how a sentence or sentences are utilized to affect a following sentence, tying each one together in terms of content and, eventually, evaluating the text as a whole. Keenan [Keenan, 1971] specifically refers to sentences in this presupposition role as aspectualizers. Every plate suggests that a certain reality is expressed through the aspectualizers' operations. Sentences that are assessed as aspectualizers are seen to have a direct connection to the verbal operators' content. It should be observed that prepositional phrases typically provide clear temporal evidence of an occurrence. According to G. Mirsanov, the information displayed in information is realized in the representation of event processes based on a particular language system. To do this, balance between lexical and grammatical choices must be maintained. The text's aspect information is kept consistent by this harmony [Mirsanov, 2018; 70–71]. From a practical standpoint, what

matters is that these occurrences are the manifestation of man's creation and the fulfillment of transient realities.

In a presupposition task, sentences can express information in many languages. This disproves the notion that they always function as aspectualizers. The idea is that these verbs can include information about who performs these activities as well as distinct temporal details about occurrences that are examined in a certain context or when suffixes are added. This kind of writing might provide information in many languages. Unrelated information affects aspect content in this scenario as well. Precise analysis can be used to support claims that these forms represent distinct occurrences. To do so, it is necessary to determine if the presuppositions and consequents in a text are dependent on anything other than the aspectualizers found in the same text. As an example: Few writers have published and been damned with quite the ferocity Julie Myerson was back in 2009 for her memoir the lost child. The book, which included descriptions of her 17-year-old son Jake 's cannabis addiction and her painful decision to lock him out of the family home, was debated everywhere from Mumsnet to newspaper opinion pages – "a betrayal of motherhood itself" – and even the house of commons.

Extended family members were door stepped and Jake was approached by a tabloid to sell his story at a time when he was extremely vulnerable. "a little bit of me broke," the novelist says, looking back. She was no longer able to

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drive, and certainly wasn't able to do live radio or TV (she had been a regular commentator on the BBC's News night Review). "It was terrible. My anxiety reached peaks that were just unmanageable. It was so shameful for me. I felt I had brought terrible things on my family through my work." Now she has written another book about parents struggling with a teenager's drug addiction. Narrated by a writer, it is called Nonfiction: A Novel. Why has she returned to a subject that left her so badly scalded? [The Guardian | 21.05.22 | Saturday | 7]

The given excerpt contains narrative material as well as a reference to a journalistic text. "Aspect and temporal units serve to systematically compile a situational sequence in a tablet" [Mirsanov, 2018; 29] in a narrative text. Thus, the predicates in this tablet contained informational substance and served as prepositions in reference to the key occurrences. The predicates were returned, and the tablet debate assured that events connected to each other occurred in time.

In particular, Keenan argues that there are two types of presuppositions in language [Keenan, 1971; 51]. In particular, in communication, if a speaker speaks with the intent to deceive or speaks in jest, he emphasizes that the listener does not need to believe his words. However, it is important to remember that in these cases the listener must believe in the basics or accept the information, and the speaker must behave as if he at least believes or accepts them. In other cases, Keenan argues that tentative statements are being applied that are either wrong, not believed to follow a

straight line of reasoning, or "for the sake of proof" [Keenan, 1971; 51]. Thus, strict "truth" or "belief" can serve as necessary information for acceptable statements.

Presupposition implies that the first of the related sentences conveyed by the speaker serves as the introduction or main source for subsequent sentences. In this case, the sentences in the following sequence are sentences that present the original facts. This is equivalent to "prior knowledge", which is to be distinguished from the antecedent conditions that exist (or are taken to exist) for the proposition to be believed, accepted or true and to be said. Although this is an unconventional distinction, it is seen as a phenomenon that characterizes the speaker's knowledge of the information he is presenting. At the same time, the speaker's and listener's knowledge of information determines which word is acceptable and which is not. For example: The "we" he's talking about is one of his firms, Cassava Technologies, which is based in London. Its subsidiary, Liquid Intelligent Technologies, has dug more than 60,000 miles of trenches alongside potholed highways and dust roads from South Africa through the whole of sub-Saharan Africa to Egypt. More than 10,000 African telecoms companies and large businesses in more than 20 countries rent bandwidth on the network, generating revenues of $800 million a year. Liquid is also the biggest data centre provider across Africa [The Sunday Times Magazine. May 22 2022].

In the example he's talking about, which is based predicates on this tablet

contained a presuppositional clause that acted as an introductory word to later information. On this tablet, the consistent use of perfect forms can be associated precisely with the corresponding application of the preposition to the present time and the description of the phenomena associated with this information.

Here, its subsidiary information is considered as a prerequisite. Karttunen calls this previous knowledge, known to the speaker and listener, "a set of general assumptions" [Karttunen, 1975]. Certain sentences can not only act as prepositions in a text, but also act as aspectualizers. At the same time, aspectualizers are considered to be closely related to the verbal content, providing a connection between events in the text. For example:Geoff, the former head of Scottish Athletics, later said: "It was surreal watching him win gold. I was thinking: I know that guy. He has a familiar look." If anyone wants to know about Jake's desire to win, they should just ask his identical twin brother Sam about what happened to his running spikes [The Times. Thursday July 21 2022 | the times.co.uk | No 73841].

The sentence I was thinking served as an aspectualizer to connect the events before and after.

Sequence in a text is considered a content-related phenomenon, consisting of sentences with a specific linguistic content. Compared to other related concepts, the application of sequence in a text is usually closer to aspectual phenomena. But, as in presupposition, in aspectuality, along with lexical and grammatical means that ensure the sequence of actions and

events, the completeness of the content becomes important. However, use at both linguistic levels can be useful in highlighting current issues. The result of this is the aspect of the relationship of the information conveyed by the speaker to the moment of speech, which implies that the primary source is both pragmatic and aspectual presupposition. In this case, the initial effect of sentences in the subsequent sequence is intended to be considered in the continuity of the content of the text. However, in the aspectual aspect, presupposition is assessed in terms of the correct use of grammatical devices.

When a sentence is used intentionally inappropriately, that is, prepositions do not match the speaker's prior knowledge, unless specifically instructed, most native speakers will try to insert the word and explain why it is acceptable. This study will focus on highlighting the analysis of some syntactic phenomena associated with aspectual devices, along with the semantic facts that can be derived from the presuppositional and consequential relations between sentences containing these verbs. A number of semantic features that are central to the analysis come together to coherently explain the use of aspectualizers. When a Various verb is discussed, it is compared with any other verb of the lexical-semantic group, which is especially widely realized in the example of verbs close in meaning to it. One of the main ways to do this is to compare the meanings and content characteristics of verbs in a similar text. In some cases, the impossibility of using a particular verb in a given text is usually due to the

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incompatibility of the associated linguistic context and the relations of consequence and the particular text in question. Generally, a verb can be described according to the language and content associated with it and the context in which it occurs. As already mentioned, in the structure of the text, aspectual semantics occupies an important place in correlating the sequence of events with time, the whole reality in relation to time. As noted above, all explicit or implicit information exchanged between speaker and listener about a speaker's target behavior has linguistic forms that are critical to analyzing the ways in which it is used. This focuses on motion delay rather than just time-dependent events. This requires taking into account the principles of communicative interaction when studying aspectual verbs, rules of colloquial speech and traditional gestures, points of view expressed in various words, etc. Perhaps their use will make it possible to more fully illuminate the issues of the semantics of these verbs.

Conclusion

Sentences in a presupposition task can represent information in different languages. This showed that they do not always act as aspectualizers.

It is obvious that aspect semantics in the text plays an important role in correlating the sequence of events with time, the whole reality in relation to time.

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The Concept of Unit Structure

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Abstract

This article delves into the intricate concept of unit structure, exploring its foundations through various theoretical perspectives. The author meticulously dissects the underlying principles that govern unit structures, shedding light on the nuanced interplay of ideas and frameworks that contribute to their formation.

Key Words: *element, function, table, leavetaking.*

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The term 'structure' refers to the relationships that exist between the small units that make up a larger unit. For example, the basic components of a table are a flat board and four long thin pieces of wood or metal, but these elements do not constitute a structure until they are related to each other as a horizontal top supported at the corners by four vertical legs. In this way, each 'element' is given its position and its 'function', which together we may call the 'grammar' of all those members of the general class of objects called 'table' [Givón, 2001].

Everything in our lives has structure. A house may be built of bricks, but its structure consists of rooms having different formal, functional and distributional characteristics. Tables, chairs, cars, all objects are composed of functionally related 'formal items'; and the same applies to activities such as speeches, plays, concerts and football matches. It is natural that languages, which are the spoken and written representation of our experience of all these things, are also manifested in structured forms. Linguistic structures are described in terms of the semantic functions of their various elements and the syntactic forms and relationships which express them.

We have seen a brief preview of the main semantic elements of the clause, together with some of the possible configurations produced by the combinations of these elements. Groups, whose function is to express the things, processes, qualities and circumstances of our experience, also have semantic elements and structures. These are different for each type of group and are treated in the relevant chapter on each of these classes of unit. Here we shall briefly present the syntactic elements of all ranks of unit.

Syntactic elements of clauses. Clauses have the greatest number of syntactic elements or functions of all classes of unit. The criteria for their identification, the syntactic features and the realisations of each are discussed in section 2. Here we simply list and exemplify the clause elements within common clause structures. The type of structure used in order to express a 'situation' or 'state of affairs' depends to a great extent on the verb chosen. In the following sentences we will see components of speech units and their content:

Subject (S) Jupiter is the largest planet. SPCs

Predicator (P) The election campaign has ended SP

Direct Object (Od) Ted has bought a new motorbike. SPOd

Indirect Object (Oi) They sent their friends postcards. SPOiOd

Prepositional Object (Op) You must allow for price increases. SPOp

Subject Complement (Cs) He is powerless to make any changes. SPCs

Object Complement (Co) We consider the situation alarming. SPOdCo

Locative/Goal Complement (Cloc) We flew to Moscow. SPCloc

Circumstantial Adjunct (A) The news reached us on Tuesday. SPOdA

Stance Adjunct (A)

Unfortunately, we could not reach York in time.

ASPOdA

Connective Adjunct (A)   However, other friends were present

ASPCs [Downing & Locke, 2006]

It will be seen that for interrogative and negative clauses we use an additional function, the Finite.

Syntactic elements of groups. Nominal groups, adjectival groups and adverbial groups are composed of three primary elements or functions: a head (h) preceded by a pre-modifier (m) and followed by a post-modifier (m). This last element is sometimes called a 'qualifier'. In the chapters devoted to these groups we also distinguish 'complement' (c) as a special type of posthead element. Complements of nouns and adjectives are introduced by a preposition or by a that-clause which is controlled by the head-word of the group. For example, the adjective good controls a complement introduced by at: good at chess. The noun belief controls a that-clause: the belief that he is always right. In the case of nominal groups, we also distinguish between 'modifiers', which describe or classify the head, and 'determiners' (d), which specify it in terms of definiteness, quantity, possessiveness, etc. Thus, we give the determiner and the pre- and post-modifiers equal syntactic status as primary elements of nominal groups. The following are examples of these group structures:

NG: dmhm: those | beautiful | paintings | by Goya

AdjG: mhc: extremely | difficult | to translate

AdvG: mhm: very | carefully | indeed

In Verbal Groups, the lexical verb is regarded as the main element (v), which either functions alone, whether in finite or non-finite form, as in the example Walking along the street, I met a friend of mine, or is preceded by auxiliaries (x), as in will go or has been reading. The first auxiliary (or the auxiliary, if there is only one) is called the 'finite operator' (o). It is the element that contributes information about tense, modality, number and person, and so helps to make the VG finite and fully 'operative'. It is also the element that operates in the syntactic structure to make the clause interrogative and/ or negative, and to make ellipted responses:

Have you been driving for many years? – Yes, I have.

Do you enjoy driving? – Yes, I do.

In the more complex verbal groups, each element is telescoped into the following one:

v: plays

ov: has | played [have + -en]

oxv: will | be | playing [will + [be + -ing]]

oxxv: must | have | been | played [must + [have + -en] [be + -en]]

The lexical verb is sometimes followed by an adverbial particle (symbolised by 'p') as in ring up, break out, take over. Many such combinations form integrated semantic units which are idiomatic [Quirk, Greenbaum, Svartvik, Leech 1985]. Although the particle frequently forms an integral part of the meaning of the lexical verb, and in fact can often be replaced by a simple verb form (ring up = telephone; break out = escape, erupt), transitive combinations can be discontinuous as in I'll ring you up, they've taken it over.

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However, most particles are not otherwise moveable; we can't say *Up I'll ring you or *Out broke an epidemic. The only exception is in 'free combinations' where the particle has a directional meaning, and in such cases we classify them as directional complements with special uses: Down came the rain and up went the umbrellas. However, grammars differ in this respect.

In Prepositional Phrases (PP) there are two obligatory elements: the prepositional head (h) and the complement (c). There is also an optional modifier (m), which is typically realised by an adverb of degree (e.g. right, quite). The structure of PPs is illustrated as follows:

mhc: right | across | the road
            quite | out of | practice

Prepositional phrases appear as realisations of many functions are treated in

sections of this chapter, together with prepositional meanings, which are described in terms of locative, metaphorical and abstract uses.

Componence, realisation and function. Any structure can be considered to be composed of elements which form a configuration of 'functions', whether semantic functions such as Agent-Process-Affected or syntactic functions such as the clause configuration Subject-Predicator-Direct Object or the modifier-head-modifier structure of the nominal group. Each of these functions is in turn realised by a unit which is itself, at least potentially, a configuration of functions, and these in turn are realised by others until the final stage is reached and abstract categories such as subject, head, modifier, etc., are finally realised by the segments of the spoken or written language.

The 'structural tree' diagrams this model of analysis at the three unit ranks of clause, group and word, to illustrate the clause The bus strike will affect many people tomorrow. An important property of language is the fact that there is no one-to-one correspondence between the class of unit and its function. While it is true that certain classes of unit typically realise certain functions, Nominal Groups at Subject and Object functions, for instance, it is nevertheless also true that many classes of unit can fulfil many different functions, and different functions are realised by many different classes of unit. For instance, the NG next time can fulfill the following clause functions, among others:

Subject: Next time will be better.
Adjunct: I'll know better next time.
Direct Object: We'll enjoy next time. [Downing & Locke, 2006]

The nearest to a one-to-one relationship in the grammar is that between the process

and the verbal group that realises it. This many-to-many relationship is fundamental for understanding the relationship of the grammar of English to discourse. By this it is not implied that discourse (or even a text) is a kind of super-sentence, a grammatical unit that is simply 'larger' than a sentence and with the same kind of relationship holding between its parts as that which holds between grammatical units.

A piece of discourse is quite different in kind from a grammatical unit. Rather than grammatical, it is a

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pragmatic-semantic unit of whatever length, spoken or written, and which forms a unified whole, with respect both to its internal properties and to the social context in which it is produced. To take a minimal instance, a pragmatic act such as 'leavetaking' may be realised by a modalised declarative clause (I'll be seeing you) or by the formulaic expression Goodbye, among others. Typically, a discourse is made up of various types of pragmatic acts, which in turn are realised semantically and syntactically. In this dissertation, although we start from the grammar rather than from the text, the relationship between the two is of primary interest.

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Psychological and Pedagogical Features of the Control and Evaluation Activities of Students

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Abstract
This article examines psychological and pedagogical features of the control and evaluation activities of students in classroom. In addition, author provides several notions about the topic.
Key Words: *self-assessment, goal, motivation, activities.*

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The management of any process implies the implementation of control or, in other words, a system for checking the effectiveness of the working of this process. Control is an fundamentally portion of the instructive handle, the most functions of which are to obtain information about the degree of mastering the educational program by students, provide feedback and identify difficulties and gaps in the education of students. Thus, control involves checking and evaluating the achievements of students.

