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QUALIFICATION PAPER

on

SEMANTIC FEATURES OF ENGLISH AND UZBEK NAMES

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INTRODUCTION

One of the sciences which study the names is toponomy. "Toponomy" in greek "topos" and "anoma" means "place names". The word "toponym" means the place. Toponomy has two meanings. First case, we understand all the geographic names which are situated in the same territory. Second case, we understand a part of the linguistics which studies the geographic names.

The names of the cities, villages, stations, countries, districts, regions and names of seas, lakes, canals, wells, springs, bridges, valleys, deserts, woods, jungles, mountains, hills, roads and such names includes place names. Each of these names is toponyms.

The subject matter of this investigation is the study the semantic features of English and Uzbek names.

The actuality of the qualification paper is that studying place names have scientific and practical importance. In present days toponomics can be distinguished as an independent science as biochemistry, biophysics and astrobotany. The science of toponomy is a branch of linguistics which studies the history of language, materials of present languages and dialects.

The object of the qualification paper is that checking toponomy helps us to solve the historic, linguistic, geographic problems of place names, while learning toponomy we can learn the origin of place names.

The aim of this qualification paper is to reveal the specific features of proper names in the English and Uzbek languages.

Coming out of the purpose the work must be carried out on the base of the following tasks:

- to study general information about names;
- to study the theory of proper and common names;
- to study the problem of toponymic classification;
- to study some features of English and Uzbek place names;
- to study the etymology of English names;

- to study linguistic and morphologic features of English and Uzbek names.

The novelty of the investigation is that we have tried to analyze toponyms from the points of their etymology. Checking toponomy helps us to solve the historic, linguistic, geographic problems of place names, while learning toponomy we can learn the origin of place names.

The methods we have used to carry out the investigation are: Diachronic, Synchronic methods and Componential analysis of toponyms on the base of Referential and Functional approaches.

The materials of the qualification paper are: literature of different authors, Internet materials, dictionaries and of course the real speech of native and foreign speakers.

The theoretical importance of the work is that the result of the investigation can be useful for further researches on the given theme.

The practical importance can be seen in its wide usage in practical lessons on Lexicology, Ethnography at the lessons for both bachelor and master's degree courses. Also the examples gathered from dictionaries can be very helpful for carrying out qualification papers.

The structure of the work is as follows: Introduction, two Chapters Conclusion and Bibliography.

Introduction defines the theme, the aim and the tasks of the research. Also, the theoretical and practical importance of the work have been pointed out in Introduction.

Chapter I includes two paragraphs with several points which deals with general description of toponymy.

Chapter II is the basic practical part of our work where we have dealt with through analyses of toponyms in the English and Uzbek languages.

Conclusion reflects our theoretical opinions on the whole work.

Bibliography deals with the list of literary source used to investigate toponyms and their features.

CHAPTER I. GENERAL INFORMATION ABOUT NAMES

1.1. THE THEORY OF PROPER AND COMMON NAMES

Proper names is a word or ground of words recognized as indicating or tending to indicate the object or objects to which it refers by virtue of its distinctive sound alone, without regard to any meaning possessed by that sound alone, without the start or acquired by it through association with said object or objects.

One of the two largest classes of proper names is that which provides designation for places for continents countries, provinces, towns, villages and even private residences, not to speak of expanses of water, mountains, promontories, and so forth. In this class all the four conditions mentioned above come into play, but with different deserving if comment. There are but flu localities in the world so different from the rest that they eschew proper names and are habitually represented by brief descriptions; indeed can instance only the similarity of the entities named there is not that degree which exists between the starts as seen by a terrestrial observer, but it would be a grievous misrepresentation of my point if someone objected that the Mediterranean and London have nothing in common except that both are localities. When the sea is compared with sea and town with town the difficulty of selecting features characteristic enough to serve as the basis for differentiating descriptions will be appreciated to the full. The fact that places change from century is another reason for giving them immutable names of their own to emphasize their continuity, though this case of proper names exercises less influence in place names than it does in names of persons. The interest without which no place would be given a name does not spring from exactly the same kind of source as the interest that prompted the naming of the stars. There the needs of mariners and of these concerned with the measurement of time have co-operated with the scientific preoccupation of a small beady of specialists. As regards places, there is scarcely anyone without a home or haunt of his own which is a vital distance places varies greatly and in the majority of cases is simply non-existent. For this reason most places are for him “mere names”. Again it accords well with

Mill`s view of the meaningless of proper names that peace names can prove serviceable with only a minimum of knowledge. When a railway – journey is being planned one does not stop to inquire details about the junctions at which one has to change, nor is more information required in giving an address than to specify the larger and smaller regions within which the particular place is located. The interest that different persons display in a given place is apt to be extremely heterogeneous and the virtue of a proper name is that, since it embraces the whole of its object, it caters to all requirements without bias in any direction. It is superfluous to waste words over the utility of peace-names in locating other peaces than those designated by them; the postman and the pedestrian are here the best witnesses[1].

It would be tedious to cover the same ground again in reference to personal names the largest class of all.

Still it is worth pointing out that there is no human being so wretched as to have no name of his own, and yet the great majority of people whom we meet in the streets of a city are of supreme indifference to us. What is more they look alike or at all events the distinguishing marks are not conspicuous enough for the individuality of each to be unsold by words more meaningful than proper names. It is of importance for the theory of personal names that these accompany their owners, as a rule, from the cradle to the grave and consequently identify these owners at every conceivable stage and in every situation. Indeed we may pertinently note that a personality sometimes under does temporary case of girls who many or prominent men when elevated to the peerage.

Thus much having been said it may seem profitable to discuss a few special problems and traits in connation with persons and their names. Perhaps someone might think fit to ask why the name of some almost universally known person, like Napoleon or Shakespeare does not lose its puality of being a proper name as a consequence of acquiring meaning and becoming a household word. I can picture some reader objecting. “If your hypothesis concerning sun and moon is correct,

[1] Alan Gardener The theory of proper names. P 126

why does not the name napoleon present itself to us as a common noun seeing that here, if anywhere, the mind travels right through the sound to use meaning?" But does it? For the generality of mankind, and it is they who confer their meaning upon words, when the sun`s roundness, and brightness and warmth and a few other traits have been enumerated the meaning of the sun is practically entrusted. With a personal name like Napoleon it is far otherwise. Whole books are required to set forth the meaning of Napoleon and what the bearer of the name has signified to his contemporaries and to later durations. The meaning of his name by no means confines itself to those traits that have brought him celebrity. His childhood, his experience as a lover his life at St. Helena has all to be bought into the account. Another reason which would suffice to uphold the position of Napoleon amid the ranks of proper names is what I have proposed to case the Law of Serial Uniformity; this is at button only a manifestation of the generalizing tendency of the human mind which assimilates phenomena with a variant disregard of the differences that may exist between them. All persons have names of their own, and napoleon is the name is the great Corsican. And that name can not fail to be regarded by the linguistic consciousness as a proper name, no matter how much more significant it may be to the public at large than that of any ordinary person[1].

Let us next ask how far designations like Cook and Father, when employed as vocatives or as means of reference, can be considered to be proper names. They resemble these not having the article prefixed to them. Here we cannot avail ourselves of the antithesis between Language and Speech which stood us in good stead when dealing with examples like a Goethe. We cannot say that Cook is a mere phenomenon of speech, for within the limited circle where the word serves as substitute for a mere adios momentary application; it may indeed be sterilized for years in a family as the recognized designation of the same person.

The grammarian must here forge a nomenclature that das justice to the special case and A should proper to classify Cook, when thus employed, as a

[1] Alan Gardener The theory of proper names. P 127

common noun adopted (not rarely used) as a proper name. The conception of a proper name as liable to gradations becomes imperative in such instances. Usually Father is still less of a real proper name than Cook, since except when the other parent imitates the parlance of fur off spring. Father is employed only by chose to which its bearer stands in the paternal relation. I pass over the interesting topic of nicknames, but it is necessary that something should be said about examples like Richard be Spicer and Robert le long, quoted from a medieval roll by weekly to illustrate the way in which common English surnames originated. Here it would be fitting, in my opinion to say that Spicer and Long are already proper names in as much as their bearers or else the community in which they lived had evidently be the official means of establishing their identity. Naturally the Spicer had every incentive to advertise his trade and it would be wrongheaded to suppose that he without the meaning of that epithet to be ignored. But Richard le Spicer my possibly have been long of limb and its by no means certain that Robert le Long was not a Spicer. The fact that Richard took le Spicer and not any applicable attribute to be his epithet on constants plainly confers on le Specer the right to be considered a questionable than Dartmouth a name of long standing in which the meaning doubtless seldom comes to consciousness.

A number of other categories of proper names can be dealt with very rapidly, since only in one particular do they teach us anything new. All ships and boats receive proper names of their own on account of the commercial and other interest which they possess for their owners, though not necessary for the community at large. Houses are not quite so universally accorded this means of distinction, since temporary tenants can feel little objection to their peace of residence being identified by a number. The effective motive here comes into view. The man who builds a new house for himself or unexpectedly becomes the proud possessor of one is specially apt to mark his satisfaction by choosing a name for it, and the name chosen is likely to recall some scene of the name giver`s previous activity or to reflect some subject of peculiar interest to him. The like

holds good of the naming of animals, pets, and indeed any object of human pride or affection.

I pass on to more dubious cases. An eminent French philologist has claimed that the names of birds which he personally is unable to identify on sight are in reality proper names[1]. As previously remarked, personal ignorance of the meaning of a bird and this is a failing for which everyone out to feel the greatest sympathy can carry no weight in determining its categorization. To what category a word belongs is decided by the linguistic feeling of those best acquainted with the object and the manner of its reference although the grammarian and dictionary makes must be invoked to find the technical term appropriate to the definition of the feelings. Now everyone who knows that linnets and corn-erases and shakes and whinchats are birds, and that these are ordinary English designations of them sub-consciously peace those designations in the same category as sparrow and truth, and no one with grammatical knowledge will daunt that sparrow and trash are common names.

External evidence for this is found in the use of the articles and the formation of plurals without any sense of incongruence. If whinchat is felt to be more of a proper name than sparrow it is because a proper name is merely a word in which one feature common to all words what so over the power of conveying distinctions by means of distinctive sounds – is discerned in its purest form and our attention is drawn to the distinctive sound or writing (which is merely sound translated into another medium) more urgently in the case as a rare word than in that of a common one.

None the less I think a good case may be out for regarding the scientific Latin names of birds and plants as more of proper names than their common English equivalents. The name Brassica rape easily evokes the thought of a botanist classifying a number of specimens which to the lay mind. Are much alike, and to one of which he gives the name. Brassica rape just as apparent names his

[1] Alan Gardener The theory of proper names. P 128

baby. We Brassica rape is simple the scientific name for the ordinary turnip. We may find confirmatory support for regarding Brassica rapa as a proper name, or at least as much mire of a proper name than turnip, in the fact that we do not say. This is a Brassica rapa or these are Brassica rapas though we might say these are fine specimens of Brassica rapa. In so saying we appeal to the name of any single example of the type whereas in speaking of a certain vegetable as a turnip we appeal to the similarity of that vegetable to others of its kind. The difference of linguistic attitude is a rare nuance, but it is a real one. In the one instance the sound of the name what we usually describe as" the name itself" is more in the foreground than in the other insurance[1].

Whether or we no classify the Latin names of plants, and animals as a proper names admittedly they are borderline cases it`s undeniable that in fact those names refer to things existent in great number. If the contention of the last paragraph be deemed worthy of consideration, it is inevitable that the debate should be existence to the months and of the days of the week should be regarded as proper names is one of much interest, since different languages take different lines about it is a symptom that may be employed as evidence if care be taken not to attach over much importance to it. The French write jeudi and janivier where we write Thursday and January, and I believe I am right in saying that most French grammarians would not admit month-names are also general names is clear from the facility and lack of strain felt in toes les jeidis (note the article and the plural ending) and in miss. Brawn is at home on Thursday.

Nevertheless there are details of usage, i.e. jurdi le 15 mars which seem to place these names on a different footing from other common nouns. If the problem be stated in another way, it seems likely that the same men and Englishman. If we were to ask: "Which of the two words hiver (winter) and Decembre (December) is more of a proper name than the others?" it would probably be admitted than the latter would have the preference. The reason is both obvious and interesting. The

[1] Alan Gardener The theory of proper names. P 126

stretches of time indicated by the names of the seasons are felt to be more contrasted in their nature than those indicated may be much of a machine, but there is an unmistakable difference between the seasons. Consequently in the names of the seasons the meaning plays a greater part in marking the distinction than is played by the meaning attaching to the month names, and the latter correspondingly the distinctive name, the distinctive word-sound, exercises a more important role of indicating the period meant. The month name is for that reasons more of a proper name than the name of the season.

It is a peculiarity of the months and the days of the week that a fixed order belongs to their meaning. It is undeniable that Wednesday implies the Day after Tuesday and that before Thursday. Still that do modicum of constant meaning does not compensate for the fact that the other characters of the day designated by the name Wednesday are variable intangible and differ from person, so that the name itself is the only thing which we can cling to in order to uphold the distinction between one day and another.

It is superfluous to discuss feast days like Easter, Whitsunday, Lupercalia. To the Englishman at all events the names of these are proper names, though on account of their recurring every year they must join the ranks of the “common proper names”.

A proper name is a word that if answers the purpose of showing a what thing it is that we are talking about writes John Stuart Mill in A System of Logic, but not of talking anything about it. The problem of defining proper names, and of explaining their meaning, is one of the most recalcitrant in modern philosophy.

Mill's definition is as good as any, though it is ultimately not helpful. A proper name tells us which thing is in question, without giving us any other information about it. But how does it do this? What exactly is the nature of this information?

There are two puzzles in particular;

1. The name is some way reveals the identity of the object. An identity

statement, such as " Hesperus= Phosphorus" should contain no information at all. If we understand the names, we should understand the information they carry, namely the identity of their bearers, and if we graphs their identity, we should understand automatically whether the statement is true or false. Thus the statement should not be informative. Yet it is. The discovery that hesperus= Phosphorus was (in it's day) a great scientific achievement[1].

2. Empty names seem perfectly meaningful. Then whose identities do them reveal? If the only semantic function of a name is to tell us which individual a proposition is about, how can it tell us this when there is no such individual?

There are many theories about proper name, none of them entirely satisfactory.

1. Traditional theory.

In traditional logic, proper names had no place al all. There were only two kinds of propositions: existential ("some men are philosopher") and universal ("all men are mortal"). The subject of both consisted of a common name ("philosopher", "man") and a quantifier ("are", "some"). Proper names do not therefore signify any constituent of any proposition. Aquinas argued that this is because "the intellect" grasps a proposition, and the intellect understands by abstracting the " universal content" from sense perception. The " principle of singularity" that makes so rates this individual, we cannot grasp at all, except in directly, by "turning towards the sense appearance (conversion and phantasm).

The obvious difficulty with the theory is that sentences containing names do seem to be informative, even when there is no object appearing to the senses.

2. Descriptive theory.

The descriptive theory of proper names is the view that the meaning of a given use of a proper name is a set of properties that can be expressed as a description that picks out an object that satisfies the description. It is commonly help that fridge help such a view - the description being embedded in what he

[1] Cameron K. "English Placenames". London. 1961.

called the sense of the name. Certainly, Russell seems to have espoused such a view in his early philosophical career.

So, according to the descriptivist theory of meaning, there's a description of the sense of proper names, and that description, like a definition, picks out the bearer of the name. The distinction between the embedded description and the bearer itself is similar to that between the extension of a general term, or between connotation and denotation.

The extension of a general term like "dog" is just all the dogs that are out there; the extension is what the word can be used to refer to the intension of a general term is basically a description of what all dogs have in common; it's what the definition express.

The difficulty with the descriptive theory is what the description corresponds to. It must be some essential characteristic of the bearer; otherwise we could use the name to deny the bearer had such a characteristic. The objections associated with Kripke, although philosophers such as Bradley, Locke and Aristotle had already noticed the problem.

3. Referential theory.

The referential theory is that the meaning of proper name is simply the individual to which, in the context of it's use, the name refers. Another name for the theory is the "Fido" refers to, or denotes, or picks out, well, Fido So, the name "Fido" means the dog Fido. But now wait a minute. Lots of dogs have been named "Fido". Lots of people have been named "Larry". The referential theory talks about proper names as though there's only one thing that any proper name, such as " Fido", can mean Right It says; ‘‘the meaning of a proper name is the individual", that one item," to which it refer. But then isn`t that wrong, to say that a proper name like "Fido" can mean any one dog in particular

Not really, because when we use proper names, we usually understand by the total context which individual we're using the proper names to pick out. So when I said that the name "Larry" means me, you all understood, of course that

when I the name "Larry" it mean one of the gazillions of guys named "Larry". But just to be clear, let's update the statement of the referential theory, so it includes this stuff about context.

It might be the case that the name "Fido" picks out lots of different dogs; but a given use of the name refers to just one of the animals named "Fido".

4. Causal theory of names

The causal theory of names combines the referential view, with idea that the name's referent is fixed by a baptismal act, where upon the name becomes a rigid designator of the referent. Subsequent uses of the name succeed in referring proper name has the referent that it.

COMMON NAMES

In science, a common name is only name by which a species or other consent is known that is not the official scientific name. There are following common names in English.

1. Biological common names.

A common name, widely defined, of a biological species is any name for it other than its scientific name, i.e. its binomial. A binomial is a formal name and is the same the world over; independent of the language in use, a binomial is rendered italicized in Roman script. There are many common names. But the common names of organisms are part of each and every language and are written in the script for than language. There is no requirement for common names to correspond in any way to scientific names. Many of our everyday names, for, plants and animals like "Rat", "Squirrel", "Rose" and "Oak" refer to board categories (wood, plastic). By adding adjectival descriptions, such as with "Brown Rat", Red Squirrel", "Dog Rose" and "Cork Oak", common names for individual species may arise. Such a common name referring to a category can be quite useful in local context while ambiguous if used more widely[1]. Names like sardine or deer can apply to dozens of different species world-wide, though those names are

[1] Cameron K. "English Placenames". London. 1961.

perfectly adequate in their original domains of use (fishing and hunting), in localities to exist or is likely to be caught known.

2. Vernacular, names.

Vernacular names may loosely be described as common names in local language or dialects. In a country that, beside the official language, has many local languages (Indonesia, Australia) there can be a bewildering amount of vernacular names. In Earlier times it has been attempted to dutifully record these, but these days it is usually regarded as hopeless. It requires both knowledge of the language involved and of the taxa involved; there fore it is very time consuming to achieve any degree of accuracy.