The control and evaluation system in the system of basic general education is aimed at the formation of educational independence.

An essential element of the state standard of basic general education was the introduction of a requirement for the development of a student's evaluative independence based on the formation of a conscious, adequate and critical assessment in educational activities, the ability to independently and reasonably evaluate their own actions and the actions of classmates, adequately assess their ability to achieve a goal of a certain complexity in various areas of independent learning. activities [1].

Thus, the main school is responsible for the educational independence, which is the key pedagogical task of the adolescent stage of education. It can be seen as the willingness and ability to expand one's knowledge and skills on one's own initiative. the foundations of control and evaluation independence, laid down in elementary school, the desire to learn and the formed methods and methods of teaching in the classroom. So, independence becomes the main "vector of growing up" of a modern student.

This is especially true given the psychological and pedagogical characteristics of middle school students. In accordance with periodization of the mental development of the child, students of the basic school are referred to as adolescence, which covers the period from 11 to 15 years [2]. On the one hand, this stage is characterized by the protesting nature of the child and his critical attitude towards people (in particular, towards parents and teachers). It ought to be famous that the importance of adults during this period of life to a greater extent lies in the recognition by adults of the child's ability to independently manage himself, make decisions and recognize equality of rights ofa teenager with the rights of adults [3]. However, on the other hand, the adolescent period is characterized by the desire to communicate with peers, the formation of self-esteem and independence, and the desire to "adulthood" [4]. That is why it is believed that adolescence is one of the most difficult periods in a person's life. During this period, the foundations of conscious behavior are laid and the general direction of moral ideas and foundations is outlined.

Let's define what self-esteem is from the point of view of psychology. Self-esteem is a component of self-consciousness, which includes, along with knowledge, a person's assessment of his physical characteristics, abilities, moral qualities and actions. Many

scientists argue that self-esteem appears only in adolescence.

Researchers are unanimous in describing the features of self-esteem of children of this age, noting its instability, situationally, susceptibility to external exposure in early adolescence and greater resilience in later adolescence. This, once again, proves that adolescents are characterized by inconstancy, instability of the passionate foundation and the impact of the environment on the formation of children's self-esteem [5].

Self-assessment, in turn, depends on how the assessment system is arranged: how much it supports and stimulates students; how accurate feedback it provides; how informative it is for managing the education system; how much it includes students in independent assessment activities.

The most thought of the criteria-based appraisal innovation is to create conditions and openings for enhancing the activities of students, strengthening their motivation for the learning process and independent work, increasing the objectivity and validity of assessing their educational achievements. Starting from the 5th grade, the teacher and students need to focus their efforts on the formation of self-control and self-assessment as a basis for setting future learning objectives.

Individualization of educational actions of control and evaluation is a necessary condition for the arrangement of a full-fledged educational activity of schoolchildren.

In order for each student to learn to independently control and evaluate

himself and others, he needs a systematic experience of the following actions:

- establish the typology of tasks;
- determine the complexity of tasks;
- create or find samples to test the work;
- compare the work with the sample;
- develop criteria for evaluating academic work;
- Evaluate your work against these criteria;
- compare your assessment with the assessment of another person;
- Express your point of view when evaluating the answers of comrades;
- independently correct the identified shortcomings;
- select tasks to eliminate the mistakes made;
- determine the boundaries of their knowledge [45, 148].

All these skills are shaped within the prepare of uncommon training and corrective exercises. As one of the strategies for the formation of evaluation and control activities, the teacher can use the determination by the students themselves of the timing of the presentation of the results of one or more educational topic: the student himself reports to the teacher about his readiness to write a test paper on a particular topic.

With such kind of an assessment system, students try to evaluate, first of all, themselves and their actions, which significantly contributes to the development of their self-assessment.

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The Use of Irony in English Fairy Tales

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Abstract

This article examines the use of irony in various English fairy tales. In addition, author provides several notions about the topic.
Key Words: *Socratic, wizards, fairies, the magic bone.*

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A literary tale, which arose as an independent genre in other European literatures much earlier (in the middle of the 18th century in France, at the beginning of the 19th century in Germany), it was developed only in the Victorian era in England. Of course, this does not mean that there was no literature for children in England until the middle of the 19th century. At the same time, the literature of a moral and edifying sense prevailed and was as a rule rather didactic. Its main goal was to instill in the child certain ethical norms and truths in accordance with the requirements of strict Puritan morality: for example, that conscientious work always leads to financial well-being, and the idle and lazy are destined to burn in hell. The authors addressed the addressee of this kind of literature - the child - with all seriousness. The tonality of these edifying teachings was far from any lightness and amusement. As for entertaining reading, it was presented mainly in the form of cheap editions of folk tales, ballads or retellings of wandering adventurous plots, in turn, completely devoid of didactics.

The Victorian romantics managed to combine these two principles - entertaining and instructive, making the process of children's reading both enjoyable and useful, and irony played an important role in achieving this synthesis.

The English literary tale at the very beginning of its existence were presented in quite diverse genre modifications, since it actively borrows features not only (and not so much) of a folk tale as myth, epic, tradition and legend (not to mention literary genres proper). Such major masters of the pen as Ch. Dickens, W.M. Thackeray, J. Raskin wrote the tale in the 40-60th XIX century. The tales of the famous "Oxfords" appeared in the same period: C. Kingsley, J. MacDonald, Lewis Carroll. In its direction a literary tale already at an early stage covers a wide range of topics: from serious moral-ethical and religious-philosophical aspects to frankly parodic and absurd, continuing the tradition of "nonsense literature". However, irony is invariably presented in one form or another in almost any English fairy tale and because of this it constitutes is one of the most permanent style-forming features inherent in the genre as a whole. It should be noted that irony, which is absent in the "fairy tale" intonation of a folk tale, penetrates into the author's tale almost from the moment of its appearance. First of all, irony has a universal, "Socratic" (according to F. Schlegel) character in the tales of German romantics – L. Tieck and early Hoffmann, and "this external and traditional-conceptual world as a whole ... and in each of its components becomes the subject of ironic influence, ironic rethinking" [В.П. Федоров 2004: 48- 49].

Echoes of this universal romantic irony, greatly modified and reinterpreted, are felt in the English Victorian fairy tale - especially in Lewis Carroll. In addition, irony in most English fairy tales is also of a more specific, applied nature. It is necessary connecting element that helps to bring the alternative conventional-fairy worlds created by the writer's fantasy as close to reality as possible, to make them comfortable, recognizable, less

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frighteningly mysterious for children's perception, and at the same time more voluminous and polysemantic for the perception of an adult. It is no coincidence that most of the works of this genre in English literature have a "double addressee". They turn out to be equally interesting and attractive for both children and their parents' thanks largely to the same constant irony.

Let's try to consider with specific examples the most common ways of expressing the author's irony on the material of the most famous fairy tales of this period, belonging to the pen of the aforementioned writers. We will try to highlight and list those general techniques that can be observed (to a greater or lesser extent) in each of these authors with all their genre-style diversity and undoubted differences in the general tone and content.

The most common type of ironic expression is the author's commentary (especially characteristic of the style of the tales of Dickens, Thackeray, Kingsley and MacDonald). The pathos of such a comment can vary from a soft, slyly good-natured humorous tone to caustic sarcasm and sarcastic satire. At the same time, the authors willingly resort to techniques traditional for English prose (for example, an ironic litote (understatement)). When Princess Angelica in Thackeray's fairy tale "The Ring and the Rose" loses her senses, the king orders to pour on her from the teapot, "... and indeed, boiling water soon brought her highness to consciousness" [У.М. Теккерей 2003: 196]; or, conversely, to hyperbole (overstatement): "This proverb expresses the wisdom of our ancestors, and if my wicked language dared to

change it, you would have the right to say that our country is heading for the abyss" [Ч. Диккенс 2004: 113]. The author's comment can sometimes acquire a generalizing and aphoristic connotation. So, for example, when saying that the king forgot to invite someone to the christening of his daughter (of course, as it turns out later, an evil sorceress), the author remarks: mind and choice [Дж. Макдоналд 2003: 438].

In those cases when the events of a fairy tale fully unfold within a conventional fairytale space, as close as possible to the topos and atmosphere of a folk tale ("in a certain kingdom, in a certain state"). The introduction of an emphatically realistic everyday detail becomes a characteristic ironic device. We already meet this phenomenon in the tales of German romantics, Tieck and Hoffmann, and the Victorians. For example, the king in Dickens's fairy tale "The Magic Bone" receives a salary, which, however, is not enough to support the queen and their nineteen children; in the morning he goes to work, to his office, and on the way, he may well go to the fish store to buy a pound and a half of salmon at the request of the queen ("a piece not too close to the tail").

At the same time, every detail, intruding into a fairy tale, does not destroy it. On the contrary, it organizes the action and is plot-forming. There is a "magic remedy" (according to Propp), which turns out to be an ordinary fish bone that fulfills a wish if it is made on time. The lack of salary, as it turns out, is the main "shortage" that is successfully eliminated with this magical remedy. Thackeray's style is

characterized by frequent mention in the conventionally fabulous art space of the kingdoms of Paphlagonia and Pontia products of famous and popular brands, as well as realities familiar to any Englishman of that era: Warren's waxes, Astley's circus, Wombwell's menagerie or company of light beer Bass's Charrington. Sometimes the real detail is "woven" into the list of fabulous fictional images and is listed alongside them: for example, in the list of awards that the court painter is awarded, along with the Order of the Pumpkin of the Sixth Class and the Order of the Cucumber (a rather transparent allusion to the English orders of the Garter and Thistle), the real-life regalia is also mentioned: the Order of St. Patrick, which, of course, enhances the ironic and parodic effect.

Another frequently encountered technique is the use of speaking names, which may contain an ironic characterization of the character: Countess Gruffanuff from Thackeray's tale "The Ring and the Rose", chimney sweep Grimes (grime - ingrained dirt) from the tale of Charles Kingsley "Children of the Waters", or Princess Yashwamdam (princess Makemnoit) from McDonald's fairy tale "Weightless Princess", - or give all the same everyday flavor to the fabulous story. Most often, a household detail in a name is adjacent to a fairytale, and the ironic effect is based on a contrasting sound: for example, in Raskin's fairy tale "King of the Golden River" a magical creature that personifies a natural element - the Southwest Wind - is signed with the title (South West Wind, esquire), and the king from Dickens's fairy tale "The Magic Bone"

has not only a traditional serial number, but also a surname: king Watkins the First. Sometimes the names have an emphatically foreign (most often Italian or German) sounding, which is especially characteristic of Dickens and Thackeray, in whose tales there is a strong parody element: king Valoroso XXIV (King Brave XXIV) and general Hedzoff (Рубиголофф) from Thackeray or Prince Certainpersoniom (Одинчеловеккио) by Dickens. Sometimes part of a phraseological unit or a saying is used during the process of creating names. For example, in the case of the Hatter or the Cheshire Cat in Lewis Carroll's tale "Alice in Wonderland"; the second component of such a phraseological unit is not called, but it is implied, since the stable connotation that arises in the mind of a reading native speaker (the Hatter is madness, the Cheshire Cat is a smile) is fully justified in the course of the development of the action and becomes a completely exhaustive characteristic of the character - the owner of such name.

Irony can also be manifested in the speech characteristics of the characters, since dialogues and monologues almost always play an important functional role in a literary fairy tale and, as a rule, occupy a rather significant volume in the text of the work. The speech of this or that fairytale hero is often parody either in relation to certain literary clichés, or in relation to stable patterns of behavior. For example, King Brave from the already mentioned Thackeray tale from time to time begins to get lost in his monologues on a pretentious blank

verse, which is immediately noted in the author's ironic commentary: His Majesty continued to convince himself (although, of course, the blank verse is not yet an argument) [У.М. Теккерей 2003: 138]. Prince Lillio's speech also changes at the moment when he opens his incognito to friends and enters into an open "fight for the throne", and his transition from prose to blank verse with the use of special vocabulary and flowery rhetorical turns (according to the author, it is due to his awareness of his mission: Now he did not express himself otherwise. He was not just some ordinary mortal! [У.М. Теккерей 2003: 225].

The models of behavior are often ridiculed in the fairy tale. First of all, it is necessary to mention the manner of adults in handling and talking with children. For example, in the speech of the White Queen from Lewis Carroll's fairy tale, the intonations of a strict governess or a classy bonna are clearly audible: Pronounce the words clearly and do not touch your fingers ... You can make a reverance not after answering, but before - while you are thinking. It will save you time. [L. Carroll 1967: 142- 143]. The ironic effect is sometimes enhanced by a kind of inversion, when the object of such mentoring instructions is not children, but adults themselves - especially if they are not mere mortals, but – kings. Of course, only creatures occupying an even higher rank in the hierarchy of children's consciousness (namely wizards or fairies) can afford to speak in such a tone and read lectures to the royals. This is how the Fairy Grandmarine treats King Watkins the First in Dickens's fairy tale "The Magic

Bone": Be patient a little, sir, the Fairy Grandmarine sternly told him. - Do not interrupt others until they have finished speaking. And what is this habit you adults have - you are always interrupting everyone." The fairy's reaction to the king's timid questions, trying to figure out the meaning of her instructions, is most like the irritation of a parent tired of endless childish questions: "Are you going to be good or not, sir?! She cried, stamping her foot. - Why and why! You always want to know why ... Because! There you are! Got? I'm tired of your grown-up "why"!" [Ч. Диккенс 2004: 14].

Quite often used techniques in a Victorian fairy tale are also ironic-parody quotations or imitation of someone else's manner. As noted by N.M. Demurov, "in terms of irony, the tales of Dickens and Thackeray are focused on second-rate examples of melodramatic and adventure literature as well as on their own works (in both cases, we find in them ironic models of our own themes, characters, plots). The irony here is primarily parody or self-parody" [Н.М. Демурова 1991: 299]. The use of parodied texts and ironic imitation of the manner of one or another author can be both hidden (without mentioning the cited source), and explicit: "If I had the gift of James, I would describe in paints the mental torment of Hrabus, his sparkling gaze and flared nostrils, as well as his robe, handkerchief and shoes. But since I do not have such a talent, I can only say that Hrabus was left alone with himself" [У.М. Теккерей 2003: 137]. It is also worth noting that in the texts of Thackeray's tales, one can find hidden and explicit reminiscences and

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quotations not only from second-rate literary specimens, but also, for example, from Byron or Shakespeare, used in an invariably ironic context. Hidden ironic paraphrases of other people's prose and poetic texts are found (although much less often in MacDonald and Kingsley), and, of course, represent a special sphere for travesty-comic interpretation in Lewis Carroll's tales.

Despite the fact that the animalistic literary tale "in its pure form" appears in English literature a little later, already among the early Victorians (first of all, with Lewis Carroll) - the ironic and comic effect is sometimes based on the likening of representatives of the animal world to people with their habits, manners, clothes, talk, ambition and eccentricities (Frog, White Rabbit, Caterpillar, etc.). This tradition will be picked up and continued in the works of authors who will later turn to the genre variety of animalistic fairy tales: Kenneth Graham, Beatrice Potter, Rudyard Kipling, etc.

Word play, which includes ironic playing with all kinds of tropes and stable phrases, the use of polysemy words, especially on the basis of homonymy or paronymy, funny etymological hypotheses, the invention of neologisms, etc. constitutes a special lexico-semantic element that reigns in English literary fairy tale. It is a subject that deserves a separate painstaking study. Here are just some examples that are far from exhaustive of the whole variety of methods of ironic word use and word play in the works of the period under consideration.

Irony arises very often during the process of rethinking stereotypical phrases and cliches, when the metaphorical or allegorical meaning contained in them is discarded and the words are understood in their direct, original meaning - or in some other way - but always unexpected, different from the usual. For example, in the fairy tales of Lewis Carroll, the fabulous inhabitants of Wonderland now and then use words of Alice in literally interpreting. For example, "kill time", "sit down for a minute", etc. (as a rule, the object part of such a phrase is personified and written with a capital letter). In turn, Alice, with her childish perception, sometimes understands some speech patterns not in their usual, clichéd meaning, but puts into them the meaning that seems to her more appropriate to the given situation: for example, to the Caterpillar's proposal ("explain yourself"), Alice replies that she cannot explain who she is and who she is at the moment.