3. Official common names.

For some groups, such as birds in the US, individual species have official common names such official common names are chosen by a governing body and typically attempt to follow a set of guideline set by that body. Such names have no standing in scientific nomenclature. They are attempts by scientists to communicate with non-scientists who might feel intimidated by scientific names or by training to create more pleasant sounding names[1].

It is debatable how far official common names are actually "common". Much depends on how the methods of composing the list. In the past there has been a fact to have all the species in a genius repeat the genius name, for example if diasporas is regarded as the "ebony genus, to have all species include "ebony" in the name. Such a method of frowned upon. However, if an official list respects widely lay person's names it may be beneficial. Botanists sometimes maintain official common names for plants, although this will very greatly. Informally, botanists generally do not capitalize any common names; this can be seen as a sign of "professionalism" seas as uninitiated may have difficulty in interpreted may have difficulty in interpreting names such as "the dairy brome" for localities, where "the

[1] Smith A.H. “Elements of English toponyms”. London. 1953.

Hairy Crome (Bromus ramiosus)is not the only member of the genus. Other attempts to standardize common names (insects in New Zealand Brome (Bromus ramiosus) is not the only member of the genus. Other attempts to standardize common names (insects in New Zealand) have met with mixed success, but common names lose some of their unique merits when defined. Undefined use of Maori names for plants in New Zealand has useful added stability to nomenclature in the face of scientific name changes.

4. Common names that repeat scientific names.

Common names and scientific names have different functions, but can be closely related. In gardening, a fashion leader, familiar names like Begonia, Dahlia, Gladiolus and Rhododendron are common names that usually refer to plants in genus of the same name (but note that Azalia refers now submerged in the genus Rhododendron). The use of genus names has been increasing in the vernacular of English-speaking gardeners in recent decades. Gardeners, naturalists and others, typically continue to use old common names when scientific name changes. This is a useful feature where by common names lend a measure of stability to nomenclature and retain historical associations. For this reason common and scientific names should be treated differently with no systematic affemetic attempt to make them correspond.

Especially with plants, common names (unitalicized) are often the same as their genus (scientific) names (italicized and capitalized) . However, the reverse also happens, some pre-existing common names, typically from languages local to the plants, have been used to create the formal binomial. For this, the common names can be Latinized (and possibly anglicized), irrespective of their source language. For example, Hoheria is from the New Zealand Maori "Houhere". A local name may also be adopted unaltered: the genus Tsuga is so named after the Japanese "tsuga".

For historically reasons, some common names and equivalent scientific names refer to unrelated species. For examle, Cranesbill is the common name for

the genus Geranium, while the common name Geranium refers to species of the South African genus Pelargonium. Again, the gardeners' " Nasturtium" is the Tropaeolum, where as the European watercress is in the genus Nasturtium.

New common names are to be welcomed as long as they are helpful to a group of users no matter how small since the function within user communities, spontaneous names ideal. This has always been recognized, but computerization and the Web, by facilitating linkages to the single scientific name for each taxon, makes the flexibility of multilingual and multiple local common names an increasingly valuable feature.

5. Chemical common names.

In chemistry, the IUPAC nominator, a convention on systematic names, a common name is a name from which a structural formula can be drawn, that doesn't follow the systematic naming procedure.

COMMON NAMES AND THE BINOMIAL SYSTEM

The form of scientific names for organisms that we know as binomial nomenclature is derived from the simple and practical noun-adjective form of vernacular names used by prehistoric cultures—with a collective name such as owl, made more specific by the addition of an adjective such as screech — only with the use of Latin as a universal language. Linnaeus himself published a Flora of his homeland Sweden, Flora Svecica (1745), and in this he recorded the Swedish common names region by region along with the scientific names — and the Swedish common names were all binomials (e.g. plant no. 84 Råg-losta and plant no. 85 Ren-losta) — the vernacular binomial system thus preceded his scientific binomial system[1].

Linnaean authority William T. Stearn expresses the link between common names and Latin scientific names as“ By the introduction of his binomial system of nomenclature Linnaeus gave plants and animals an essentially Latin nomenclature

[1] Cameron K. “English Placenames”. London. 1961.

like vernacular nomenclature in style but linked to published, and hence relatively stable and verifiable, scientific concepts and thus suitable for international use.

GEOGRAPHIC RANGE OF USE

The geographic range over which a particular common name is used varies; some common names have a very local application, while others are virtually universal within a particular language. Vernacular names are generally treated as having a fairly restricted application, usually referring to the native language of a country or locality as opposed to more broadly-based usage. A colloquial name may be regarded as of very local use, insufficient to be included in the general dictionaries of the language concerned.

CONSTRAINTS AND PROBLEMS IN USE OF COMMON NAMES

Where "common names" are widely and vaguely applied as terms of common convenience, there is little point to raising pedantic objections to their use. That remains true whether in the speech or writing of professionals or laymen. Most of us have a fairly useful idea of what a butterfly, a shark, or a lavender might be expected to be like.

It also is important to understand that many technical terms amount to everyday words applied as common names to technical concepts within technical disciplines, sometimes strictly formally, and sometimes precisely because a functionally important concept is intrinsically fuzzy and does not conveniently lend itself to the use of formally precise terminology. Such terms, sometimes called trivial names, are not fundamentally much different in nature from common names, though they generally are more specific.

For examples of arbitrary terms with precise meanings, consider barn, strangeness, catastrophe, sucrose, and function.

Fuzzy examples abound, as in astronomy (star, nebula), in geology (gravel, fault), in chemistry (fat, polymer), in physics (crystal, gas), and in biology (guild, skin, limb).

Most attempts to favour either common names or technical names almost to the exclusion of the other are unrealistic; a sense of perspective is important. In practice, specialists in particular fields sometimes disdain the use of vernacular names and terms altogether, and insist on only formal terminology or nomenclature. Conversely, some professionals make a virtue of informal speech and lay public commonly deride the use of all technical terms or jargon. Authors writing for the lay public sometimes avoid technical terms so obsessively as to defeat the objects of precision or easy comprehension. The greats among popular science writers, such as Medawar, Clarke, Dawkins, Gardner, and Lorenz knew better. None of the writers of that calibre hesitated to use either informal or technical language to great effect where it was appropriate.

Either extreme shows a failure to understand the value of appropriate technical nomenclature and natural, graceful use of language. An ornithologist who objects to speaking of pigeons instead of specimens of the Columbidae fouling a statue would presumably be joking, but there is no shortage of everyday examples of pretentious, inappropriate, or insensitive jargon in any profession.

Conversely lay public who object to the use of anything but common names, especially in biology, overlook certain practical considerations. These apply to any field of natural history, but consider for illustration some convenient examples largely, and arbitrarily, drawn from Southern African marine ichthyology:

Because, as already remarked, common names often have a very local distribution, we find that the same fish in a single area may have several common names. Understandably, where a fish occurs over a wide area there are even more names used in different places, sometimes a dozen or more. And in this example we ignore differences in names further up the coast in different countries, sometimes countries speaking several different languages[1].

[1] Smith A.H. “Elements of English toponyms”. London. 1953.

Because of ignorance of relevant biological facts among the lay public, a single species of fish might have several extra common names, say because individuals differ according to maturity, gender, or their natural surroundings. In fact, this even is a problem with scientific binomial binomial nomenclature. For example, before the biology of the European eel was worked out, their Leptocephalus larvae and young "glass eels" were thought to be different species. But in contrast to the situation with vernacular names, that sort of problem can be dealt with routinely and consistently by established procedures.

Formal taxonomic names imply biological relationships between similarly named creatures. For example, practically any entomologist would know offhand that Papilio demodocus would be a butterfly in the most prominent genus of swallowtails, and could guess a good deal about its life history and appearance even if he had never seen the species in question. Again, a botanist would immediately understand a great deal about plants referred to collectively as Droseraceae, because they are in the same family, and a general zoologist would know what sort of difference to expect between members of the phyla Arthropoda and Chordata. Among common names on the other hand, thousands of species of insects called "flies" are not even in the same order as flies; they differ from real flies about as greatly as say, bats (order Chiroptera) differ from buffalo (order Artiodactyla). Conversely, among the butterflies, common names that are quite different, such as Question Mark, Satyr Anglewing, and Green Comma, refer to species that are all in the genus Polygonia; they could hardly be more closely related, but unless one already happens to know them by heart, one could not guess it from their "common" names because those names are not systematic.

Because of incidental events, contact with other languages, or simple confusion, common names in a given region change with time. A local fishing community might rapidly forget a name that had suddenly become dangerously politically incorrect. Names that used to be common may be totally

incomprehensible half a generation later, and names that simply did not exist ten years earlier might have become current.

In a book that lists over 1200 species of fishes more than half have no widely recognized common name whatsoever; they either are too nondescript or too rarely seen to have earned any widely accepted common name. Again, there simply might be too many to assign unique common names in practice. This is not unusual in nature; well over 300000 species of beetles have been described so far; at most a few thousand have been given anything like stable common names, and hardly any of those names are used in practice — practitioners prefer using the scientific names.

Conversely, a single common name often applies to multiple species of fishes. The lay public might simply not recognize or care about subtle differences in appearance between effectively unrelated species with very different biologies.
Many common names amount to jargon; they are used in limited cliques as parochially and thoughtlessly as any other technical jargon. This applies to any community, whether technical or lay. Adoption of new technology might evoke new terminology or lead to the loss of traditional terms. Again, in an apiology laboratory, staff might refer quite unthinkingly to "capensis" and "scutellata" if they are working on Apis mellifera capensis and Apis mellifera scutellata. Unlike most lay common names, such jargon would be immediately obvious any entomologist new to the laboratory. Given the behavioural differences between the two subspecies, this is valuable knowledge in practice, and it is fairly stable knowledge too, not prone to change on a whim.

Many people argue impatiently that these fine distinctions are for pedants, but have no practical significance. After all say, a mosquito is a mosquito! Such a misconception simply reflects the critics' ignorance of the realities[1]. For example, some mosquitoes such as Toxorhynchites not only do not bite at all, but are

[1] Smith A.H. "Elements of English toponyms". London. 1953.

valuable predators of some very troublesome species of bloodsucking mosquitoes. Conversely, some mosquitoes that are practically indistinguishable to the layman might both suck blood, but one such species might rarely attack humans and never carry human disease, whereas the other might carry diseases both deadly and agonising (such as yellow fever, dengue, and various kinds of malaria) and might differ crucially from similar-looking mosquitoes in the measures necessary for their control[7]. That is just one example of the importance of formal nomenclature where lay perceptions and adventitious nomenclature simply are inadequate to support practical initiatives to deal with life-or-death problems.

COINING AND IMPOSING COMMON NAMES

The obscurity of names used in biological binomial nomenclature has inspired some well-meant, but counter-productive initiatives. Some biologists have coined and published long lists abounding with vernacular names such as "Gracile Atlantic Spiny-rat" for "Trinomys gratiosus". Not only do we find that such artificial vernacular names often are longer than the binomial name, but such a name commonly is the product of someone's attempt to translate the Latin into the vernacular, and this example was chosen because it is translated inaccurately to boot[8]. Such creativity might seem worthwhile when one is dealing with just a few species, but when filling books with coined names for birds or butterflies that already have established binomials, it quickly turns into a useless doubling of the effort, without being of any use to the layman. At best it pointlessly requires practitioners to master two lists instead of just one. It lends poignancy to the earlier observation that: "a common name is not necessarily a commonly used name"! Many or most coined vernacular names are hardly used at all. The lay public will take no interest in learning a lot of uninformative names just because they are in the vernacular.

Binomial names have the advantage that at least the generic name is consistent. This not only reduces the effort of learning the names, but is likely to convey information about relationships and attributes. Common names are less

consistent in such respects, except when they are systematically coined, and when they are consistent it often is because they take the form of pointless translations of the binomials. When they do not reflect the literal meaning of the binomial, but are coined to be systematic in their own right, possibly reflecting guild membership for example, they simply amount to an arbitrary polynomial nomenclature in partial parallel to the binomial system; an added complication rather than a simplification.

As observed below, various bodies, and the authors of many technical and semi-technical books, not merely attempt to adapt existing common names for various organisms; they try to coin comprehensive, useful, authoritative, and standardised lists of new names. The idea typically is either:

to improve existing names,

to replace them with names that conform to formal or partisan theoretical structures (structures that often prove to be transient or unsound),

to impose a particular choice of name where there is more than one name in common currency, or

to create the names from scratch where no common names exist as yet.

It cannot be said that all such initiatives are futile; many books do impose names that enter common currency, especially regional manuals of particular topics of natural history, such as field handbooks for identifying birds or wildflowers. However, the matter is by no means simple. In some topics, such as ornithology of a well-known region, successive editions of a book or of a few rival books that have been published by successive generations of authors, there commonly are sequences of irritating and confusing changes and inconsistencies. Some arise from trivial problems, others reflect differences between rival authorities.

Some differences are trivial, such as changes between "Malachite Kingfisher" and "Malachite Crested Kingfisher", and perhaps back again. Some are confusing to readers not in touch with the activities of taxonomists, such as when "Plovers" suddenly become "Lapwings", and so on.

Other projects reflect attempts to reconcile differences between widely separated regions, traditions and languages. For example, members of the genus Burhinus occur in Australia, Southern Africa, Eurasia, and South America. A recent trend in field manuals and bird lists is to impose the name "thick-knee" for members of the genus. Now, arguably the majority of the species do not occur in English-speaking regions. Such species, and others that occur in both English-speaking and other territories, have various common names, not always English. For example "Dikkop" is the centuries-old South African vernacular name for the two local species: Burhinus capensis (Cape dikkop or “gewone dikkop”, not to mention the presumably much older Zulu “umBangaqhwa” and others!) and Burhinus vermiculatus (water dikkop).

Such initiatives rapidly become self-caricaturing; the standardisation of pedantry is fraught with traps. For example the thick joints in question are not the birds’ knees, but the intertarsal joints — in lay terms the ankles. Furthermore, not all species in the genus have “thick knees”, so the thickness of the knees of some species is not of clear biological significance. The family Burhinidae has members with various common names even in English, including “Stone curlews”, so the choice of “thick-knees” is not easy to defend. Plainly the problems of naming spiny rats does not exhaust the obstacles to artificial construction of rationally defensible lists of common names[1].

As in most questions of imposition of rules of lexicography there is no general reason either to waste effort in opposing initiatives to create global standardised lists of common names, or to support them. The most practical and economical approach is to let developments take their course according to the long-established principle enunciated by Gamaliel.

[1] Smith A.H. “Elements of English toponyms”. London. 1953.

1.2. THE PROBLEM OF TOPONYMIC CLASSIFICATION

Toponyms can be both place names, real or imaginary, as well as names derived from places or regions. Toponyms are found in many different arenas of industry, enterprise, culture, and current events. It is not unusual to find toponyms used for places that recall other places, as well as wars, treaties and agreements, bands, food, and fabric, among other items.

There are many, many places beginning with the word new that are toponyms named to recall or honor other places. In North America, we have the US states New Hampshire named after Hampshire, England; New Jersey named for the Isle of Jersey in the English Channel; New Mexico, recalling the country to our south; New York, after York, England; and the Canadian province Nova Scotia, which means "New Scotland." There are also a number of toponymic North American places named after rivers, including the states of Connecticut, Delaware, Mississippi, Ohio, and the provinces of Saskatchewan and Yukon. The province of Ontario is named after Lake Ontario.

Some contemporary bands have toponyms for their name, drawing on both real and imaginary places as their inspiration. Chicago, the American rock band formed in 1967, takes its name from the city of Chicago. The Manhattan Transfer, an American vocal group that formed in 1972, has a name that's a toponym once-removed: it is named after novel Manhattan Transfer by John Dos Passos, after Manhattan Transfer train station in Harrison, New Jersey. The rock group Styx, originally called The Tradewinds when they began in 1961, drew their toponymic second name from the river in Greek mythology. The Shangri-Las, named after the Himalayan utopia in James Hilton's novel, Lost Horizon, was an all-girl American pop trio/quartet in the 1960s.

A number of fabrics have toponyms that acknowledge their place of origin. The shirt fabric called Oxford takes its name from Oxford, England. The two thick cotton materials used for pants, denim and jean, are both toponyms: the first derives from the fact that it came from Nîmes, France – it was said to be "de

Nîmes." Jean comes from the French pronunciation – Gênes – of its city of origin, Genoa.

Cambric and Chambray, fine cotton or linen and lightweight gingham respectively, are toponyms from the French textile-manufacturing town of Cambrai. Cashmere, a wool fabric created from Kashmir goats, takes its toponymic name from the territory of Jammu and Kashmir. Finally, Madras, India lends its name to cotton fabric that often has characteristic plaid patterns.

Some of the most well-known toponyms occur in the realm of food. Hamburgers, named for Hamburg, Germany, and frankfurters or hotdogs, named for Frankfurt, Germany, are perhaps the most recognized food toponyms. Also likely familiar are two nicknames for coffee, Java and Mocha, referencing cities in Indonesia and Yemen. Tangerines are a popular fruit named for Tangiers, Morocco, but the Barbados cherry, Natal plum, and Java plum might be less familiar.

Some food toponyms are associated with a particular place by law. Roquefort, named for the village Roquefort-sur-Soulzon, has what is called "named-controlled AOC status" bestowed by the Appellation d'Origine Contrôlée, the regulatory body in France. It was, in fact, the first cheese to be so singled out in 1925. There are several dozen others that have since been given that status.

Using the name "Champagne," a name for sparkling wine, is illegal in a number of parts of the world unless the product originates in the Champagne region of France. In December, 2005, the pork pie-makers from the Melton Mowbray region of England were given permission to apply for similar status, aiming to restrict the zone of production of products allowed to bear the name "Melton Pork Pie" to a 1,800 sq. mi. (4662 sq km) zone. The case is being challenged by longtime manufacturers whose places of business fall outside the zone[1].

[1] Smith A.H. "Elements of English toponyms". London. 1953.

Lack of unanimous solution of the problems of classification of American toponomies shows it's difficulties. Before discuss the main toponimic classification of American geographical places, let’s look at the 2 more familiar schemes of classification of toponomies which were worked out to study toponyms related to England.

Structural classification of toponomy, offered by A. Smith, one of the most popular scientists in England and the author of the ‘’Research about toponomics of Yorkshire’’ and the Dictionary ‘’Elements of England toponomy’’, distinguish three main class:

1. Simple names which consist of one word such as; Dale, Lea, Sale, Bedewyn, Rise.

2. Compound names which were constructed from two element models where ultimate which is originated from ancient Celtic and Germanic languages and described with nominal or proper nouns, gidronyms or other toponyms take place. For example: Actor, Winterton.