Another characteristic way of ironically playing with stable linguistic associations is playing with the ambiguity of words. The polysemy factor can even be plot-forming, as in MacDonald's fairy tale "The Weightless Princess", where the fact that the word gravity has two meanings: "gravity" and "seriousness" leads to the fact that when the princess loses it, "Looses gravity", she loses it in all the senses that are contained in this expression - that is, she loses not only weight, but also the ability to be serious.

This tendency in the English literary tale was preserved at all stages of its further development and became an

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integral and necessary stylistic component, its kind of "visiting card", manifested to a greater or lesser extent among the majority of English writers who continued this genre tradition.

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The Experience of Studying Zoonyms in Modern Linguistics

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Abstract
This scholarly article explores the examination of zoonyms within contemporary linguistic studies. The author endeavors to illustrate various concepts drawn from eminent scholars who have made significant contributions to the field of linguistics.
Key Words: *zoonym, lexeme, domestic animals, morphological.*

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Numerous researchers have been interested in the names of animals. The lexical-thematic group of animals has been the subject of several investigations in Slavic linguistics. The paper "On the issue of the content of the term Zoonym" by A.S. Marudova examines several methods for defining the term's parameters and finds a workable definition for this idea. The position of the zoonym in the onomastic realm is one of the author's main concerns. Analytical and descriptive methodologies were employed throughout the investigation.

K.I. Chodova examines how current Slavic languages and domestic animal names are very similar in his monograph. Concurrently, the names of animals like horses, dogs, and oxen started to change in the languages as compared to other Indo-European languages. The author claims that names of hunting implements and wild animals like fox, deer, wild boar, and beaver have all been carried over from the Proto-Slavic language into all Slavic languages. The author comes to the conclusion that some dialects of the Russian language are closer to the West Slavic or South Slavic languages than to the modern literary language in the names of certain actions, historical tools and household items, the names of natural phenomena, animals and plants. Shvedchikova "Methods of expressing gender in the names of animals in the Russian language" is devoted to Slavic linguistics. This study presents the results of the analysis of the manifestation of complex relations in the semantic field of animal names in the aspect of determining or not

defining the sign of the sex of the animal in it and is a fragment of the systemic description of the general lexical system of the Russian language that is currently being formed [1].

In the dissertation of Zheng Yingkui on the topic: "Russian zoonyms in a complex linguistic consideration" [2] studied the constituent elements of the lexical system of the Russian language, an important place is occupied by the animal lexical-semantic field, formed by means of a group of animal names. To designate the words included in this thematic group, such terms as zoolexeme and zoonym-containing lexeme can be used. According to the most general definition, a zoonym is a lexical-semantic version of a word that acts as a generic name for an animal. Zoolexeme is defined as a lexical unit, the initial meaning of which is the name of an animal, if it is a single-valued word, then it is also defined as a zoonym. A zoonym-containing lexeme is a composite lexical unit within which a zoonym is defined not as the original, but as one of the derived lexico-semantic variants.

In the Russian language, the formation of the names of wild animals was analyzed by the researcher T.I. Skikevich. The author examines the names of wild animals, which represent a historically established thematic group in the Russian language, consisting of units that are heterogeneous in origin and use. The researcher notes such names as Proto-Slavic and Old Russian language, borrowings from other languages, obsolete names, etc [3].

In a study of 400 units of the zoonomic vocabulary of the Mari

language, conducted by M.N. Kuznetsova "Names of wild domestic animals in the Mari language". As a result of the study, it was shown that 78% are actually Mari zoonyms. To analyze the word-formation models of composite zoonyms, the author used special semantic formulas and concluded that derivation does not occur in Mari zoonymic terminology.

Dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philology F.P. Ebzeeva contains a complex, multi-component analysis of zoonyms contained in the lexical groups of the Karachay-Balkar language. This paper defines parallels between the names of individual animals in the Karachay-Balkar language and common Turkic names in general, and with Chuvash onyms in particular.

Research by T.V. Khakhalkina, V.V. Bykon is devoted to a comparative historical analysis of the terminology of the fauna of the Nganasan language. The authors explore the mechanisms of zoonym nomination in terms of a combination of non-linguistic factors, such as, for example, the special attitude to nature and to deer.

In the study by A. R. Khauzenberg "Names of animals in the Komi language" a comparative historical analysis of the morphological and etymological structure of more than two hundred zoonyms of the Komi language was carried out, and their morphological structure and semantic development were determined. In particular, this paper defines such semantic changes as the narrowing of the meaning, the transfer of the name from one animal to another, the

transformation of metonyms and lexical metaphors into zoonyms [4].

Sh.A. Shavayeva is a work devoted to the study of lexical-thematic groups of animal names in certain Turkic languages. In this paper, conclusions are drawn about the definition of methods and names of formations, lexico-semantic and system-semasiological characteristics of names, their structural features. In addition, this paper identifies the basic principles of nomination, explores the role of onyms for creating a linguistic picture of the world.

K.F. Karjalainen, A. Kanisto, H. Paasonen made the research in the Ob-Ugric language in the 90s. XX in the early years. The work of K. Karjalainen was devoted almost exclusively to lexicology (a collection of vocabulary material) and phonetics. K.F. Karjalainen brought together a large amount of lexicographical material published in two volumes by Yu.Kh. Toivonen. He wrote a dialectological dictionary, which was published in Finland.

A linguistic analysis of the vocabulary of the Khanty language of the Shuryshkar dialect related to reindeer herding were carried out in the study by S.V. Onina [5]. The author classifies lexical-semantic groups, studies the structure of the vocabulary associated with reindeer herding. The boundaries of a compound word in the Khanty language are also determined.

In the work of M.E. Seraskhova "Zonyms in the phraseology of the Khanty language of the Ural dialect" [6] the author, based on the analysis of the material collected as a result of field research in such areas as the Tyumen

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region, describes the phraseological units characterizing the ethno-cultural conditions associated with the zoonoms of the Khanty language, on the basis of which its lexical fund was formed. In particular, in this work a set of phraseological units with lexical components of zoonoms, fragmentarily representing the Khanty language picture of the world, and being an element of the cultural code, was studied. The researcher concludes that the Khanty, as an ethnic group that belongs to hunting in everyday speech, use phraseological units in daily speech, which include zoonyms. They reflect the mentality of the hunter-Khant and his traditional beliefs that characterize the "naive linguistic picture of the world".

In the work of V.N. Solovar in the western dialects (Shuryshkar, Kazym) or eastern dialects (Surgut and Vakhovsky) the totality of lexical-semantic groups of words, including the names of animals [7]. In the next monograph, V.N. Solovar, V.D. Gatchenko, P.T. Tarlin presented a work on the "Commercial vocabulary of the Khanty language". The paper gives a classification according to lexico-semantic groups, describes the structural analysis of vocabulary,

studies the morphological structure, identifies and describes word-formation features and compatibility of hunting vocabulary; the picture of the world reflected by this vocabulary is described.

It should be noted the work of Y.V. Islamova "Vocabulary of the animal world of Khanty origin in the toponymy of the Lower-Middle Ob region" [8]. The author highlights the structure of substrate toponyms, which include lexical groups that define names:
   - wild animals;
   - pets;
   - aquatic biological resources;
   - insects;
   - birds.

Research by Z.S. Ryabchikova "Somatic vocabulary of the Khanty language" notes that the Khanty language contains a number of zoonomic names containing components that determine the names of body parts. In the article by T.A. Moldanova "Ornithomorphic symbolism in the folklore and beliefs of the Khanty" considers waterfowl, which occupy a significant place in the traditional beliefs of the Ob Ugrians. The author describes such birds as swan, loon, duck, gull, etc. and gives a designation to each bird.

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Study of Cultural Aspects of Neologisms

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Abstract

The article deals with the problems of the formation of new words in a language have been relevant in linguistics since its inception, but there is still no consensus on the understanding of neologism in the proper linguistic sense. The article emphasizes national specific of neologisms through their space, realize those categories that representatives of people thinking, and boundaries in which they are placed in order to perceive and analyze the world around them.

Key Words: *neologisms, linguistics, linguaculturological, approach, lexical units.*

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Introduction. The problem of "language and man", as well as "language and culture" is currently acquiring time of increasing relevance. Adequate study of the language becomes possible on the condition of contacting the person - the creator of the language, and such an approach is possible only on a specific national-linguistic material. The development of the language proceeds under the sign of its continuous improvement and enrichment of functionality, which is especially evident in the lexical level in the constant dual process of archaization - updating the vocabulary of the language [1].

a) the presence of a new sack reference in the semantics of the unit (manifestation of the cultural component in the denotative and connotative meanings of neologism);

b) Sphere consumption of the unit (fixation of the unit in a certain language), clarifying the criteria of the linguoculturological approach in neologism.

The dominance of a certain sphere is an indicator of its significance for the lexicon and value for the corresponding society. In English, the identified conceptual areas include "society and man", "man and culture", "technology and science", "economy and business", "social policy", "computer technology and the Internet", "economics", "ecology and the environment". The extralinguistic factors of the generation of new words, along with the emergence of new realities and scientific and technological progress, include: globalization, the development of the Internet, the spread of anthropocentrism as a way of world perception, the assertion of political correctness and tolerance in language practice, the compression of time; to intralinguistic - tendencies towards language economy, greater expressiveness, systematization of vocabulary, unification of sign means of expression; conversion and change in the stylistic fixation of the unit [6]. Extralinguistic factors, and in particular globalization, to a decisive extent determine the change in the vocabulary of the language. The conditions for the generation of neologisms, the scope of their functioning in the language, the types of new words and the number of borrowings among them are largely determined by the ecology of the language. In particular, in the Dutch language there is an active displacement of French borrowings by English neologisms, which is accompanied by a change in the phonetic form, as well as an expansion of lexico-semantic variants of units [5].

Vivid evidence of the development of the language is the process of the emergence of neologisms, driven by changes in objective reality, since society always trying to find means to name new realities [4]. With the help of vocabulary, a person carries out the representation of objects of reality. Words as nominative units of language store knowledge about reality, sufficient to identify the real or ideal entities. Due to the massive increase in neologisms in a number of national languages, researchers pay more attention to the problem of typology of speech and language innovations. Addressing this issue is a natural stage

in the development of any science, including neology [5]. Classification of a certain class of phenomena allows to identify it, the most important features, similarities and differences of its constituent elements, and links between them. In our study, typology of a new vocabulary, we also have the opportunity to define a subclass of neologisms, which most obviously expresses the connection between language and culture and contains the largest number of units with national cultural component.

The new vocabulary reflects all the changes in the political, economic, social, cultural, spiritual fields, which is included in the general concept of cultural space. Following G.V. Komarov, we understand cultural space as a set of socio-economic and cultural-historical conditions for the existence of a language as a means of communication of a separate language community. Linguistic space is "a complex of phenomena, factors and parameters, determining the specifics and essential characteristics of a particular language as a systemic education functioning in speech in the real conditions of cultural space" [3]. The modern approach to the study of a language, and in particular its vocabulary, involves the analysis of vocabulary as components of a linguistic space in terms of cultural space. It is a combination and relationship that provides a new dimension to language learning. Language is an integral system, a mechanism, form and function are interconnected when creating a common meaning, in connection with which the division into levels and

aspects is inappropriate. This unity of language is associated with the development of language itself and the level of language proficiency of its speakers. Form and function of language are caused by the presence of different concepts in the human mind: on the reflection of an objectively existing picture, a situation of communication, but refracted in the mind by introducing "individual modus components", removing "self- evident information links for the author and recipient" and other modifications. For the speaker, all the components, in view of the fact that they have a direct impact on the "general communicative meaning of the sentence-statement and speaker's strategy" [2], although not always verbalized, are equivalent. The word is not only equivalent, but also most accessible and effective weapon of politicians. What politicians say and how they say is of theoretical and practical interest. In a broad sense, the totality of communicative practices in a political context is a political discourse. «Language reflects power structures – and language has an impact on power structures. Language can be seen as an indicator of social and therefore political situations – and language can also be seen as a driving force directed at changing politics and society. Language is an in-put as well as an out-put factor of political systems. It influences politics – and is influenced by politics…. Language can be used by totalitarian regimes, and it can be used as a means of resistance against these regimes» [5]. Politics had a special influence on the life of society. From political situation in the country and relations with other states and peoples

directly depends on the place of the country in the international arena, which is reflected in English political neologisms.

Classification according to the way neologisms, the language allows to identify the following categories of neologisms:

1. Morphological neologisms or neologisms created from morphemes according to word-formation models that exist in this language system. In English, examples of morphological neologisms can be serving units hands-on 'practical' (model noun + pretext); earthday 'earth day' (composition, model noun + noun). In Dutch, this category can be illustrated with examples: 'hardware store, do it yourself' (multicomponent word formation); sofinummer 'number social insurance' (short for social-fiscaal nummer).

2. Phraseological neologisms - Phraseological innovations include new phraseological units becoming active in usage of native speakers. These units can both denote a new phenomenon, as well as redefine what is already known. However, their number, compared to neologisms of other types, much less. As noted by E.M. Vereshchagin and V.G. Kostomarov, this is explained by the fact that in the phraseology of the latest time there was a transition "from individual word usage to mass" [1, 7]. Phraseological neologisms differ from the neologisms of the previous category in their syntactic phrase form. So, in English, the category of phraseological innovations can be attributing the expression stop the arms race, 'stop the arms race', which

became a term of newspaper style, political discourse, and then the part of the literary language after the end of the Cold War. Another example of phraseological neologism is the phrase friendly fire 'friendly fire', which appeared back in the 70s. for designations of erroneous firing or strike on own forces. But, precisely during the war in Iraq in 1991, the compiler of the dictionary emphasizes neologisms of J. Ayto, this term gained popularity [1, 6]. Indeed, in the future, this phrase is most often occurring in the context of the Gulf War. The phrase football widow 'football widow' is also a phraseological neologism and denotes a woman who loses her husband, a football fan, for a while football match (by analogy with the phraseological unit of the Russian language 'straw widow').

The first group of neologisms we are considering includes both lexical and grammar that denoting people belong to a particular party or adhering to certain political views, and the nomination of the "first" people of the United States of America. It is believed that studies of the peculiarities of the use of proper names in structure of this or that society allow us to assert that the units of the specified types, being cultural dominants, help to reveal the features, characteristic features of a particular nation, a particular type of linguistic personality [1]. Speaking of the name as a national and social sign, one should keep in mind the presence of fields in onomastics - a certain sphere of correlation of the name. In speech boundary is determined with the help of extralinguistic knowledge, which is necessary for the correct use

and understanding of names. The extralinguistic aspect of the meaning of the name includes the special conditions for the existence of the name in society, and cultural and historical associations, and the degree of fame of the object and its name. The national name field contributes to a more accurate perception of names, more their clear correlation with a certain language subsystem. So, for example, the recent elections in the USA led to the creation of new units, among which, for our particular group, the following can be distinguished:

• Trumpalist – a person supporting Donald Trump as candidate to President of the USA.

• Trumper – a person who is a supporter of politician Donald Trump.

• Blairism – the political ideology of the former leader of the Labour Party and Prime Minister Tony Blair.

• Putinism is the political ideology of Vladimir Putin.

It should be noted that in our study, we do not distinguish separately neologisms of national variants of the English language (American, Australian, British, Canadian English, etc.). According to our opinion, variability does not significantly affect the semantics of new words of English due to its leading role in the world, as well as the processes of globalization. In English, the conceptual spheres in which, on the basis of the analyzed material, the largest concentration was revealed neologisms are presented in descending order as follows:

1. Society and the individual. As the analyzed factual material showed, this conceptual sphere is verbalized by the neologisms of the literary language, naming a person, his life stages, image and style of life, relationships, health, education, processes and outcomes of urbanization.