3. Compound names which were constructed which the help of affixes where under affixes. A. H. Smith implies to add limited definition and geographic terms, for example: Thorton, Wattass, Burton on the hill.

It shows that the classification of A. H. Smith based on morphologic and etymologic analysis of researched toponyms.

In His classification of English geographic names E. Eckwall, a famous Swedden Linguistist, expounds in the introduction of “Dictionary of English Geographic names”.

Author writes the following principal division:

- Names, which are produced from the names of animals, plants, trees and so on.

- Names, linked with topography of place, with hunting animals and so on. It is difficult to accept classification, offered by E. Eckwall, selection of words, becoming names, define not only with natural conditions and phisicgeographic

objects, but with the development of society, the lexic body of names, as its structure historically converted. Principally systematization of names, offered by Eckwall, forms blending of different historic words. One of the initial variation of toponomic classification was offered by G.L.Menken.

G. L. Menken considers to divide all the geographic names into 8 classes:

1. Class includes the names linked with proper names with their origin. For example: Washington, Lafyette. Many other different compound names, compiled with the combination of proper names and geographic terms or toponomic suffixes. For example: Pitsbulg, Knoxwill, Bayley's Smith, Hagerstown, Fort Riley.

2. Class joines names-division or carried names of other countries and regions of country. For example:New Albany, New York, New Windsor, Yorktown. To say with other words, toponyms are cultured from the existed toponyms by adding defined types such as new, west, north and different geographic terms and toponomic suffixes. By the opinion of Mencken, di-Ciby, Bromidi, Goldfield, Coal Run, Cement.

At last, in 8 class Mencken united fantastic, exotic names such as Hells- for-Sartains, Undershirt Hills, Razzle- Dazzle, Cow Tail, Yellow Dog, Jump- Off, Poker City, Goose Hill, Skunktown, Pig Eye lake, Hot Coffee, Burning Bear. There was given an interesting classification of geographic names, offered by D. R. Stewart, on the basis of analyzing the mechanism of studying toponomy. The appearance of toponyms author bounds with different psychological motives which lay on the basis of studying this or that name. He writes out break of geographic names linked with one psychological progress, particularly with the disive of defining given object from the other ones, Stewart notes that investigation mechanism of selection of lexis meanings may give much more valuable information for studying names. Stewarts divides geographic names into 9 classes.

1. Descriptive names, on the basis where lays constant and changeable quality of defining object: Black Buttle, Long Island, Crescent Lake, Granite Mauntain carried names of other countries and states belong to this class: For

example: Baltimore (the name of iceberg in Alaska), Princeton (name of park in state of Colorado), a lot of names such as Rome, Alexandria, Troy, Sparta, Bremen, Hamburg, Warsaw, Stockholm and so on.

2. Class borders on all the Indian names in the territory of USA.

3. Class groups names of Spanish, French, Dutch, German and Scandinavian origin, all the names out of English names, except Indian languages. For example: San Francisco, Los Angeles.

4. Class borders on the names from Bible such as : Conception, Beulah, Canaan, Jordan, Sharon, Adam, Eve, Aaron, Job, Soddom and others.

5. Class includes descriptive names: Bald Knob, Sandy Hook, Bull Run, French Lick, Eagle Pass.

6. Class includes the names reflecting the names of animals and plants of country and its mineral fortune such as: Buffallo, Alligator, Rat Lake, Crawfish, Oil Roaring Run, Echo Rock, Stinking Spring, Bayport. There belongs compass-point names: North River, South Island.

2. Possessive names, there author unites 3 groups:

a) names which includes proper names: Culpi's Hill, Smith River.

b) names which include ethnic proper names: Mohawk River, Chinese Camp, American Fork.

c) Mythological names linked with Indian religious things. As an example author gives geographic names of Indian tribe-Siu, wacan-gost.

3. Incident names: Hat creek, Murder Creek, Earthquake Creek, Lightening Peak. There Stewart refers most of names linked with the names of animals.(Wolf Creek, Antelope Creek) and names linked with calendar holidays (calendar names): Independence Day, Independence Rock, Point Conception)[1].

4. Commerative names border on names-carryings: Cambridge, Athens, Corinth,

[1] Petrovskiy N.A. "Dictionary of Russian Proper names" Moscow, 1966.

Hector, Ulysses, Hesperia, Apollo, San-Francisco, San Diego, San Miguel, and so on and names dedications of statesmen.

5. Euphemistic names, which were given to the object hoping to help good future of cities. Such name as Athens of used American toponomy as the symbol of the culture and enlightenment. For this reason they give the name of Wheatland to the little town though there were a lot of uncultivated fields.

6. Manufactured names: Saybrook from the names Say and Brook, Alicel from Alice and L. The author shares out the border names to this group. Such as; Texarkana Texas Arkansas.

7. Initial names which were transferred to the name of near by objects. For example: The names White Lake, White River, Whitewile come from White Mountain.

8. Names which were formed by the result of lie etimologiziration: Caya Hueso-Key West, Chemir Convert Smackover.

9. The names: of last class come to use as the result of topographic mistakes and mistakes which were steadly used then. For example: Tolo (state origin) from Yolo, Darrington (stat Washington), from Barrington Plaski (state Texas) from Pulaski. There is another suggestion which was referred by P. Cook for the origin of languages. In her classification we may look through items of scheme 3 and 4, suggested by G. L. Mencken.

The suggestion of L. Fitzpatrick was not differ from the classifications of scientific scientists which were given before. He divides them into following groups in his book ‘’ Toponyms of Nebrask’’:

a) Descriptive names.
b) Commemorative names
c) Names- carryings
d) Names- contamination
e) Group of possessive names.

Essential deficiency of classification which was given before is blending of

semantic and grammatical plans. V.A.Nikonov warned that it is impossible to have general classification, for example, semantics and word formation. Semantic types are tied strongly with social- historical conditions, then word formative types depend on order of language. This blending is seen in the classification of L. Fitzpatrick; where name contamination was showed with expressed semantic classification instead of word formative classification. By the way, author of most classification schemes limit word formative analysis of toponyms[1].

Logical point of view the schemes of Mencken and Stewart are far from perfectness. Difference between classes of names is flexible and often one name can be found in several classes. Mythological names which are related to the religious traditions of Indians. Stewart refers to possessive names, but at that time many Indians names were found and were considered as commemorative names.

The weak part of classification of Mencken and Stewart shows their orientation to the description of origin of subjects on research of toponyms. Word formative analysis of researches. V.N.Toporov notices initiation of these classifications, independently from the territory they belonged, he writes, in his suggestion. It was obtained more or, lees remainders of indefinite forms, unsolved in the frame of selected classifications.

In this attitude, classification of American geographic names were constructed on several other principles, suggested by R. L. Ramsey in 1934, which was offered on the basis of work on learning toponyms of state Missouri. According to the suggestion of Ramsey classification consists of several parts. The first them shows clear semantic character includes following groups.

1. Borrowed names which were borrowed from other countries (New Madrid, Mexico, Moscow) and native division of names (from Seder Creek was constructed Cedar, Prairie, Cedar Church).

2. Names, which are linked with the history of whole country and separate state:

[1] Niconov V.A. “Onomastica”, 1959

a) Names linked the life of Indian tribes (Missouri, Osage, and Moniteau).:

b) French, Spanish and other names reflecting period of colonizators of American countries (St. Louis, Marais de Cygnes);

c) Names, which are linked with Mexican war in California (Vera Cruz, California Prairie).

3. Names, which came from proper names (Tecumsch, Black Hawk, Lafaette, Columbia, Fulton, Elizabeth, Clark and etc).

4. Names, which are bounded with physic-geographic characteristics of the state. (Pineville, Porlar Bluff, Panther Den, Bu Creek, Galena, Richland, Lakeview, Valley City, Muddy Creek nd etc.); To this group belongs locative names (cenyralia, South River, Westport).

5. Subjective names, which were linked with the origin from literature, advertisement, different slogan, examples, religions, (Concord, Eureka, Sodom, Avalon, Enron, Silver Like, Cure- All Springs). R.L. Ramsey considers that lexico-semantic suggestion to the classification of toponyms displaying essential and stresses importance of this section which was offered in their classification. This part of Ramsey's classification coincide schemes reminded before. As known idea of such analysis is not new. V. N. Toporov explains broad circulation of interpretation of names by the point of their origin and meaning, that ''during long years in the toponomic facts were seen signs which allows to bound them this or that historic facts or with some other things.

There R. L. Ramsey offers indispensability of analyzing the structure of geographic names and in the second part of his classification, he writes possible parts[1].

Practically he divides names 3 essential types:

1. Compound words and word combination, (Chalk Level, Hell's Acre, Blackfoot, Pinetop and so on).

[1] Ramsey P.H. "A Dictionary of British surname", London. 1956.

2. Roots (stems) with detached affixes, (New Madrid, Little York, West Joplin, Hilton Hollow, Benton City).

3. Roots (stems) with attached affixes (Westport, Landonia Taberville, Columbia).

Now it is necessary to notice not important moment- division of semantic and morphologic analysis by the point of view of toponomic classification that the scheme of R. L. Ramsey differs from the most of toponomic classifications of other American scientists.