2. Man and culture. As the sample of factual material showed, the second neologization is a category of human cultural activity as forms of mastering reality. We refer to the concept of "culture" as material as well as spiritual aspects of this phenomenon. Following E.M.Vereshchagin and V.G. Kostomarov material culture we call "the totality of material, visible, observable works of labor person". Neologisms, as a rule, characterize the products of labor, create at the present time, and do not create by previous generations. By spiritual culture we mean "production, distribution and consumption of spiritual values; creation process spiritual wealth of society" [1, 3, 4].

Conclusions. Summing up of all what has just been said, it should be stressed:

New vocabulary is the most important material for embodied by means of language concepts, as it reflects the characteristic features of the worldview of the people. Neologism due to its ability not only to reflect, but also to "absorb" the culture of native speakers of the language to which it belongs in recent decades, became a powerful linguistic and social mediator serving to enrich both the language itself and the social environment as a whole.

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Choosing Better Materials in Teaching English Language

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Abstract
This article deals with the choosing better materials in teaching English language in modern pedagogy as well as author tries to exemplify several notions from prominent scholars who contributed in the sphere of linguistics.
Key Words: *audio tapes, computer software, and visual aids.*

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Introduction. Language instruction has five important components- students, a teacher, materials, teaching methods, and evaluation. Why are materials important in language instruction? What do materials do in language instruction? Can we teach English without a textbook?

Materials control learning and teaching, they help learning and teaching. It is true that in many cases teachers and students rely heavily on textbooks, and textbooks determine the components and methods of learning, that is, they control the content, methods, and procedures of learning. Students learn what is presented in the textbook, and the way the textbook presents material is the way students learn it. The educational philosophy of the textbook will influence the class and the learning process. Therefore, in many cases, materials are the center of instruction and one of the most important influences on what goes on in the classroom. (Allwright (1990)).

Theoretically, experienced teachers can teach English without a textbook. However, it is not easy to do it all the time, though they may do it sometimes. Many teachers do not have enough time to make supplementary materials, so they just follow the textbook. Textbooks therefore take on a very important role in language classes, and it is important to select a good textbook.

As a matter of fact, curriculum, materials, teaching methods, and evaluation should all be designed for learners and their needs. It is the teacher's responsibility to check to see whether all of the elements of the learning process are working well for learners and to adapt them if they are not.

In other words, learners should be the center of instruction and learning. The curriculum is a statement of the goals of learning, the methods of learning, etc. The role of teachers is to help learners to learn. Teachers have to follow the curriculum and provide, make, or choose materials. They may adapt, supplement, and elaborate on those materials and also monitor the progress and needs of the students and finally evaluate students.

Materials include textbooks, video and audio tapes, computer software, and visual aids. They influence the content and the procedures of learning. The choice of deductive and inductive learning, the role of memorization, the use of creativity and problem solving, production vs. reception, and the order in which materials are presented are all influenced by the materials.

Technology, such as OHP, slides, video and audio tape recorders, video cameras, and computers, supports instruction/learning.

Though students should be the center of instruction, in many cases, teachers and students rely on materials, and the materials become the center of instruction. Since many teachers are busy and do not have the time or inclination to prepare extra materials, textbooks and other commercially produced materials are very important in language instruction. Therefore, it is important for teachers to know how to choose the best material for instruction, how to make supplementary materials for the class, and how to adapt materials.

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In a study of English textbooks published in Japan in 1985, the textbooks were reviewed and problems were found with both the language and content of many of the textbooks (Kitao et al., 1995).

English textbooks should have corrected, natural, recent, and standard English. Since students' vocabulary is limited, the vocabulary in textbooks should be controlled or the textbooks should provide information to help students understand vocabulary that they may not be familiar with. For lower-level students, grammar should also be controlled. Many textbooks use narratives and essays. It would be useful to have a variety of literary forms (for example, newspaper articles, poetry, or letters), so that students can learn to deal with different forms. (Littlejohn and Windeatt (1989)).

In addition to publishers, there are many possible sources of materials. There is a lot of material available on the Internet. You can search for materials when you have free time, and store them for your future classes.

Many teachers go abroad during vacations these days, and they can collect materials in English-speaking countries. TV and radio are good sources. They provide a variety of materials. The information is current and the language is natural, but the content has to be chosen carefully. Newspapers, magazines, advertisements, and other types of printed material are very useful. Teachers can take photos, make video tapes or record audio tapes. If they make plans before they go overseas, they may be able to make good video or audio programs.

Conclusion. Though there are five elements in language instruction, and learners should be the center of instruction. However, materials often control the instruction, since teachers and learners tend to rely heavily on them. Materials that are appropriate for a particular class need to have an underlying instructional philosophy, approach, method and technique which suit the students and their needs. They should have corrected, natural, current and standard English. Teachers need to look for good materials, both commercial and non-commercial, all the time. They also need to be aware of commercialism and copyright issues concerning materials.

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The Role of NLP in the Development of a Digital (Automated) Library System

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Abstract

The current technological landscape prominently features next-generation Natural Language Processing (NLP), emerging as a pivotal technology. In the contemporary Evolutionary Learning Systems (ELS) development, NLP assumes an increasingly vital role, encompassing essential tasks. NLP significantly contributes to the establishment of functionalities such as information retrieval, text mining, sentiment analysis, and other integral components within a digital library system. This article provides an in-depth exploration of the construction and progression of an electronic library system grounded in NLP technologies.

Key Words: *Digital library system, Natural Language Processing (NLP), text analysis, metadata, content processing, automatic classification, document and information retrieval, thesaurus.*

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Introduction to Natural Language Processing (NLP):

Within the realm of global linguistics, the inception of addressing challenges related to the automated analysis of language and text can be traced back to the 1950s, leveraging computer technologies (refer to Figure 1). NLP represents a facet of artificial intelligence (AI) dedicated to facilitating interaction between computers and humans through natural language. The primary objective of NLP lies in empowering computers to comprehend, interpret, and generate human language in a manner that is both meaningful and contextually appropriate.

NLP Avenues:

NLP encompasses various directions, each contributing to distinct applications in the technological landscape. These include:

1. Machine Translation
2. Speech Recognition
3. Sentiment Analysis
4. Question Answering
5. Text Summarization
6. Chatbots
7. Intelligent Systems
8. Text Classification
9. Character Recognition
10. Spellchecking
11. Spam Detection
12. Autocomplete (Text)
13. Named Object Recognition

Figure 1. Natural language processing (NLP)

Digital Libraries

The initial conceptualization of digital libraries dates back to the 1890s, with Paul Otlet and Henri La Fante leading the way in implementing ideas aimed at the systematic cataloging of books[16]. As computer technology advanced, the conceptualization of utilizing information through digital library technologies evolved.

During the 1980s, societal perspectives on the role of digital libraries were centered around the examination of data processing software. Scholars such as Frederick Wilfrid Lancaster, Derek De Solla Price, Gerard Salton, and Michael Gorman were notable proponents of these views.

In the contemporary landscape, research has primarily emphasized information retrieval (IR) technology rather than machine translation concerning digital libraries. The escalating volume of digital data has spurred a growing interest in developing technologies that effectively manage such data. Concurrently, new architectural and functional possibilities for Electronic Library systems have emerged.

The integration of Natural Language Processing (NLP) technologies holds substantial promise in the creation of electronic library systems. Until recently, digital libraries had not extensively utilized sophisticated NLP-based methodologies. Present-day digital libraries surpass their predecessors in terms of capabilities, particularly when compared to earlier Information Retrieval (IR) systems.

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In the forthcoming sections of our article, we will delve into addressing the following questions:

Description of Issues in Managing Electronic Library Systems:

We will provide an extensive analysis of challenges associated with the effective management of electronic library systems (ELS), offering insights into the complexities and considerations inherent in this task.

Utilization of Various NLP Capabilities in ELS:

Our discussion will encompass an exploration of diverse Natural Language Processing (NLP) capabilities that can be harnessed within Electronic Library Systems (ELS). This will include an examination of how these capabilities contribute to enhanced functionality in terms of information storage, retrieval, and analysis.

Identification of New Research Problems in NLP Technology for ELS:

We will endeavor to identify and discuss novel research problems arising in the context of utilizing NLP technology within electronic library systems. This will involve a critical examination of emerging challenges and areas requiring further investigation to advance the integration of NLP in ELS.

Furthermore, we assert that the integration of digital libraries, document management, and NLP technologies is imperative for enhancing information access, retrieval, and management. These technologies afford users the convenience of storing, searching, and analyzing substantial volumes of digital data.

Metadata:

In traditional libraries, the effectiveness of a user's information retrieval depends on the quality of cataloging. Similarly, cataloging electronic resources in library collections presents analogous challenges to cataloging physical books. Addressing the escalating volume of electronic resources necessitates the development of innovative tools and technologies for efficient automated semantic classification and search. Notably, certain common directory searches are not achievable through full-text search methods, including finding translations, distinguishing between text/periodicals/volumes, handling inappropriate descriptors, rectifying missing or low-quality taxonomy methods, and attributing texts published under pseudonyms to real authors.

Search for Information:

Information retrieval is a nuanced process involving the search for documents that align with a query within an Information Retrieval System (IRS). This process involves the storage of data to facilitate subsequent retrieval. The components of a unified information system (UIS) encompass an array of documents, an artificial language for describing content and queries, an information search language, indexing rules, search rules, technical means for information retrieval, and service providers. These elements collectively contribute to the structured and efficient retrieval of information within the UIS framework.

Analysis of the UIS underscores the imperative distinction between its

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material content, encompassing the array of documents, technical means, and service providers, and its semantic components, comprising the information retrieval language, indexing methods, and search methods. In UIS theory, these semantic elements collectively referred to as abstract UIS.

Within the framework of semantic UIS tools, the processing of documents and queries is facilitated, culminating in the selection of documents provided to the consumer. This sequence of actions is encapsulated by the formula:

Li→Si↔Sd→Ld

Here:

Li represents the text of the request in natural language,

Si denotes the query text in the language of information retrieval,

Ld signifies the document text in natural language,

Sd represents the image of a document in the information retrieval language (IRL),

→ denotes indexing,

↔ signifies the comparison of the query and search warrant.

Document indexing stands out as one of the extensively studied domains within UIS. Numerous researchers have contributed to the evolution of effective methods and algorithms for document indexing and retrieval. Key areas of exploration in this domain encompass keyword search, semantic indexing, relevance ranking, and user-centric search models. Jared Salton, recognized as one of the pioneers in information retrieval, has conducted substantial research in vector field models and document indexing. Another influential researcher in this

realm is Stephen Robertson, who has made significant contributions to the study of diverse aspects of retrieval models, probabilistic models, and the probabilities governing relationships between documents and queries.

The utilization of different document indexing methods yields varying levels of performance. The subsequent table provides a simplified example illustrating which indexing algorithm or methods can offer heightened performance. It is essential to acknowledge that actual metrics and algorithms may differ based on the specific context or objectives of the study (refer to Table 1).

Table 1

Indexing techniques	A collection of data	Metric 1 (Accuracy)	Metric 2 (Assessment)	Metric 3 (F1 score)	Processing time
TF-IDF	Reuters Corpus	0.85	0.78	0.81	20 ms
Latent Semantic Indexing (LSI)	Wikipedia	0.72	0.89	0.80	50 ms
Doc2Vec	PubMed Abstracts	0.91	0.65	0.76	30 ms
BM25	Twitter	0.78	0.82	0.80	25 ms
Based on neural network	User Data Collection	0.95	0.88	0.91	120 ms

In the context of document organization:

An indexing technique refers to a method or algorithm employed for the purpose of document indexing.

A dataset constitutes the set of data utilized for comparative analysis, which may be a standard case or an individual set.

Indicators (metrics) represent the evaluative criteria, including accuracy, recall, F1 score, among others.

Processing time denotes the duration required for an indexing method to process a dataset, an aspect

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particularly pertinent in real-time applications.

The utilization of Tezauri in digital libraries:

Leveraging knowledge resources such as thesauruses offers substantial advantages in automating the processes of indexing, classification, summarization of words and terms, as well as encoding semantic relationships among them. Two notable types of relationships are synonymous relations and hypernyms/hyponyms, serving to enhance context processing. This enhancement is exemplified by the capacity to refine or generalize indexing through the use of general or specific terms and the inclusion of synonymous terms.

Technologies for the automatic creation of thesauruses:

Addressing the issue of thesaurus scarcity has prompted numerous studies on automatic thesaurus generation. While general language thesauri like WordNet are comprehensive, they exhibit deficiencies in specific domains. Specialized thesauri often suffer from information gaps within their specific areas. Consequently, efforts have been directed toward developing technologies for automatic thesaurus generation. Researchers have dedicated significant efforts to this domain, grappling with linguistic challenges associated with describing synonyms, hypernyms/hyponyms, and other semantic relationships, which pose considerable difficulties [2,12]. This research domain closely aligns with ontological studies focused on extracting information from text.

In 2010, Mansell et al. introduced methods for expanding thesauri through a combination of machine learning and NLP capabilities, testing their approach on Mesh and WordNet systems. Conversely, Eckert et al. employed expert judgment regarding relationships and relative commonalities of terms to construct a dynamically changing hierarchy of concepts. Although they did not employ NLP methods, their research suggests innovative approaches to automating certain aspects.

Full Text Indexing:

Full-text indexing represents a methodology employed in information retrieval systems and databases to generate an index encompassing words or terms present in the entirety of documents. This technique entails constructing an index that includes all words encountered in documents, thereby facilitating a more comprehensive and inclusive search experience.

This approach proves particularly advantageous when dealing with diverse collections were establishing a single, standardized vocabulary poses challenges. Through full-text indexing, users gain the capability to search for terms beyond predefined vocabularies, extending to those present in documents.

In Brief:

By harnessing the capabilities of computational linguistics, numerous opportunities emerge in the development of electronic library systems. Furthermore, computational linguistics and natural language processing constitute closely intertwined disciplines concerned with

the interface between computers and human (natural) languages.

Contemporarily, these technologies assume a pivotal role in managing substantial volumes of digital data and extracting requisite information from such datasets.

Historically, the application of Natural Language Processing (NLP) predominantly featured syntactic and symbolic approaches in machine translation. These systems relied on rules to translate syntactic structures from one language to another. However, in the current landscape of document management in NLP, syntax plays a diminished role. Consequently, the application of NLP in digital library systems should emphasize computational semantics, encompassing lexical-phraseological semantics and sentence semantics at higher-level units. Indeed, text linguistics and discourse analysis advocate for research, particularly in the realm of specific approaches to generalization and classification.

In the long term, there exists a necessity to delve into the challenges of modeling not only the linguistic facets of Electronic Library (EL) management but also incorporating cognitive, communicative, or semiotic dimensions. Solutions to these challenges warrant exploration in subsequent research endeavors.

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Conceptualization of Language Units Representing Time in Different Language Systems

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Abstract

The purpose of this article is to study the comparative-functional study of temporal (time-representing) units in the system of unrelated English and Uzbek languages in our linguistics based on modern methodological principles. Studying, researching and informing the scientific community about temporality and its comparative-functional research using the latest achievements of world linguistics and advanced methods are gaining importance today.

Key Words: *language units, tense, time category, syntactic analysis, semantic analysis, syntax, tense, syntactic unit, temporal syntax, predicative syntax, linguistic method.*

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Introduction

In the world linguistics, today, research on the complex and multi-layered composition of the syntactic level in scholarly works dedicated to the grammatical system of various languages acquires special relevance. The comparative-functional study of units of language representing Time is one of the factors that ensure the rise of new fields in linguistics, as well as the integration of linguistics with other disciplines. In this article, we analyzed from the second-order fragments the case of the moment in the circle of hol, that is, the comparative-functional study of temporality, so that the sentences in which the case was involved were divided into syntaxems.