View of Russian toponomists on the question of toponomy differs with great successiveness. Most of them, admitting an importance of semantic analysis of toponyms, come to conclusion, that classification which was built on analyzing forms of toponyms must be foundation of toponomic classification. So A. I. Popov, analyzing different kinds of semantic classification (division of names in groups by their origin from proper names, professions, jobs of people and historical events) notes that conclusions which was obtained with the help of such initial methods rarely get useful results. Pointing importance of works which were held studding toponyms with their historic and geographic significance, A. I. Popov declines the idea, which the division of such apparition in toponomy which show typological similarity of some famous languages considers the main method of constructing toponomic classification. This method, writes A. I. Popov ‘’ is based on mass-discussion of the roots of names, as well as, studying formats’’ in the names of the geographical places which are similar in character.

A.V. Superanskaya points to weak side of semantic classification, mainly grouping words by their meaning of roots: It’s a wrong way, the names of different epoch belongs the same group. V. A. Niconov supposes that classification of toponyms must be constructed on toponomic formants, or famous formant names or famous basis circulating definite territories and definite periods, they service with their stratigraphic signs to know history of population.

V. N. Toporov sees main reason of deficiency of toponomic classification

that toponomy is considered as an auxiliary science yet and maintains that only natural possibility of sensible classification is linked with transforming toponomys from auxiliary discipline to linguistic discipline with it's own researches and problems.

N.V.Podolskaya suggested her way to solve the problem. Speaking about

character analysis and classification of toponomic materials. N.V.Podolskaya offers two aspects of classification must be put the sign of that object which carries the names According to this initial classification, it was divided into 2 particular groups:

1. Names of places where people live;

2. Names of natural places.

By the opinion of N. V. Podolskaya further analysis of material and their classification must be linguistically. At first, this will be analysis of structure of names, as well as the structure of names, suffixal instruction and character of word combination, is the thing which researcher have to study directly. At the result, such analysis of stricture of material is assigned in morphologic group. Pointing correctness of this suggestion, N. V. Podolskaya writes: such structure of classification is necessary, as well as, it allows to show characteristics to the types of toponomys of every territory and gives possibility of appropriate next suggestion of material and their materials and their analysis.

The last phrase of research must be lexic-semantic analysis, allowing to divided toponomys into groups which bounded with nature, proper names and ethnonyms.

E. M. Chernyakoskaya writes about existence of two adopted schemes of classification of toponomic materials:

1. By the lexic-semantic structure as a remedy uncovering toponomy formative historical process.

2. By the type of lexic or morphologic word formative toponomic derivation.

Pointing accurateness of each classification on scientific and methodic aspects, E. M. Chernyakovskaya accentuates necessity of study word formative structure of geographic proper names, as well as, all of the proper names, in one side, testify about common process and tendention of development of every language in modern stage as it was in the past, on other side, their own development and word formative specifics[1].

A great attention was given treatment semantic classification of geographic names. Particularly, there toponyms reflect clearly the history of notion, writes Yu. A. Karpenko, whose works on grouping toponyms of Bulkovin by their origin servise to give a great attention. Author divides toponyms into 4 main group:

1. The first class includes toponyms which nominal origin geographic names or the sign of appropriate objects and graphic proper names.

2. The second group unites toponyms, originated from anthroponomy, ethnic names and nominal human names.

3. This class borders toponyms which constructed from the names of things and signs of culture.

4. The last group unites indefinite names by their origin.

Suggestion, offered by A. V. Superanskaya attracts with its originality, of grouping of names. Author shares out direct toponyms, reflecting any feature to any object and indirect toponyms which don't give any geographic characteristics of objects. By the level of nomination A. V. Superanskaya divides toponyms initial toponyms, originated directly from the nominal names and uninitial toponyms which rose from the other proper names. Uniting these two characteristics, author gets 4 types of names, that each of them owns its different peculiarities and was given definite categories of objects.

At the end A. V. Superanskaya points that the way to materials and methods are her researches, and the deep border will be different in subordination from belonging of names in definite languages, territories, chronological snippets.

[1] Petrovskiy N.A. "Dictionary of Russian Proper names" Moscow, 1966.

Suggested type of classification of onomastic materials occures much more clearly. They include:

1. Classification of names bounded with the named objects
2. Naturally appeared and synthetically formed names.
3. Classification of names, linked with word “micro”.
4. Structural classification of names.
5. Chronological classification.
6. Classification of names, bounded with their reasons and ethimological classification.
7. Classification of names, linked with their capacity of meanings.
8. Classification, linked with diphotonomy-language-speech.
9. Stylistic and aesthetic classification.

CHAPTER II. SOME FEATURES OF ENGLISH AND UZBEK PLACE NAMES

2.1. THE ETYMOLOGY OF ENGLISH NAMES

The subject of English place names is a complicated one. There are many factors involved, not the least of which is the waves of conquest England suffered during the period in which most of her place names were formed. The result is that English place names come from a variety of languages: possibly pre British, British, Latin, Old English, Old Norse of two varieties and Norman French. Each of these languages has contributed place names and influenced the from of existing place names. This makes a rich and complicated subject with much fine detail. I have tried to review the major types of English place names, but it has not been possible to touch one very aspect of the subject.

A basic fact of English place names research is that looks can be deceiving. The modern form of a name may clearly indicate its meaning, such as Ashwood (Staffordshire) which means ash wood. More often, the modern form of a name is deceptive, such as Rockbeare (Devon) which has nothing to do with rocks or bears, but means "grove frequented by rooks" Yet another problem is that place names which have the same modern form may have completely different meaning and origin For example the Place name Oulton may mean "old farmstead", "Outhulf's farmstead", "Wulfa's farmstead" or "Ali's farmstead". Only the early forms of the particular place will show the original meaning. Another problem with looking at modern form is that some words that were distinct in old English appear identical in modern English. The old English have which means variously "homestead, village, manor, estate and Hamm which means ''enclosure, land hemmed by water or much or higher ground, land in a riverbed, river meadow, promontory'' both appear as ham in modern names. Obviously, whether a name element was originally ham or hamm would make a

1. Major difference in meaning. At the same time the river names Axe, Exe, Esk and Usk are all derived from the British words is co meaning ''water''. Any element in use over centuries is likely to change meaning or have local shades

of meaning that at a distance of ten centuries or more we way have difficulty ascertaining.

To combat this sort of confusion, scholars of English place names will act as many early forms of a names as possible and analyze them in the light of their knowledge of language and dialect, grammar, pronunciation, topography, sound shifts and other relevant factors. Although the generally available dictionaries on the subject may cite any where from one to a dozen dated forms for each entry, place names scholars may actually assemble a few dozen to a few thousand examples of early spellings of a name before coming to any conclusions.

Considered structurally, there are two types of English place names simplex names from a single element and compounds composed of two, or occasionally three elements. Simplex names were usually local names applied to a single prominent feature of the landscape, typically a hill, valleys or remains of a prehistoric or Roman fort. Other simplex names exist because they were an outlying farm or dependency of a near by village or farmstead. In this case, the local people ham no need to identify the place more clearly. Compound names are composed of an adjectival element and a habitative or topographic element. These compound names make up the majority of place names in England.

Considered functionally there are three types of England place names. Then first type is folk names, which is a names of a folk or people which become the name of their settlement. Essex means ‘’(territory of) the East Saxons’’. These names are generally quits old. The second type of place names is a habitative name, which may be simplex or compound. Wick (Avon) is an example of a simplex habitative name meaning ‘’ the dwelling, the specialized farms or trading settlement’’. A compound habitative name is Crosby (Cumbria) ‘’village where there are croses’’. Habitative names contain some element which indicates human settlement. Topographical names may also be simplex, such as Wawne (Humberside) ‘’quaking bog or quagmire’’ or compound, such as Ottershaw (Surrey), which means ‘’ small wood frequented by otters’’. They describe some

feature of the landscape. Often topographic names later came to be applied to a near by settlement.

The earliest place names in English are a small number that may be preceltic in origin, including the river names Colne, Humber, Itchen, Ouse, and Wey. These are believed to have been in use before the Celtic inhabitants arrived in the foarth centure B.C.E and some may date back to the Neolitic era. They survived because of their adoption by the Britons and subsequently by the Anglosaxons.

Next in antiquity are the British names, used by the Britons. These are univently distributed across England being quite rare in the east and growing more frequent in the west, until one approaches Cornwall and the area near Wales where the Britons were able to maintain a hold on the land the longest. In the east only the names of large rivers such as the Thames and the Yare and important Roman towns such as London, York and Lincoln survived. Further west, some smaller rivers, hills, forests and settlements also retain names of Celtic origin. Many surviving British names are topographical names, adopted by the Anglo-Saxons as such and later transferred to near by settlements. British names of rivers, hills, forests and valleys have survived. Two British words gor hill, bre and pen survive in a variety of place names, usually with an Old English addition meaning ‘’hill’’. Bre is the first element in Brill (Buckinghamshire) with the addition of hyll and in Bredon (Herefordshire) and (Worcestershire) and Breedon on the Hill (Staffordshire) combined with wudu. Pendle Hill (landcasshire) is composed of pen with the addition of the Old English hyll, which developed into Pendle and Hill was once again added. British ced meaning wood appears in Chute Forest in Wiltshire, Chet wode in Buckinghamshire and in the wholly British compound Lytchett (Dorset), meaning ‘’grey wood’’. The British kumb, meaning valley was used so extensively that it was adopted into Old English as cumb and has yielded numerous place names containing Combe and Coombe.