Literature review

The phenomenon of temporality has been the subject of many scientific studies in world and Uzbek linguistics. It is worth saying that in English and Uzbek, temporality is mainly experienced in connection with the activation of the moment. Effective work has been carried out in linguistics in this field. In Particular, V.N. Jigadlo, I.P. Ivanova, L.L. Iofik, A.V. Bondarco, A.M. While scholars such as Mukhin have noted different approaches to the interpretation of Hol, they have studied that hol is one of the secondary passages of the sentence through which the expression of temporality is manifested [8, 293; 4, 5-58; 10, 260]. This issue is V.G. Admoni, K.P. Akulovas are also present in views, according to which scientific - theoretical conclusions have been advanced that the case is a fragment of a sentence representing a sign of action or state [1, 3-3; 10, 3-10]. The phenomenon of temporality is attributed to the Uzbek linguist A. Gülomov, M. Askarova, R. Saifullaeva, Sh. Akramov, E. It was reviewed in the scientific research of sabrev et al. [6, 256; 14, 286; 2, 379; 12, 228]. It should also be noted separately that adherents of traditional grammatical analysis, based on the fact that any action is connected with the tense, interpret temporality within the category of grammatical tense. In particular, the semantics of the units in the syntactic layer and its variants, as well as the deictic States, comparative-functional aspects of the units in which the moment came to the place of holi, have not been specially studied.

In linguistics, the forms of expression of the category of tense are systematically studied, and instead of this category in textual composition, special attention is also paid to its position in the performance of a communicative-pragmatic task [12].

Methodology

With the expansion of the application of the "meaning to form" approach to the study of linguistic phenomena, interest in the paradigmatic aspect of the language system increased. As a result, temporality is characterized as one of the categories that organize the functional-semantic field, given that" the speaker's linguistic knowledge makes it possible to represent a single semantic category in the medium of different linguistic units". Russian linguist A. N. Gvozdev's tariff states that "moment-holi expresses different attitudes towards time or tense: (1) indicates the fulfillment of an action at a given time interval. (A) represents the occurrence of a movement in a

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certain part or period of time; (B) covers a full interval of time: (v) represents the time of repetition of the movement; (2) limits the time of the movement: (a) the period of the beginning of the movement; (b) represents the time of the end of the movement. 3) expresses that the performance of an action is incompatible with the specified time and represents its intermediate time" [7; 350].

Some linguists, on the other hand, pay attention to the semantic aspect of the moment case, interpreting it as a sentence fragment indicating the beginning, end or continuation of the action of the work. The authors of the theoretical grammar of the English language dwell on the methods of expression of the moment Hali, indicating that it is expressed using rhymes, prepositional conjugation of the noun, gerundian or gerundian devices, adjectives or adjectival devices [9, 115].

In this article, we called it temporality (Tm) syntactic-semantic mark or temporal syntaxema when analyzing the sentences in which moment holi participated into syntaxems, since we made the comparative-functional study of temporalk the main task before us. The following variants of temporality can be noted when we analyze individual statements by breaking them into syntxemes:

1. Pure temporality. *He told us on Wednesday. This syntax can be replaced by Then in the proof: He told us on Wednesday ⟶ He told us **then**.*

2. Temporal identity. *Today is my birthday.* In this sentence, the today

element can be replaced by now ravishi, but cannot be replaced by then:

*Today is my birthday ⟶**Now** is my birthday.*

3. Temporal ablative syntaxema. I think she returns from the school... To prove the existence of temporality in this unit, replacing the from preposition with after results in: ....she returns from the school ⟶ she returns after the school.

4. Temporal terminal (up to or limited to a certain time). The plans until April 12 still exist ⟶ to plan until April 12 ⟶ to plan till April 12 ⟶ to plan to April 12.

5. Temporal style (TmMn) sintaxema: Computer was used from morning till night. In proving the existence of a tarz syntax within the temporal context of a sentence, one can replace it with Transform-interrogative (in what way, how, or when-holini-thus, then-like raves:⟶

Computer was used from morning till night ⟶ In what way was computer used? ⟶ How was computer used? ⟶ Computer was used from **then** ⟶ Computer was **thus** used.

Syntactic units representing temporality can come in different syntactic positions in a sentence construction, and it is clear that different types represent variants of temporality. When viewed using the example of the Uzbek language, " when is the moment when the state expresses the moment of work-action or state? until? since when? The case when there is a response to interrogations such as the moment is called holi. Moment holi is often represented by a horse or moment

ravishi, as well as by number combinations" [9, 145]. In general, when determining the moment in the composition of the sentence in any structure? the interrogative pronoun is addressed.

In addition, the role of prepositions in the expression of the state of the moment in the sentence is incomparable. For example, when comparing at, on, in, and during, the at-hour is used to represent time, while the on-moment is used before the days of the week representing the state, while in and during are used to represent the long or short period of time:

At 7 o'clock, at 8.30, at noon;

On Monday, on the following Monday;

In the evening, in March, in Winter;

During the evening, during March, during Winter etc.

It is possible to classify the prepositions involved in representing the state of time. The statements that represent the state of the moment can also be divided into two groups, according to the fact that they express or indicate their exact time directly and indirectly:

1) Direct expressiveness of time or work movement execution period: today, now, nowadays, just, then, again etc;

2) raves that express time or work action's execution period indirectly or using text: recently, since, soon, afterwards, beforehand, first, formerly, late, later, lately, next, previously, subjectively, ultimately.

The role of binders in moment-followed adjuncts is large, of which the main ones are before, after, when, as, while, as soon as, once, now, that.

And how long is it when expressing the duration of time? the unit in which there is a response is the moment-case expression. In this case, the role of the preposition for the position takes place primarily, and the elements that represent the state of the moment work when considering a long period of information or expressing the attention of time: a year, a few days, three years: I lived in Paris for three years. For a short time expressed, the preposition can work on the place: he stayed with his friends on the weekend.

From ... while the complex preposition for the work represents the beginning of the movement at the same time as an iq and its end in a specific period: we watched 6 to 10 TV shows; from May to September we had a holiday. When used as a while binder refers to the duration of a work action or state: I cooked while the show lasted.

It is possible to include since in this type of binders. Because it also means the action of work or that the case lasts for a certain period of time: We have repaired our door twice since 2016.

When used as an Until or till preposition or binder, the work indicates the completion limit of an action or state: I talked with my friend till ten o'clock. In addition, when expressing the duration of a work action or state, the following moment statements and idioms can also be used: always, forever, recently, lately, temporarily, for the moment, for a while, for ages, etc.

Syntactic units representing the moment in the sentence structure How

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many times? or How offten? when there is a response to their interrogations, when it means that the action of the work or the situation is repeated, the following moment statements are used:

Nearly always, almost always, usually, normally, generally, regularly, often, frequently, sometimes, occasially, now and then, barely, seldom, hardly ever, scarcely ever, etc.

When viewed on the example of the Uzbek language, the punctuation serves to denote the moment of fulfillment of the action and state expressed in the composition of the sentence, and when?, since when? there will be an answer to interrogations such as: now, boya, today, yesterday, first, before, now, early, indin, morning, Morning, always, yet, etc. [Tursunov et al, 1992; 399].

About adverbial modifiers of time S.M. Makhmatkulov says: "....a predicative Syntagma formed and transformed in a position agreement can arrive in the function of moment holi. One of these is that the adjectival syntax that comes in the adjectival task is ellipsed, which is expressed by transferring the grammatical form of the adjectival form to the predicative syntax in the adjectival task" [9, 69-70].

Indeed, in place agreement, the predicative Syntagma in the function of moment holi is often given in the form of the adjective-gan (-gan+da // ganida), and they occur within transitive and intransitive verbs:

1) in the framework of transitive verbs: in words, when starting to see, when opening a mouth, when poking, when buying, when asking, repeating, when finishing, when washing, when thinking, when bringing, when putting, when asking, with word forms such as;

2) in the framework of impenetrable verbs: when one is nausea, when one is exhausted, when one goes, when one goes, when one goes, when one is empty, when one arrives, when one gets bad, when one is burned, when one is silent, when one is silent, it is expressed in verbal forms such as when one is obnoxious, when one goes, when one goes, when one goes, when one goes, when one goes, when one goes, when one goes, when one goes, when one goes, when one goes, when one goes.

For example:

1. When he arrived, he could not find a place to sit (O'.U. 8);

2. When they brought his body, one five-sum, one three-sum crumpled money came out of the pocket of his clothes (Sh. 62).

The predicative Syntagma in the form of a place agreement is also used in the form of a lying adjective. For example: on the way, on the way, on the way, on the way, on the way, on the way, on the way out, on the way, on the way, on the way, on the way, on the way, on the way, on the way, on the way, on the way, on the way, on the way, on the way, on the way, on the way, on the way, on.

For example: .... As Kasimjan left his house, Gulchehra became very sad (d.1964).U. 60);

In addition, the arrival of the predicative Syntagma in the function of the moment-holi is also carried out with the help of the moment-facilitators: then, then, before, since, since, since, etc.

All of the predicative syntagms formed with these auxiliaries – Gan

adjectival form, with the help of which the moment is manifested:

- after gan +, - sh+after gan+, Gan+after + after-sh+gan+

Negation forms are expressed using-ma+s before.

For example:

1. Was it a dessert, a touch of something more delicately handed over to the table after taking it from the table and wrapping it in a napkin paper bag (S.A. 176);

2. After returning to Tashkent, a little later we received a letter from the wife of our neighbor Hakimboy in Buryganor (S.A. 180);

3. ...Before dawn, Muzrov drove the truck "Zil-150" himself (GG', 120).

In some cases, when the predicative Syntagma arrives in the tense holi task, the verb is added to the participle in the form of Split and non-split, the adjective-R//- ar is added to the adjective-making, and the non-divisive part-s// - mas is added to the adjective-making. For example: less than two weeks later, he received an answer (O'.U.12 8);

In the Payt holi task, predicative syntagmas are also expressed since+Gan+, since +Gan+, using +gan sari, +Gan sayin, starting with + Gan+, with +ish+I:

4. It turns out that we have been here longing since the morning, looking out the window (S.A. 198);

1. From the arrival of spring, Young – Young neighboring girls would be visible on the roofs (GG, 68) ;

2. As the agranome increases, our yield decreases (GG, 63;

5. On the day at the Tashkent station, the wagon, which was heated like an oven at the bus station, did not cool down until the morning (S.A. 177);

Conclusion.

In general, both non-sister languages have different interpretations of the representation of the moment case and their semantics in the sentence structure. Simple sentences are expressed in both languages by means of tense syllables, prepositional conjunctions. While the role of relative pronouns (in English) and connectives, representing tense or Tense, is greater in the case of adverbial adverbs, in Uzbek it is expressed mainly using adjectives and adverbs of tense. As a result of such an analysis of the state of tense (temporality) in the composition of a sentence, English and Uzbek languages create the following possibilities: firstly, it is possible to study the content and formality of syntactic units in a sentence; secondly, it justifies the classification of sentences syntactically and syntactically-semantically; thirdly, the analysis of elements in the sentence device by breaking them into syntaxes gives the opportunity to study system relations in syntax, since the syntactic-semantic character forms the content of each syntaxes, thanks to which the researcher has the opportunity to determine the paradigmatic series of syntaxes;fourth, opens a wide way to the use of the method of linguistic analysis, namely modeling and; besinci, the results of the analysis of temporality and its deictic properties into syntaxes, i.e. the system relations of the identified syntaxes and their variants based on expert methods, serve as the main base for comparative-functional research of the

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category of temporality in non-sister languages.

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Lexical-Semantic Characteristics of Pottery Terms in English, Uzbek and Tajik Languages

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Abstract

This article analyzes the lexical-semantic features of pottery terms in English, Uzbek and Tajik languages. In addition to the study and analysis of the lexical-semantic features of pottery terms in comparative languages, polysemy, assimilation and various linguistic phenomena such as synonymy are observed, and this article also reveals issues of combining terms with supernatural phenomena. It has been proven that in the terminology system of English, Uzbek and Tajik languages there are many terms that differ from each other in some features of use.

Key Words: *lexical level, pottery terms, word, term, lexical analysis, lexical units, terminology.*

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Introduction

Pottery, recognized as the oldest folk craft, poses challenges for experts in understanding its vocabulary. The terms associated with pottery have not been thoroughly studied and researched, which creates difficulties for ceramicists who rely on Russian terms and frequently need to explain them in their native language. The words and terms related to pottery hold significant historical information and form an important part of the scientific vocabulary in English, Uzbek, and Tajik languages. As society progresses, the language's vocabulary encounters foreign words and terms related to human activities, and its development relies on human intellect and thinking. Pottery is intimately connected to clay and soil, as the primary material for creating pottery is derived from the Earth's crust.

Literature review

The examination and investigation of specific linguistic domains and terminologies is not a recent practice. The initial research efforts focused on analyzing vocabulary and terms in the Uzbek and Tajik languages can be traced back to the 1950s and 1960s. Notably, Tajik linguists M. Rustamov [1972] and N. Sharofov [1974] played a significant role in this study. They conducted an analysis and discussion of Tajik industry terms, professional jargon, and international words.

Furthermore, several Tajik linguists and scientists, such as A. Tursunov [1963], Sh. Rustamov [1981], D. Khojaev [1988], M. Shukurov [1991], R. Ghaforov [1991], D. Saymiddinov [2001], M. Kasimova [2007], and others, have contributed through separate articles and works focusing on the classification of terms, distinguishing between terms and common words, the distinctive usage of terms, the position of language in the lexical structure. These scholars have conducted analyses on the formation, development, and linguistic characteristics of various Tajik terms, with a particular emphasis on geographical studies. Jamatov [2016], Sh. Karimov [2021], M. Jo'raeva [2019], H. Jo'raev [2019], M. Komilov [2020] and others studied and discussed the lexical, semantic and structural features of various terms in the Tajik and English languages from the point of view of comparison and interaction.

Research methodology.

This study focuses on examining and analyzing the lexical-semantic characteristics of pottery terminology across different languages. It explores various linguistic phenomena such as polysemy, assimilation, and synonymy within the vocabulary and terms related to pottery. Additionally, the article reveals the challenges associated with combining pottery terms with supernatural phenomena.

The term "clay" is considered one of the main terms in the field of pottery; it has many meanings and is explained in the sources as follows: "A sticky soil, soil, clay, a mixture of soil and water and that hardens or dries over time. The Uzbek equivalent of clay is "Gil", and in interpretive cultures it has the following meanings: "Clay is a type of soil that is soft when wet and hard when dry. Clay is shaped and baked to make things like pots and bricks"; a hard, sticky fine-grained soil that can be molded when wet, dried and baked

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to make bricks, pottery; sediment finer than clay, usually with particles smaller than 0.002 mm; hardened clay surface for tennis court; clay court; the material of the human body is lifeless clay" [6; 24] - hard, sticky, fine-grained soil, processed wet and after drying and firing, used for its manufacture. Pottery and pottery products; particles are smaller than clay, the top layer of hardened soil used as a tennis court surface; dead soil. Of the five meanings listed, only the first, second and third meanings indicate that the word "clay" is used as a term in the field of pottery.