A great influence on the remaining British place names is Latin. An interesting class of surviving British names come from Latin words that were

adopted into British. Foremost among these are egles from the Latin ecclesia, wic from vicus, camp from campus, and funta from fantana. Egles survived today in towns known as Eccles in Lancashire, Norfolk, Greater Manchester and Kent. It appears in compounds with an. Old English element in Yorkshire, Staffordshire, Cheshire, Lancashire, Herefordshire and Merseyside. Engles is believed to indicate the presence of an early church.

Some Celtic names contain what are called ‘’inversion compounds’’, in which the adjectival element occurs as a second element rather that as the first. This is characteristic of Celtic names formed in mediceval times. They occur frequently in Cornwall and occasionally in other places where a Celtic influence survived late. Canreath (Cornwall) is a name of this type, meaning ‘’churchside of Reydhogh’’. Another example is Pansax (Herefordshire and Worcestershire) meaning ‘’ hill ‘’of the Anglo-Saxons. The vast majority if English place names are Old English in origin. The arrival of the Anglo Saxons caused a major description in English place names nomenclature. Names of Old English origin come from all three major types of place names. Folk names were used in the early stages of Anglo Saxons period.

Folk names are small but significant type of place name. Many are names of important divisions of England today. These became place names because they were transferred from the people to whom they referred to the territory of that people. A folk name containing an element such as sate meaning ‘’settlers’’ or folk meaning ‘’folk ‘’, is usually a division of a larger established group. Suffolk is ‘’the south folk’’ (of the Anglas). Dorset means ‘’settlers at the Dorn’’ in which Dorn is a reduced form of the Old English name of Dorchester. Cornwall is an Anglicized form of a Celtic tribal name with the addition of the Old English element walh meaning ‘’Briton

Welshman’’. Wessex is ‘’the west Saxons’’ and Northumberland ‘’ the people north of the Humber River’’. Some names of less prominent folk also exist in place names. Only a detailed knowledge of early Anglo-Saxon tribal names

would indicate that Jarrow (Type and Wear) comes from a tribal name meaning ‘’fen people’’.

A distinct type of folk name is represented by Hastings and Reading. The Old English ending in gas means the descendant’s, followers or people of. These two names mean ‘’the people of Haesta’’ and ‘’the people of Reada’’. In the case of Hastings, one sees the survival of the plural is lost. Traditionally, scholars believed that names formed with in gas represented the oldest English settlements, but more recent evidence has cast doubt on this theory. Some compounds of ingas were formed with a topographical term instead of a personal name. In this case, the people took their name from a feature of the landscape around their settlement and this name then became the name of the settlement. Avening (Gloucestershire) derives its name from ‘’ people living by the river Avor’’ and (Epping) from ‘’ the upland people’’.

Most habitative names occur in compound forms, but certain elements can occur as simplex names as well. Burp ‘’fortified place, stronghold’’ and ceaster ‘’Roman station or walled town, old fortification or earthwork’’ are often indicators of Roman or prehistoric fortifications. As such they tended to be rare in a given locality and needed no adjectival element to separate them from others like them. Burch gave Suffolk and Bury in Cambridgeshire. Chester in Cheshire and Castor in Cambridgeshire are derived from ceaster.

Most habitative names occur in compound forms. Other simplex names occure in that form because they were originally dependencies or outlying settlements of an established settlement. Beretun and berewic are compounds that mean essentially barley farm or outlying part of an estate. They have given rise to numerous Bartons and Berwicks. Stoc meaning ‘’place, outlying farmslead or halmet, secondary or dependet’’, has given stoke as a common place name.

Compound English habitative names typically end with an element indicating a human settlement. The two most common Old English elements of this type are tun ‘’enclosure, farmstead, village, manor, estate’’ and ham

throughout England and it is easily combined with topographical elements, particularly clif, ea, eg, half, hyll, mersc, mor and ofer. Tun is the most common habitative element in old English.It originally meant enclosure, farmstead. Later it come to mean village and hamlet as well, and in names formed after the Norman conquest, it could mean manor or estate. Which meaning is correct for a particular place name depends on its age. This can be determined from written records if the place names are mentioned, but most place names do not occur in written records as soon as they are named. This same soft of uncertainty of meaning applies to any English place name element in use over a long period of time.

Habitative elements of English place names usually occur as the second element of a compound place name. However, examples of habitative elements occurring in the first position are not unknown. Tonbridge (Kent), composed of the English tun and brycg, is believed to mean "bridge belonging to the estate or manor''. Wickmere (Norfolk) is composed of the Old English elements wic and mere, meaning ''pool by the dwelling or dairy farm''.

The first element in a typically formed habitative name is adjectival. Adjectival elements come from a wide assortment of words: personal names or fork names, adjectives indicating age, size, color or situation, direction, topographical elements including rivers, plants wild and domestic, animals wild and domestic, industry or buildings associated with the settlement including. From personal names we have place names like Hiblersham (Cambridqeshire) which means ''homestead of a man called "Hildric", and Homerton (Greater London) meaning'' farmstead of a woman called Hunburh. Folk names often contain the element inga so Effingham (Surrey) is ''homestead of the family or followers of a man called Effa'' and Framingham (Norfolk) is ''homestead of the family or followers of a man called Fram''. Compound names with adjectives as the first element are represented by Breadenham (Buckinghamshire) where the first element means ''broad'', Glatton (Cambridgeshire) which means ''pleasant farmstead'' and Horham (Suffolk) meaning ''muddy farmstead''. Habitative

names containing directions are Norborough (Leicestershire) meaning ‘’north stronghold and Westcote (Gloucestershire) ‘’westerly cottage(s)’’.Collor in habitative names is fairly rare but Whitby (Chesshire) meaning ‘’white stronghold or manorhouse’’ is one example. Features of the landscape are common: Fenwick (Northumbria) means ‘’dwelling or (dairy) farm in a fen or march’’, Compton ‘’farmstead or village in a valley’’ and Dunton (Norfolk) ‘’farmstead on a hill’’. River names appear in Exton (Somerset) on the river Exe and Frampton (Dorset) on the river Frome Plants occur in such formations as Ashwick (Somerset), from the presence of ash trees, Mapledurham (oxfordshire) from the presence of maple trees and Bromton (North Yorkshire) from the presence of broom. Crops are represented by Barton ‘’barley farm’’ and Flaxton ‘’flax farm’’. Habitative names from animals include Shipdham (Norfolk) from animals include Shipdham (Norfolk) from a flock of sheep and Foxton (Cambridgeshire) from the presence of foxes. Industry is represented in Sapperton (Lincolnshire) ‘’farmstead of the soapmakers or soapmerchants’’. Mitton (Cumbria) ‘’farmstead or village with a mill’’ and Burham (Kent) ‘’homestead near the fortified place’’ demonstrate a prominent building occurring in a habitative name.

Topographic names are the third major type of English place names. Originally, all of these were names of features of the landscape. Thoes that are now settlement names have been transferred from the topographical feature to a settlement nearby. In early Anglo-Saxon documents this was indicated by inserting the Old English preposition at or Latin ad in front of the place names. Stratford (the settlement) at the ford by which a Roman road crosses the river. This sort of elliptical use survived in some cases into Middle English. When the preposition was dropped from Atten as be, the name became Nash, because the final consonant of the preposition became the initial consonant of the new place name. The same process occurred in the name Nayland.

Topographical names occur in both simplex and compound forms. Simplex forms are represented by Lea (Derbyshire) and Eye (Cambridgshire) from Old

English elements lean meaning variously ‘’wood, woodland clearing or glade, later pasture, meadow’’ and eg meaning variously island, land partially surrounded by water, dry ground in a marsh, wellwatered land, promontory. Most of topographical names are compounds consisting of an initial adjectival element and then a topographic element such as lean or eg. Adjectival elements include personal names, colors, types of soil, position, location or condition, tha names of trees, wild plants or crops, and wild domestic animals and birds. The topographic element in the name could be a natural feature of the landscape such as a hill, valley or plain, a type of country such as mursh, wood or moorland, a body of water such as river, stream, pool or sea, small positions of land defined by the landscape or a human created or used element such as a borrow or ford.

Examples of topographic names are not hard to find. Topographic names containing a personal names include Edgmound (Shropshire) ‘’hill of a man called Ecgmoun’’ and Edingale (Staffordshire) ‘’nook of land of the family or a man called ‘’Eadin’’. Blackmoor (Hampshire) ‘’dark colored pool’’ and Grilow (Derbyshire) green hill or mound demonstrate topographic names containing colors. Types of soils are found in Claybanger (West Midlands) “ Clayed wooded stop” and Stanfield (Norfolk) stony open land”. Position is indicated by upwood (Cambridgeshire), meaning “higher wood”. Dalwood (Devon) shows a location: “wood in a valley”. Condition is indicated by windle (Lancashire), Defford (Herefordshire) and (woreestershire) and

Hendon (Greater London) meaning respectively ‘’windy hill’’, ‘’deep ford’’ and ‘’(place at) the high hill’’. Tree names can be found in Oakley (Somerset) ‘’valley where the willow trees grow’’ and Birchover (Derbyshire) ‘’ridge where birchtrees grow’’. Examples of topographic names containing wild plants are Gorsley (Gloucestershire) ‘’woodland clearing where gorse grows’’ and Redmire (North Yorkshire) ‘’reedy pool’’. Flexley (Gloucestershire) is a topographical name containing the name of a crom. The name of wild animals are found in Deerhurst in Glouastershire and Foxt in Staffordshire. Names of domesticated

animals are found in Callerton (Northumbia) and Shiplake (oxfordshire), meaning ‘’hill where calves graze’’ and ‘’sheep stream’’. Bird names can be found in Dunnocksshaw (Landcasshire) ‘’small wood or copse frequented by hedge sparrows’’ and Ousden ‘’valley frequented by owls’’. Islip (Northamtonshire) shows the use of a river name in a topographic name ‘’slippery place by the River Ise’’.