There are many terms in the terminology system of English, Uzbek and Tajik languages that differ from each other according to some features of their use. It should be noted that there is also a structural difference between similar words. Therefore, depending on their morphological affiliation, synonyms of comparative languages can be divided into the following structural groups: a) simple synonyms, that is, synonyms consisting of only one stem: jar, bowl, cup, jug, pot; b) derivative synonyms that has dependent clause within affixes according to their structure: pot, cup, guldon, sunny, humdon. c) complex synonyms, that is, synonyms consisting of two or more roots: clay potter, potter [2;140], clay potter, clay potter, half-palm. For example, the compound term "obdasta" consists of two roots, that is, water and dasta, and its synonyms are another compound noun denoting hand washing, an artificial noun sun and a simple noun [3; 450]. The equivalent of the English term obdasta is a jug with a narrow neck. So, the phenomenon of synonymy is

characteristic of ceramic terms of English, Uzbek and Tajik languages, and in most cases, many of these terms can be used interchangeably. It is worth noting that, on the one hand, homonyms appear in pottery terminology due to the difference in meaning of words, and on the other hand, their appearance in literary language is a real order. In addition, many of the homonyms arise as a result of large differences in the meaning of a number of words between different fields of science and technology and industry and production. It can be noted that the introduction of Russian-international words and terms into the vocabulary of the Tajik and Uzbek languages has a historical factor, and one of such factors is the accession of the Central Asian countries to the Russian Empire. Russian-international terms are an important part of the vocabulary of the ceramics industry and are related to the names of ceramic products and ceramic products: factory, shop, tube, stove, glaze, tile, souvenir, majolica, service, decanter, samovar, cup, and others. Most of the Russian-international vowels have evolved, changed their phonetic form and adapted to the Tajik language system, and this applies primarily to colloquial words that entered the literary language.

As for the terms of the English language, it can be said that the original terms are Greek and Latin, which were imported directly from these languages and through other languages. Widespread cultural contacts of European peoples with the East caused a strong influence of the Greek language on Iranian and Indo-

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European languages. Unlike English, where most of the terms listed have Latin morphemes, Tajik has more Arabic and Russian morphemes. Chemical names, properties and physical quantities, as well as the names of some ceramics, play a key role in the formation of pottery or ceramic terms in these languages, for example: add - add, add; agent - object, material; arcanum - arcana; amorphous - amphoric; barium - barium; ceramics - ceramics; colo(u)r – color; corundum - sunboda; gypsum - gypsum; glue - glue; gravity - gravity, weight; flow - melting, melting; iron - iron; lithium - lithium [4; 15] and others.

Conclusion

In short, the terminological system of English, Uzbek and Tajik languages has many terms that differ from each other according to some features of their use. It should be noted that there is also a structural difference between similar words. So, the phenomenon of synonymy is characteristic of ceramic terms of English, Uzbek and Tajik languages, and in most cases, many of these terms can be used interchangeably. It is worth noting that, on the one hand, homonyms appear in pottery terminology due to the difference in meaning of words, and on the other hand, their appearance in literary language is a real order. In addition, many of the homonyms arise as a result of large differences in the meaning of a number of words between different fields of science and technology and industry and production.

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Linguistic Units Representing the Category of State in Uzbek Language

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Abstract

The purpose of this article is to study the stative category in the Uzbek language, identifying which word combinations include units expressing stativity, the syntactic place of elements expressing stativity in the structure of a sentence, classification of words, expression of stativity and other issues. Indeed, the study of issues belonging to this category is associated not only with the structure of the sentence, but requires a detailed description of the changes occurring at the lexico-semantic, morphological and syntactic levels of the language under the influence of linguistic factors. Another important aspect of this article is that most lexemes denoting stativity are mixed with other groups of words and placed in a separate classification. In the sentence structure of the Uzbek language, units representing stativeness are widely used.

Key Words: *stative category, stative units, syntactic units, groups of words, syntactic analysis.*

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Introduction

Since the first years of Independence, special attention has been paid to the development of education. The reforms carried out in our country, along with modern linguistics, play an important role in expanding the scope of intercultural communication. As President of the Republic of Uzbekistan Sh.M. Mirziyoyev noted, "Education and enlightenment are important in improving the intellectual and spiritual capabilities of not only young people, but also our entire society" [1]. Therefore, scientific research as well as the field of linguistics are one of the main sources of the country's development.

During this period, linguistics reached a certain extent in our republic. The reasons of this are the correct use of the experimental results of the world science, the practical application of these results and conclusions are giving the expected effect. Currently, in addition to certain achievements, there are also important studies to be carried out, including case category in English and Uzbek and its comparative study.

In this article, the expression of the case category in the Uzbek language, and the syntactic role of language units expressing the case in the sentence structure are provided. The issues of the wide use of language units expressing stativeness in the Uzbek language sentence structure, and the study of stative unit sentence structures by separating the systematic relations of the stative category into transformation constitute the external structure of the sentence, and

analyzing it into syntaxes constitute the internal structure of the sentence.

Literature analysis

Issues such as the study of the category of case in the Uzbek language system, the state of being included of the units expressing the case in different word groups, the syntactic role of the units expressing the case in the sentence structure, and the classification of the words expressing the case are among the most relevant issues at present.

Currently, the case category and its use at the syntactic level are in the center of attention of linguists. Linguists such as L.V. Sherba, V.V. Vinogradov, B.I.Ilyish, B.S. Khaymovich, B.I. Rogovskaya, O.E. Filimonova, Andrew Koontz, N. Sweet, A.A. Abduazizov, U.U. Usmonov studies are noteworthy in learning this category. We can observe that there are different approaches to the study of the stative category. As V.V. Vinogradov stated, the category of stativeness complements the quality and can be used in its place.

The stative category in languages that belong to different systems has not been researched on the syntactic level as a morphological category based on the method of transformation. In this article, the use of syntactic units in the Uzbek language in which stative words are combined in place of other words and the aspects of their acquisition of specific meaning in other syntaxes are studied.

Research methodology

The semantics of the syntactic units representing stativeness in the Uzbek language sentence structure is analyzed comparatively and typologically. This approach to

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sentence analysis, in turn, serves to find a solution to some controversial problems encountered in syntactic typology and the semantic field at the syntactic level of theoretical grammar. The practical significance is that the analysis of the sentence structure based on linguistic methods encourages students to study the semantic field at the syntactic level in depth in practical grammar lessons.

In the Uzbek language grammar, the case category is not interpreted separately and its expression in the sentence has not been studied. This category is used under the functional forms of the verb in Uzbek grammar. We know that the main function of verbs in a sentence is to become predicative. So as to be used in this form, the verb must come in certain forms. Such forms are called relational forms of verbs. Relational forms include the form of verb for both singular and plural subject, tense, mood of verbs. If any verb has these forms, it can be used as predicative[7,73]. In the grammar of the Uzbek language, the case category is formed by verb.

For example: When they entered the room, we straightened ourselves jumping down.

It is observed that the case category is expressed in the verb structure in the process of expressing its lexical-grammatical features. In the Uzbek language, the category that expresses the movement of people or things is called the case category. In the grammar of the Uzbek language, you do not interpret the case by dividing it into groups, as in English. However, in the Uzbek grammar, when interpreting the

case, we rely on the groups that are divided according to what the verbs mean.

1. Physical activity. In particular, action verbs indicate the state of action that occurred as a result of the physical activity of a person or thing.

For example: run - he got tired of running - He got tired of running towards the mountain.

2. Status verbs. It refers to the internal experiences of individuals and the transition of things from one state to another.

For example: sleep, laugh, cry, grin, rush, laugh, blush, get fat, swell, be offended, be happy, laugh, be afraid, etc.

In the Uzbek language, the case category is formed in groups, which are divided according to what kind of action-state the verbs express.

- Verbs of speech: speak, whisper, speak, ask, beg, etc.

- Verbs of mental activity: to think, to think, to fantasize, to judge, to imagine, etc.

- Verbs of physical activity: draw, write, make, create, paint, erase, clean, eat, etc.

- Mood verbs: tremble, shake, rejoice, smile, revive.

However, the case category is also expressed by other verbs. The case category in Uzbek differs from English in that it cannot express action in other word groups. In English grammar, the case category is defined by the 3 components that determine the grammar of the English language and participate in the development of its categories in a complex process, i.e. syntactic, phonological and semantic components.

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For example: "She was crying, she replied " Lemel is a stranger and I don't want to marry a stranger".

"was crying" used in the sentence expresses the state of the subject. The case category can represent not only action categories, but also pronouns.

For example: "I wish I could manage alone".

In this sentence, we can show that the case can act as a personal pronoun by expressing that it can manage alone. For example: alone.

In Uzbek linguistics, A. Gulomov's "Verb. The work entitled "Materials from the current Uzbek language course" is a fundamental work on the study of the verb [9; 88]. In it, among other things, the following points are expressed: "A verb is a group of words that expresses an action or a state. These two lexical features of verbs are the basis for dividing them into two types: verbs of action and verbs of state.

The word action is used in grammar in a very broad sense. It includes actions such as running, sleeping, walking, the dynamics of which are clearly felt, but also events such as hearing, remembering, growing old; However, phenomena that show a physical state, such as "getting old", are not considered actions in our usual understanding. Since the word "action" is used in grammar in such a wide sense, we can include the meaning of the situation and say that "verb is a group of words indicating action and situation".

In the grammar of the Uzbek language, the case category is not used as an independent separate category. In the Uzbek language, words that express a lexical meaning and act as a part of a sentence that answers a certain question are called independent word groups.

Conclusion

There are morphological, syntactic, lexical and phonological approaches to the study of stative category in world linguistics. In this article, structures with stative elements of the stative category were studied at the syntactic level using comparative-typologically accurate linguistic methods (transformational and syntax analysis, distributive analysis method).

This linguistic method is a new approach to the analysis of stative units in both languages. In particular, determining the external and internal structures of sentences with a stative unit, that is, the syntactic connections of the syntactic units in the sentence, identifying their differential syntactic signs and their semantic field, and their comparative analysis is one of the unique new approaches of modern syntactic typology.

In this article, the category of stative is recognized as a category in the English and Uzbek languages, and after studying its aspects applied by foreign and Uzbek linguists, we present several innovations in the analysis of syntactic units with stative based on linguistic methods that we approach from a comparative-typological point of view. we witnessed that it was achieved. We have analyzed the fact that the category of stativeness is not considered a separate word group in English and Uzbek languages, having put the stative units into transformations, dividing them into statistical distributive and syntaxes.

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Complications in Translation of English Phraseological Units with Color Designations

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Abstract
This article deals with the complications in translation of English phraseological units with color Designations in modern linguistics as well as author tries to exemplify several notions from prominent scholars who contributed in the sphere of linguistics.
Key Words: *composition, identical, phraseological units, peculiarities.*

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Directly following separating created by our analyses, we can observe that interest and significance to rich and enlightening specialty of talk, which has been saved by our family for quite a while, has extended. In this relationship there are a ton of issues in comparable composition and understanding theory, which have been analyzed at this point are keeping it together for the assessment continuation. Consequently, understanding requests of phraseological units into various lingos, concentrate all good of their presence generally speaking innovative understanding are the primary endeavors in Translation Studies Science.

"Phraseological units in translation versions", public ethnic attributes in the semantics of phraseological units, their capacities, identical phraseological units and phraseological locution deciphered in exactly the same words are given. The researcher accepts that it is vital for focus on the semantic construction of fixed state in the interpretation language and subsequent to concentrating on other scientists' viewpoints the creator reached a resolution that: "Word for word, adequate and free translation methods are used to translate phraseological combination. Stylistic functions' transferrings of phraseological units translated word for word, adequate and free differ from each other. The main component of phraseological locution in every language is close association between set of examples which can be reason for phraseological blend and material, social and moral

culture of individuals. All in all, it is very conceivable to know social public traditions and customs of individuals through importance and historical underpinnings of the essential part of phraseological units. Phraseological locution showed up from individuals' perspective experience can have no sufficient or close identical in the subsequent language. For instance, fixed phrases used to denote symbolic function through the meaning, symbolic wordcombinations which have national distinctive indications (rainy day, black envy); phrases concerning to theologicalreligious concepts and notions (to fill up the cup, the salt of the earth); idioms (Cousin seven times removed, to twirl the goat horn, to tighten one's belt); phrases based on national-daily philosophy (women's brain, goldfish memory); phraseological units centered around customs and traditions (to recruit smb) can have no exact and adequate equivalent meanings in Uzbek language as they are mainly related to the national-cultural entity of Russian people, it is quite common situation" [1].

To translate phraseological units from one language into another is one of the most difficult tasks. It is not enough to transfer complete meaning of the idioms in the translation; a translator should try to convey national spirit of the fixed phrase. Kazakh, Kyrgyz, Turkish scholars have common opinions about the given point. We can prove our view by the conception of certain researchers. Kyrgyz academic N.K.Abdyrakmatova considers that «to translate phraseological units from one language

into another one includes national colour peculiarities, author's use of phraseological units in figurative meaning (author's, personal), problems of correct transferring of the phraseological units used in particular historical time. A translator should know basic etymology of each fixed phrase, speech culture of the people and then choose a proper equivalent. In its turn, this equivalent should be equal in grammatical form, emotional-expressive meaning, internal structure and stylistic use» [2]. According to A.Aldasheva, a translator should find suitable equivalent. For this purpose it is very essential to know to the letter and master «background information», «background knowledge», an idea and main content of an original, language-stylistic skill of an author, lexical-grammatical system of both languages. A translator must distinguish two languages, his proper and appropriate translation can raise quality level of translation version [3].

Of specific significance in the advanced world is the exchange of societies, the primary guideline and motivation behind which is "equivalent communication societies in view of common comprehension of their delegates, shared figuring out in the entirety of its viewpoints - etymological, socio-social, axiological", in this association, the investigation of the remarkable and widespread in different societies is particularly important.

One of the aftereffects of the advancement of philological issues of the most recent couple of many years is the rise of another logical course - axiological etymology (linguoaxiology), which manages the investigation of values reflected in language and language appraisal.

The axiological aspect of the study of language involves determining what a person considers valuable and how language indicators function, which determine knowledge about good and bad, beautiful and ugly, virtuous and vicious, pleasant and unpleasant, useful and harmful, etc. in the lexical system of the language.

Both science and research methods are developing due to the flow of time. To distinguish, to differ phraseological units are rather complicated task for a translator. For example, meaning of the multicomponent set expression can be different; some of them can have historical information. During translation process rigorous meaning of phraseological units can be changed or even mispresented, if a translator does not know full-scale nature of an original language.

To break down interpretation strategies of set articulations from the hypothetical side, separating interpretation techniques for all proper expressions of the given language is essential. Numerous researchers resort to this etymological order as a commencement, which separate phraseological units as translatable and not adaptable, as per various compound parts and their figurative differentiations. We are aware of the following phrases: contraction fixed phrases, idioms, combined phraseological locutions metaphorical units, accordant and phraseological words, in compliance with the classification of Sh.Bally, V.V.Vinogradov, B.A.Laryn,

N.M.Shanskiy. In accordance with Ya.I.Rescker, this classification is convenient method in translation theory and practice. However, he considers only contraction fixed phrases and combined phraseological locutions. He contemplates that we should use complete variation method while translating contraction fixed phrases and image alteration way during interpretation of combined phraseological locutions [4].

S.Vlahov and S.Floryn show the following ways of translation of phraseological units from an original language into translation language:

1) To translate fixed phrases with the help of equivalents in translation language;

2) To translate phraseological units by means of variant in translation language;

3) To translate set expressions with the use of non-phraseological language means, If there is neither equivalent nor other version of the phraseological units in an original language.

Semi phraseological identical is presence of a few adaptations of phraseological units made an interpretation of from unique language into interpretation one, in particular assuming that there are not many parts of the decent expression in a unique language, then, at that point, there will be numerous components in an interpretation language and going against the norm, assuming there are a ton of units in a phraseological locution, in an interpretation language they can be only a couple. This sort of translation can frequently be met.

Expression evaluation - phraseology. The study of the value

picture of the world based on the basic values reflected in the phraseology of two languages of different systems, and also ways of generating estimated values in the mind and language seems to us promising for identifying similarities and differences in the process of perception and evaluation of reality by people belonging to different linguistic cultures.

Mental designs and cycles that underlie evaluative implications and evaluative articulations, as well as concealed in the language framework semantic components that go about as a connection between lexico-semantic assessment framework and the social experience of the public social local area, started to be concentrated on in present day etymology moderately as of late.

One of the targets of our review is to decide the causes and semantic components that are associated with the development of the assessed worth of phraseological units (PU) with variety terms in Russian and English, which is in accordance with the pattern required clarification of the noticed realities in the advanced study of language. To be sure, "just the investigation of methods of collaboration and association of a wide range of information carries us nearer to grasping the substance language correspondence", regarding which "the fundamental assignment of the overall hypothesis of language is to make sense of the component of handling normal language, constructing a model of its comprehension".

In examinations gave to the axiological components of language, the mental methodology is utilized to

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uncover the particulars of the portrayal of information about the frameworks of values that exist on the planet and public societies, the use of mental investigation to evaluative semantics of phraseological units with variety terms in Russian and English can assist with recognizing widespread and explicit highlights during the time spent shaping an assessment in these dialects. Language is related with the psychological and mental parts of human existence, and evaluation emerges because of the presence of input. between reflecting reality (nature, social relations and the inward, mental world) by the subject and the consequence of appearance to him. The course of reasonable reconciliation of two beginning mental spaces, which are the constituent parts phraseological unit, one of which is the idea of "variety", may have its own the particularity given by the job of variety in the conceptualization of the real world and in the development of an expected worth in the construction of phraseological units.

The examined corpus of phraseological units with the part "variety" in Russian and English (217 phraseological units in Russian and 324 in English) can be separated into a few semantic gatherings as indicated by the component on which assessments are produced. Establishments evaluations are level headed in nature and are framed affected by the noticed properties of articles, social and verifiable realities, close to home and tactile discernment, making positive or negative responses various kinds of items. In light of the way that the appraisal an indispensable piece of phraseological meaning, and the psychological premise undertone is an affiliation, this characterization will be based on the standard of recognizing different sorts of affiliations. In each gathering, thus, subgroups of phraseological units can be recognized, varying in the level of reconsidering of the first space containing the "variety" part: variety can be utilized either in a real sense or metaphorically.

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Source of Idiom Origin in Modern English Language in Comparison with Uzbek and Russian

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Abstract

This article deals with the source of idiom origin in modern English language in comparison with Uzbek and Russian in modern linguistics as well as author tries to exemplify several notions from prominent scholars who contributed in the sphere of linguistics.
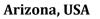
Key Words: *primordial, interlingual, phraseological units, proverbs.*

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The source of idiom origin in Modern English language is very various.

We could separate all phraseological units into two gatherings: early-stage English phraseological units and receptions. On its part, all selections are isolated into interlingual appropriations and intralingual receptions.

Therefore, we could single out 3 groups of phraseological units:

1. Primordial English phraseological units

2. Interlingual adoptions, for example: phraseological units adopted from foreign languages and translated by any type of translation

3. Intralingual adoptions, for example: phraseological units adopted from the American English or other variants of the English language.

Primordial English phraseological units

As a rule, phraseological units of the English language are early-stage English expressions, which creators are obscure. We could give a few wide-spread instances of such expressions, which were made by individuals: bite off more than one can chew.

Early-stage English phraseological units are associated with customs, customs and English mainstream thinking, yet in addition with genuine, legendry, authentic realities. We might want to give a few models associated with each point referenced previously.

1. Phraseological units connected with traditions and customs of English people.

Baker's dozen – according to old English custom, people who sells bread received thirteen loaves of bread instead of twelve, and thirteenth loaf was not paid by sellers at that; good wine needs no bush –, that translates into Uzbek as yaxshi mol, o'zini o'zi maqtaydi-according to old custom, innkeepers hung out one ivy bush, which meant there was some wine on sale.

2. Phraseological units connected with actual.

Put somebody in the cart-cart was a carriage in which criminals were delivered to execution yard or were driven over the town with a shame; a strange bedfellow - It is a part of proverb «adversity makes strange bedfellows». In Middle Ages in England, especially in XVI – XVII centuries there were not much single beds, so same-gender people slept together.

3. Phraseological units connected with names:

The phraseological unit according to E. Cocker – the author of arithmetic book; Tom, Dick and Harry, these were very popular names in England

4. Phraseological units connected with popular belief:

A black sheep translates into Uzbek as «oilaning iffati» (according to old popular belief, a black sheep was a stamp of devil); an unlicked cub which in the Uzbek language means «labida ona suti qurimagan» (there was the belief when bear cubs were born a female bear licks them into shape)

5. Phraseological units connected with historical facts:

As well be hung for a sheep as a lamb (the old English law was that if you stole a sheep you would be hung).

At this point we noticed that proverbs in English have only one

meaning, we cannot change or add any word, but we could translate these proverbs into Uzbek in two or more ways without any changing in their meaning [1]. And with this we want to say that the Uzbek language is a very rich language with words and word-meanings, while translators and interpreters translate Uzbek proverbs by naming the sense of the proverb, they do not translate every word, which could be unknown to foreigners.

We have found a big problem, connected with the translation of these phraseological units. For example, if we did not know how to translate «according to Cocker» into the Uzbek language, we would translate it literally and we received «Kokerga qaraganda» [20, 13]. But in the Uzbek language it does not mean anything. And we understand it as Cocker said something, but not as right.

So, we need to read all phraseological expressions which we are interested in, and when we see the difference in translation from English into the Uzbek languages, we need to learn them by heart. It will make easier to translate these expressions later.

Adoption from Russian language translated by any type of translation.

A great amount of English phraseological units is connected with the antique mythology, history and literature. The majority of such phraseological units have an international character, as they are found in many languages.

To the antique mythology we could attribute the next phraseological units: Achilles' heel (or the heel of Achilles) – ахиллесова пята; the apple of discord – яблоко раздора; Augean stable(s) –

авгиевы конюшни; the golden age – золотой век (this expression we meet at the book «Works and days», which was written by Greek poet Hesiod. In this book there was written how people lived at the Saturn century, they lived like gods, without cares, wars and hard work); a labour of Hercules (the labours of Hercules) (also a Herculean labour or Herculean labours) – геркулесов труд; a labour of Sisyphus (also A Sisyphean labour) – сизифов труд; Lares and Penates – лары и пенаты, то, что создает уют, домашний очаг (lares and penates at ancient time in Roman mythology were Gods, who protected hearthside).

With Homer poems «Iliad» and «Odyssey» were connected the expressions: between Scylla and Charybdis – между Сциллой и Харибдой, в безвыходном положении; Homeric laughter – гомерический хохот (this set phrase was connected with the description of God's laugh by Homer); on the knees of the Gods – одному богу известно; Penelope's web – «планы Пенелопы», тактика оттягивания; winged words – крылатые слова.

The expression the unwritten law – неписанный закон belongs to Athenian law-giver Solon.

From philosophic works of Plato such expressions were taken: hand on the torch – передавать светоч знаний, мудрость; Platonic love – платоническая любовь.

The expression beg the question – начинать с желательного для себя вывода, а не с доказательства belongs to Aristotle.

Some expressions come from fables of Aesop and other Greek fairy-tales

and fables: blow hot and cold – колебаться, делать взаимоисключающие вещи, занимать двойственную позицию; kill the goose that laid the golden eggs – убить курицу, несущую золотые яйца; cry wolf too often (also cry wolf) – поднимать ложную тревогу (from the fable about shepherd, who had fun to cheat people crying «Wolf! Wolf! »); the lion's share – львиная доля; cherish (nourish or warm) a viper in one's bosom – пригреть змею на груди; an ass in a lion's skin – осел в львиной шкуре.

The majority of English phraseological expressions were connected with Ancient Rome. For example: a bed of roses – счастливая, безмятежная жизнь. (Nowadays this expression is used in negative sentences, take for instance, life is not a bed of roses – жизненный путь не усыпан розами. In Ancient Rome rich men strewed their couch with rose leaves).

Many of English phraseological expressions were adopted from Latin language through French. But there are some expressions, which were adopted from the Latin language escapes French. This we could prove with that there are not such expressions in the French language: anger is a short madness – «гнев – недолгое безумие» (lat. ira furor brevis est - Гораций); forewarned, forearmed – «заранее предупрежденный – заранее вооруженный, кто предупрежден – вооружен» (lat. praemonitus, praemunitus); like cures like – клин клином вышибают (lat. similia similibus curantur); one fool makes many – глупость заразительна

(lat. unius, dementia dementes efficit multos).

Some phraseological expressions were adopted from the French language: after us the deluge – после нас хоть потоп (fr. apres nous Ie deluge); appetite comes with eating – аппетит приходит во время еды (fr. rappetit vient en mangeant); burn the candle at both ends – прожигать жизнь (fr. bruler la chandelle par les deux bouts); castles in Spain – воздушные замки (fr. chateaux en Espagne. This expression is connected with epos «Chansons de Geste», whose heroes, knights got tenure unconquerable castles in Spain); the game is not worth the candle – игра не стоит свеч (fr. Ie jeu n'en vaut pas la chandelle); gilded youth – золотая молодежь (fr. jeunesse doree); it goes without saying – это само собой разумеется (fr. cela va sans dire) [2].

Not many English phraseological expressions were adopted from Old French Language. For example, cry havoc – разрушить, производить опустошение; подорвать, нанести тяжелый удар (OF. crier havot); curry favour with somebody – заискивать, подлизываться (OF. estriller fauvel – чистить скребницей рыжую лошадь (red horse was a sign of cunning and lies).

In the English language we could find adoptions from different languages:

1. The Russian language: the Sick Man of Europe – «больной человек Европы» (the Russian King Nicolay I named Turkey with such words. Nowadays this expression means any country in Europe with poor economic position).

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2. The Danish language: an ugly duckling – «гадкий утенок» (the person who was estimated lower his own value).

3. The Dutch language: forlorn hope – отряд, выполняющий опасное задание или обреченный на верную гибель; (Dutch verloren hoop); still life – натюрморт (Dutch stilleven).

4. The Italian language: every dog is a lion at home – всяк кулик в своем болоте велик (It. Ogni cane e leone a casa sua – каждая собака – лев у себя дома).

5. The Chinese language: lose face – потерять престиж, быть униженным (Cn. tiu lien).

6. Phraseological expressions connected with Arabic literature: from the fairy-tale «One thousand and one nights» were adopted next expressions: Aladdin's lamp – волшебная лампа Аладдина (talisman, which hits all spots of its owner); rub the lamp – легко осуществить свое желание [2].

We need to mention that analogue phraseological expressions are translated variously into different languages. That into the English, French and Spanish languages is translated as word-combination, but in German it is translated very often as a difficult word. Some phraseological expressions in modern languages correspond as calking from old classic languages, especially from the Latin language.

So, Latin phraseological expression sub rosa – секретно, тайно (a rose was a symbol of silence in Ancient Rome) is translated into English as under the rose by calking, into French – sous la rose, into German – unter die Rose.

Latin phraseological expression sal Atticum – тонкое остроумие, изящная шутка was translated into the Russian, English, French, German, Italian and other languages by calking: «аттическая соль» - Attic salt – sel attique – attisches Salz – sali attici. This expression belongs to Cicerone [3].

A lot of phraseological expressions coincide in Russian, English, French, Italian and German without any adoption. Take for instance, перелетная птица (eng. a bird of passage, fr. oiseau de passage, it. uccello migratoro, ger. Zugvogel).

Not always we could find the sources of adoption of any phraseological expression with accuracy. So the translation of the proverb, a close mouth catches no flies – «слово – серебро, молчание – золото» could be from Italian proverb in bocca serrata mai non entro mosca or from Spain proverb en boca cerrada no entran moscas.

The set phrase make love – «ухаживать за кем-либо», could be translated from French expression faire 1'amour or from Italian expression far 1'amore.

Language – is a weapon of literary man, as a gun of a soldier. The better the gun, the better the soldier Maxim Gorkiy.

We cannot disagree with these words. If there were not any adoptions from any languages the language would be poor in lexicon.

The lexicological wealth of language consists of synonyms, phraseological expressions, neologisms, polysemantic words, adoptions and obsolete words.

With this we need to mention that the Russian language has all things mentioned above.

In history of the Russian language we need to note that there were a lot of words which we do not use nowadays and even do not know them. But in XIX century in the Russian language there were a lot of changes, appeared a lot of new words and adoptions from the English language.

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Zoonyms in Terms of Equinomial-Hyponymic Relations

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Abstract
This article deals with the zoonyms in terms of equinomial-hyponymic relations in modern linguistics as well as author tries to exemplify several notions from prominent scholars who contributed in the sphere of linguistics.
Key Words: *zoonym, lexeme, domestic animals, morphological.*

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A language's vocabulary is made up of many interrelated lexico-semantic microsystems, also known as lexico-semantic fields, which make up the language's internal systems. In contrast, lexico-semantic microsystems (fields) are a type of system in connection to other lexical-semantic microsystems, where "semantic microstructures" are used to refer to equionyms, synonyms, and oppositions (i.e., antonyms and conversives).

Extensive literature is devoted to the study of the microstructure of synonymy, antonymy and conversives, in which their linguistic nature is comprehensively considered.

However, the nature of the phenomenon of equinonymy has not yet been fully studied in the field of linguistics due to the lack of a special study devoted to the study of this important variety of semantic microstructure in vocabulary.

Brief information about equinames is given in the works of M.V. Nikitin [1], in which this phenomenon is considered as one of the functional-semantic members of the hyperonym paradigm.

Equonyms are defined as words of the same level of generalization with a common hypernym, and a hypernym is the name of a generic concept.

The names of specific concepts in relation to their common hypernym are called hyponyms, and in relation to each other, at the same level of generalization, they are called equinyms.

This implies the conclusion that equinames are hyponyms of the same level of generalization, taken in relation to each other. So, the names "father" and "mother" are hyponyms relative to the hypernym "parent"; the same names in relation to each other are equinames. Between the equinyms-hyponyms of certain hypernyms, there are general and universal constructions of semantic (hierarchical) systems of class units in the lexicon.

It should be noted that hyponyms and equinames do not always coincide in the full sense of the word. So, for example, the words "horse", "elephant", "lion", "tiger", "leopard", etc. are hyponyms in relation to the concept of "animal". But between these names there are no relations of an equinomic nature. O. Bozorov [2], Z. Bozorova, X. Kholmkov dealt with the peculiarities of the study of this problem.

Equonymic relations are found between generic varieties of concepts listed above as hyponyms. So, for example: goat (echki), ram (qo'y) in the Uzbek language and the above lexemes of the English language are hyponyms, domestic animals (in English), uy hayvonlari (in Uzbek) act as their hypernyms. In turn, each of these lexemes can also be a hypernym within the corresponding hypernym. Here the hierarchical structure of the semantic plan of the hypernym "domestic animals" \\ "uy hayvonlari" is observed.

The hierarchical structure of these constructions is explained by the fact that the phrases "domestic animals" in English and "uy hayvonlari" in Uzbek are hypernyms of the first stage, equal to the concept of "lexico-semantic field". The words goat (echki), ram (qo'y) and others appear to be

hypernyms of the second stage, the semantic volumes of which consist of the rows "she-goat, he-goat, kid" (= goat); "sheep, ram, lamb" (= sheep) – in English, and "echki, taka, uloq" (= echki), "sovliq, qo'chqor, qo'zi" (= qo'y) in Uzbek.

The semantic plan of hypernyms is wide in scope compared to the semantic plan of equinames, therefore, within the framework of the semantic plan of hypernyms, the meanings of two or more independent words are combined that function as equinames in relation to the corresponding (definite) hypernym. The wide-ranging nature of the semantic plan of hypernyms is explained by the fact that they neutralize individual distinguishing semes according to the signs of natural gender and degree of age, which act as the main, dominant seme meanings of their equinames, semantically dependent on individual hypernym lexemes.

So, for example, in the semantic structure of the lexeme "horse" – as a word – a hypernym, the meanings of lexemes dependent on it are syncretically combined: stallion, mare, foal. In the semantic structure of the lexeme "horse" an important role is played by the phenomenon of neutralization, which is carried out according to two distinctive features (semes):

a) according to the sign (seme) of the natural gender "male – female" (stallion – mare) and

b) according to the sign (seme) of the degree of age (stallion – foal; mare – foal).

Now a few words about the nature and essence of the phenomenon of neutralization. The term neutralization comes from the Latin word (neutralis), it means: not applying to anything or to another. When neutralizing persistent phonetic, semantic, grammatical and other features, it is not attached to a wide class of linguistic properties. In other words, neutralization is the positional removal of the opposition of the elements of the linguistic structure.

The most important system-forming factor linking individual linguistic elements is their opposition and correlation into an integral system. The concept of neutralization was introduced into linguistics by phonologists, more precisely, by their representative N.O. Trubetskoy. The theory of neutralization was developed by N.O. Trubetskoy as part of the universal doctrine of the system of oppositions.

Since the 1960s, the theory of neutralization has been developed on the basis of morphology, syntax, semantics, and cultural history [3].

The functioning of neutralization is also actively manifested in the dictionary, which is confirmed by the presence of homonymy and polysemy of the lexical aspect. It is especially active in the system of hypernyms.

The semantic structure of all hypernyms, as mentioned above, is neutralized in relation to individual semes (features), according to which the opposite members of their paradigm – the paradigm of hypernyms – differ from each other. This idea is also confirmed by the nature of the semantic structure of individual units of the lexico-semantic field with the meaning "animal" [4].

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So, for example, the seme is neutralized on the basis of the natural gender "male – female" in the semantic structures of lexemes: cow, pig, sheep, tiger, chicken, goose, duck, etc.

The lexeme "bull" is one of the equinonymic (hyponymic) pairs of the word-hyperonym "cow" and means "male cow". To express the meaning of "female cow", the same lexical form cow is used (the equinomic paradigm of the hyperonym cow): bull – cow. In the semantics of the lexeme cow, the meanings of both the hypernym and one of its equinames (hyponym) are combined with the meaning "female animal".

The same feature is observed in the semantic structure of other lexemes with the general meaning "animal" is analyzed in other languages. For example in Russian: гусь, гусыня, гусак. In English the word goose is a hypernym for the word gander.

Even more complex is the semantic structure of the words-hyperonyms duck. In their semantic structure, the meanings of both the hypernym and one of its equinames (hyponyms) are combined. In literary English, there are no names of females in the lexemes duck. In the meanings of the female animals called duck, the same words are used. The meanings of the males of these animals are expressed by the words "drake", which are one of the equionyms (hyponyms) in relation to other equinames within the hypernyms duck.

The complexity of the semantic structure of the given words-hyperonyms is also characterized by the fact that in them the process of neutralization is observed twice. In

addition to the seme on the basis of the natural gender "male – female", in these lexemes, the seme on the basis of the degree of age is also neutralized.

These words – hypernyms denote animals of both adult and younger age:
a foal is also a horse;
a calf is also a cow;
a lamb is also a sheep;
a piglet is also a pig;
a chicken is also a chicken;
a goose is also a goose, etc.

We have analyzed some examples in which some words are illustrated – hypernyms with the meaning "animal" and their corresponding equionyms – hyponyms.

At the same time, semantic relations between equinomial-hyponymic words are significant. Hypernym words with the meaning "animal" are equiname words that differ from each other in terms of signs (semes) of natural gender and degree of age.

The complexity of the semantic structure of the given words-hyperonyms is also characterized by the fact that in them the process of neutralization is observed twice.

In addition to the seme on the basis of the natural gender "male – female", in these lexemes, the seme on the basis of the degree of age is also neutralized. These words – hypernyms denote animals of both adult and younger age: a foal is also a horse, a calf is also a cow, a lamb is also a sheep, a piglet is also a pig, etc.

We have given examples in which some words are illustrated – hypernyms with the meaning "animal" and their corresponding equionyms - hyponyms. At the same time, semantic relations between equinomial-

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hyponymic words are significant. Hypernym words with the meaning "animal" are equiname words that differ from each other in terms of signs (semes) of natural gender and degree of age.

It should be noted that the concepts of equiname and hyponym are synchronously-syncretically intertwined. An equionym is also a hyponym in relation to a certain hypernym. The difference between these two concepts is determined in relation to the nature of the direction of their connection.

Thus, the equionymic relation has the character of a horizontal connection, and the hyponymic relation has a vertical one.

For example: a paradigm of the type horse/stallion – mare – foal (horse) – is a paradigm of an equinomial relationship. The relationship between the lexemes horse – horse / stallion, horse – mare, horse – foal is a paradigm of hyperonymic-hyponymic relationship.

In other words, equinymy functions between hyponyms within a particular hypernym. The word – hypernym is dominant in relation to both the hyponym and the equiname. In the center of equinymic relations there are also cohyponymic relations. Therefore, some linguists such as L.V. Novikov [5] notes that the ratio of equinames is considered the ratio of cohyponyms.

The complexity of the linguistic plan of hypernyms in relation to equinames is also found in their comparative study on the material of languages of different grammatical systems, as evidenced by our observations on the relationship of individual hypernyms and equinames with the meaning "animal" in the English and Uzbek languages.

So, for example, the lexeme qoramol (hyperonym) in the Uzbek dictionary is equivalent of the hypernym word cow in English. We mentioned the equinames of the lexeme "cow" above. It is clear to us that the equinomial with the meaning of the male gender for the word "cow" is the lexeme bull, and the female word is the same word cow [6].

In the Uzbek language, the meaning of the male gender of the equinomial bull is conveyed by the words novvos, buqa, xo'kiz; and the meaning of the female gender is in the words g'unojin, sigir. The meaning of "calf" in the Uzbek language is expressed by the lexeme buzoq.

In the semantic structure of the lexeme buzoq the neutralization of the seme is manifested in the presence of a natural gender in it the semes of both male and female sexes are synchronously-syncretically combined.

On the other hand, the meaning of the word buzoq differs from the meanings of the previous equiname words (novvos, buqa, xo'kiz; g'unojin, sigir) in that in the semantic structure of the word buzoq, the main distinguishing feature is the semantic feature "cub", "younger than all", which functionally – semantically equal to the word calf in English.

In the Uzbek language in contrast to English between the meanings of the equinim novvos (in some dialects: juvona) – "bull at the age of 2-3 years" – buqa – "untamed bull" – xo'kiz – "bullock" there are semantic relations of a different nature, which are called

graduonomic relations (graduonomy), which is not typical for the meaning of other language.

In addition, in the semantic structure of the word bullock (xo'kiz) there is a seme "involuntarily involved in agricultural and other work", which is absent in the semantic structure of other equionyms (cohyponyms) of this word.

A similar feature (graduonomic relations) is also observed between the meanings of the words – equinames heifer (g'unojin) and cow (sigir), the semantic structure of which differs from the other in relation to the seme "degree of age"; in the semantic rarity of the word sigir the main nuclear seme is "parent", "mother"; and in semantic proximity, the word g'unojin is "young, well done".

Thus, it has been established that the semantic plan of hypernyms is wide in volume compared to the semantic plan of equinames, therefore, within the framework of the semantic plan of hypernyms, the meanings of two or more independent words are combined that function as equinames in relation to the corresponding (certain) hypernym.

The wide-ranging nature of the semantic plan of hypernyms is explained by the fact that they neutralize individual distinguishing semes according to the signs of natural gender and degree of age, which act as the main, dominant seme meanings of their equinames, semantically dependent on individual hypernym lexemes.

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Philosophical and Logical Origins of the Linguistic Understanding of Negation

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Abstract
This article deals with the philosophical and logical origins of the linguistic understanding of negation in modern linguistics as well as author tries to exemplify several notions from prominent scholars who contributed in the sphere of linguistics.
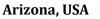***Key Words:*** *negation, affirmative, negative, logical and linguistic relations.*

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The category of negation has long attracted the attention of scientists and researchers in the field of linguistics, logic and philosophy. This category has a universal and at the same time contradictory character, which is due to the fact that different scientists interpret the concept of negation in their own way.

C. Baker believes that the negation of a statement is a repeated statement indicating that the first one is false [1]. While, most philosophers, according to P. Brown, declare that negative sentences do not carry the semantic load, in view of the fact, in a broad sense, negation expresses the idea of absence [2]. According to D. Shtelling, the first attempts to classify negative sentences were made by the ancient Greeks. Thus, Aristotle distinguished two types of negation: "predicative", in which the connection between the predicate and the subject is denied, and "phrasal", the effect of which extends to one of the semantic components of a sentence [3]. It is worth noting that this concept it formed the basis for dividing sentences into private-negative and general-negative.

Not only ancient Greek philosophers were engaged in studying the concept of negation within the logical aspect. V.N.Bondarenko notes that ancient Indian philosophers pointed out the existence of a special negative reality, the category of non-existence, where they included its two main features - difference and absence. Moreover, almost all the ancient philosophers recognized the reality of the existence of not only being, but also non-being [3].

V.N.Bondarenko argues that in addition to the above concept, ancient Greek philosophers put forward the idea of the existence of a reality different from this one, which, according to K. Clark, was based on the idea of the world of primitive man, since the analysis of primitive languages indicates that negation was previously transmitted by reference to the so-called category of the "invisible world", while in the developed languages use negative statements for this purpose [4]. As an alternative to the concept of a special negative reality, V.N. Bondarenko points to the existence of the concept of reality, different from this one, which is also ontological. The the most general form this the concept was contained in Plato's doctrine of non-existence, which believed that not there is absolute non-existence, but there is relative [2].

The term "negation" was introduced into philosophy by the German philosopher Georg Hegel, but he put an idealistic meaning into it. In his opinion, the basis of negation is the development of an idea, the development of thought. Other German philosophers, such as Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels, while retaining the term "negation", explained it materialistically. They showed that denial is an integral development of the material reality itself. Negation is also characteristic of the development of knowledge and science. Every new, more perfect scientific theory overcomes the old, less perfect one. Negation is not something introduced into a phenomenon or object from the outside, it is the result of its own, internal development. Objects and

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phenomena, as we know, are contradictory and, for the transition to a new, higher quality, they themselves create conditions for their own destruction, developing on the basis of internal opposites. Negation is the overcoming of the old due to internal contradictions, the result of self-development, self-movement of objects and phenomena.

In contrast to the metaphysically interpreted "negation", which emphasizes the gap, the opposite of the features of the previous and subsequent stages of change, the" negation" interpreted dialectically implies a connection, a transition from one stage to another. The dialectical understanding of negation comes from the fact that the new does not completely destroy the old, but preserves all the best that was in it. And not only saves, but it also processes it, raises it to a new, higher level.

From the above theses, it can be seen that negation does not completely destroy the old, but only moves it to a new level, which can be compared with both logic and language. Next, we will draw a parallel of this concept with logic and directly with language.

Negation has always been an object of both linguistics and formal logic. According to formal logic, negation is "... a logical operation that opposes the untrue to a true judgment, the untrue to a false judgment, indicating that the predicate does not correspond to the subject or forms an addition to this class...". In addition, it is noted that it is not a simple failure to detect the expected other specific object that leads to a negative judgment, since the non-existence of one lies in the existence of the other. In other words, denial is not a reflection of reality and its connections directly, but a way of viewing them by us, based on contrast with the original positive facts.

Logical negation, or rather its formal content (non-existence, absence, otherness, etc.) is a linguistic universal, since it is expressed in the system of all known languages of the world. However, only the opposite poles of judgments are familiar to formal logic: affirmative and negative. A whole scale of intermediate semantic meanings is found in natural language between these two opposite poles, approaching either an affirmation or a negation. This suggests that negative and affirmative judgments are not always opposed in natural language. For the expression of one logical form in speech, a large variety of language forms (lexical, phonetic, grammatical) is observed every time.

The linguistic means of expressing logical negation, which are used in negative judgments, are usually "merged" into two large groups: explicit and implicit. The explicit negation is expressed with the help of formal grammatical and lexical means, and the form of implicit negation is expressed with the help of some words, phrases and phraseological turns with negative semantics, which do not have proper positive forms.

The following sentences can serve as examples of explicit negation:

«I don't want you hollerin' something...». - Я не хочу, чтобы ты кричал что-либо…

"I don't want to go home," she suddenly cried in distress and anguish"– «Я не хочу идти домой»,

вдруг вскрикнула она с отчаянием и тоской в голосе.

In these sentences, the explicit negation is expressed by the verb form "to be "in the past tense and the negative particle "not".

The following sentences can serve as examples of implicit negation:

«His absence was very strange...». - Его отсутствие было очень странным.

«The lack of knowledge let him down». –. - Его подвёл недостаток знаний.

«He failed to appear at the moment». – Он не появился в настоящий момент.

"Stop talking!" – «Не болтайте!».

In the examples given, the words "absence, lack of, fail to and stop" have negative semantics, the values of absence, lack, therefore, to express an implicit negation, a negative particle "to be" is not required.

The semantics of affirmation and negation is a logical property of a proposition-judgment (in classical two-valued logic, a statement that is true at the time of affirmation becomes incorrect at the time of negation, and, on the contrary: true at the time of negation, becomes incorrect at the time of affirmation). But at the same time, semantics is also a grammatical property of a sentence, since in order to express these differences, there are special forms of sentences.

In the present process of thinking, logical forms cannot exist separately from the specific content of thoughts, but they are not part of the subject of formal logic-the science of forms (structures) of thought. Formal logic deals with the study of logical forms taken in abstraction from the specific content of thoughts. This science is also distracted from the features that interest the grammar of the linguistic expression of thought. This general definition is fully relevant to the formal-logical negation. Formal logic examines negation independently of the means of its expression. As for the grammar (syntax), these two sentences have a completely different structure. «The world is endless» = «The world doesn't end». – Мир – бесконечен = Мир не кончается. In these sentences, one logical negation is represented by different language means. This also indicates that logical negation is not expressed in an extremely economical way in any language (redundancy in the language).

The system of language categories and meanings, which generally corresponds to the system of logical categories and forms, makes it possible to express any logical relations, regardless of whether there is between them (logical and linguistic relations) unambiguous correspondence or not. In this case, denial will not be an exception. Therefore, a formal logical negation has, in principle, the same meaning as that used in natural language, but already refined: the negation operator has an exact, fixed, unambiguous meaning.

The logical meaning of the negation and the linguistic expression of the negation may not always coincide. For example, negative language forms do not always express logical negation. So, the word "priceless" means a positive concept, namely "precious". And, on the contrary, positive language forms can express logical negation – negative

concepts, for example: single = unmarried , blind = eyeless. In addition, in words like "blind" and "eyeless" (the absence of sight and hearing is expressed, in other words, negation), grammar, unlike logic, does not reveal any negation.

In the linguistic literature, it is observed that the logical negation – this is the main content of the grammatical category of negation. Such scientists as E. I. Shendels, E. A. Vasilyeva, N. G., Ozerova, L. P. Shipulina, V. N. Zenchuk, L. A. Novikov. agree with this opinion.

Thus, according to D. Shtelling, the logical category of affirmation and negation contains the main content of the language category, but it does not completely fill it. The linguistic category of affirmation or negation also performs other functions, has relative independence and has its own volume of meanings. The use of negative means in a sentence may

pursue completely different goals, in contrast to the expression of a negative judgment. In other words, not every sentence with a negative corresponds to a negative judgment. It can correspond to a positive judgment and serve as a means of expressing not a judgment, but a prohibition, a question, and other things.

As mentioned above, the logical content of the language category of negation is non-existence, otherness, difference, deprivation. Also, the content of the language negation may include other denotative private meanings, such as: disagreement, objection, refusal, prohibition, protest, and some others. Therefore, negation can also be attributed to formal universals common to all languages. Negation is a component of the thought and the sentence expressing it. The logical value of the negation and the linguistic expression of the negation may not coincide.

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