The influenza of Danes and Norwegians, beginning in the midninth century was the next major influence on English place names. Borth groups spoke dialects of Old Norse. They primarily affected the names of northern England, where the Danes settled in the eastern parts and the Norwegians mostly in the west. The exact details of Danish and Norwegians settlements are a matter of disagreement among scholars, but the effect on English place names are clear. The Scandinavians created new names, substituted their words for similar English cognates and changed the sounds in existing English place names.

Most Norse place names in England are habitative names. The majority of these are compounds ending in by or thorp. By, at the time of its use in England, meant ‘’village’’ and thorp ‘’secondary settlement dependant outlying farm or hamlet’’. In general, names ending in by are older than names ending in thorp. Both are typically combined with personal names, but may also be combined with other categories of words including groups of people, topographic terms and adjectives. Thorp also appears as a simplex name, because of its meaning of a secondary settlement.

Norse habitative names are usually formed with Old Norse personal names, but a few are found which contain English and Irish given names. Kettlethorpe (Lincolnshire), which contains the Old Norse name Ketil and Asenby (North Yorkshire), which contains the name Einstein, are typical of this type of name. The Old English name Baldhere occurs in Baldersby in North Yorkshire.

Norse habitative names containing groups of people include nationalities, sex, station and occupation. Examples of nationality are found in Ingleby, which is

in Derbyshire, indicates an English settlement and Irby (Lancasshire) an Irish settlement. An example of sex in a habitative name is Whenby (North Yorkshire) ‘’of the women’’. An occupational name occurs in Copmanthorpe (North Yorkshire) ‘’outlying farmstead or hamlet belonging to the merchants’’.

Norse habitative names may also contain adjectives or topographical elements. Examples of names containing adjectives are Austhorp ‘’east thorp’’ and Mickleby ‘’large farmstead’’. Names containing a topographic term include Barrowby (Lincolnshire) containing the word hill and Sowerby (North Yorkshire) containing a word meaning ‘’mud, dirt, sour ground’’. A name frequently found in England is Kirby or Kirkby meaning ‘’church village’’.

A small number of Norse topographical names exist in England. These can be simplex or compound. Examples of simplex names of this type include Wath (North Yorkshire) ‘’the ford’’ and Holme (Nottinghamshire) ‘’island, dry ground in march, watermedow’’. Hanlith (North Yorkshire) ‘’slope or hillside of a man called Hagni or Hogni’’, Ulpha (Cumbrua) ‘’hill frequented by wolves’’ and Thornthwaite ‘’thorn tree clearing’’ are examples of Old Norse compounds.

Other names are compounds of Old Norse and Old English elements. Old Norse given names are found combined with English habitative and topographical elements and vice versa. Old Norse given names combined with tun are believed to have been formed when a Norseman took over a village or manor, in which case his name was substituted for the original. Examples of this type of name are Nawton (North Yorkshire), which contains the Old Norse name Naoli while levenshulme (Greater Manchester) combines Old English leofwin with Old Norse holmr. Dunholm, the original form of Darham, is a compound of Old English dun ‘’hill’’ and Old Norse holmr ‘’island’’.

Old Norse and Old English had many similar sounding words with the same meaning, such as their words for stone Stan in Old English and stein in Old Norse. Old Norse cognates have been substituted for Old English elements in some names. For instance, Stainton is a Scandinavianized form of Stanton, both of which

usually mean ‘’tun on stony ground’’. The Old Norse rather is believed to have been substituted for Old English read, both of which mean ‘’red’’, in names like Rawcliffe and Rawmarsh.

Old Norse also caused sound changes inside wholly English place names. While Old Norse and Old English are similar, some English sounds caused problems for the Scandinavians. Two sounds in particular were a problem: ‘’sh’’ and ‘’ch’’. The normal sound represented by Old English so occurs in the beginning of Shipton, but the same name is now skipton in Scandinavians areas. Likewise, Cheswick is the normal English form of a name found in Scandinavian areas of England as Keswick.

The final major influence on English place names was the Normal conquest in 1066. Because this was generally a settlement of political overloads rather than of large groups of people, this did not cause massive renaming nationally or locally. A certain amount of naming and remaining was done, of course, but the greatest effect was in sound changes.

Many of them, of the New French names were compounds of the pattern demonstrated by Beaumont ‘’beautiful hill’’ and Beauchief ‘’beautiful headland or hill spur’’.2 Others were French place names brought over and bestowed on English places. Richmont and Grosmont are examples of these types of names, though in the case of Richmound (North Yorkshire) at last, the meaning ‘’strong hill’’ is entirely appropriate to the site. Rougcmont and Ridgmont are French descriptive names of the sites of the villages.3 The monastery of Rievaulx combined the name of the Rye river with Old French vals meaning valley. Substitutions of French elements for English elements also occurred in place names, of which ville for feld is the most common. Enville (Staffordshire) occurs in the Domesday Book as Efnefeld and Turville occurs in the form Thyrefeld in 796. A few new names were also coined from Norman given names or surnames and English ekments. Williamscot in Oxfordshire and Johnby in Cumbria are examples of what are probably late formations of this type.

The greatest influence of the Norman Conquest on English place names occurs in spelling and pronunciation. This was because there were many sounds in English names unfamiliar to the Normans. They solved this by modifying the English names to make them easier to pronounce. These changes form recognizable patterns, but the patterns are not universally applied, many English forms were retained in the end. The following are only a few examples of the changes that occurred. The Norman influence appears in many names containing ceaster, in which they substituted c for ch, as in Gloucester, and t for st as occurs in Exeter in Devon. The loss of an initial s occurs in Nottingham, which was originally Snottingham. At was substituted for th in Turville (Buckinghamshire). Which appears in the form Tyrefeld in 796. Jarrow (Tyne and wear) shows a changes from g to j. It occurs as Gyruum, Girwe in 1048 and by 1228 as Jorwe. It was also Norman influence that changed n to r in Durham, which was originally Dunholme.

A final aspect of English place names are affixes. These additions to the place names usually occurs as separate words such as Nether, St Peter or Courtney. These serve as additional identifiers added to the name after it is formed. Most of these occur in records for the first time in the thirteenth century, though a few occur in the Domesday of Book and many appear later. There are two types of affixes: descriptive and owns. Descriptives could be that of direction (East, Middle, Lower, in Ribblesdale), size(Great or Magna, Little or parva), shape (Broad, Long), distinguishing features (Cold, Broad Oak , Steple), products (Flax,Iron, Beans), church dedications (St Martin ,St Outhbert) and so forth. These descriptive could occur before or after the actual placename: Castle Rising occurs in Norfolk, Sulton Coldfield in West Midlands. Some Location information occurs in a string of words as occurs in the name Hope under Dinsmore in Herefordshire and Worcestershire. Church dedications usually occur after the village name proper as in Chalfont St Peter.

Ownership affixes occur as given names, surnames and generics. Burton

Agnes (Humberside) is derived from the name of Agnes de Percy, and Hemingford Grey (Cambridgeshire) which was once owned by the monks of Christchurch, Canterbury. In Temple Ewell (Kent) the affix Temple indicates ownership by the Templars.

Reflected in the history of English place names is the history of England. The waves of conquest and settlement were accompanied by new languages, each of which left their mark on English place names. In the names themselves. However, one has the opportunity to glimpse the world through medieval man's eyes. There are the broad brushstrokes of of the landscape hills, valleys, forests and bodies of water in all their variety. Information important to a farmer is often included in a name: the characteristics of the soil stony, clayey, sour, wet or dry, how the land was used fords on steams and rivers, hills for beacon fires, pastures for herds, clearings for crops and the presence of predators and pests such as foxes, wolves and crows. On a more intimate level, one gets glimpses of the finer details a corpse of head gesparrows, a stream filled with gorse, willows in a valley. This detail provides a different, more personal view of the past than the sweeping pictures of history. For both the large and the small view, this is a subject worthy of further study.

2.2. LINGUISTIC AND MORPHOLOGIC FEATURES OF ENGLISH AND UZBEK NAMES

Their own special features of studying of names in Linguistic aspect, characterizing and defining specific sides of names have a great importance for every language.

The words and phrases which express the place names differs from the other words and phrases which form the dictionary of a language[1]. This feature seems to be connected with the influence of some historical events, several historic persons and natural laws on the appearance of toponomys. Studying and defining these

[1] Murzaev E.M. "Principles of toponomy", Moscow. 1964

features of such words as toponyms is one of the principal tasks of checking in Linguistic aspect.

It is much more difficult to define the words expressing place names that simple words in the dictionary. Because, the particular word of dictionary stuff is used in this language for everyday use. But, the using of place names is limited much more than simple words and they are used in the speech of people who live in the particular territory. Because of belonging of place names to the historical lexis of the language, such words are not so understandable from the point of the recent language. Only etymological analysis gives us the result which we expected. Because the sensitivity of morphological staff of historic words is too low.

The morphemes containing them are completely forgotten. For example: such names as Chimkent, Tashkent, Mankent and Burg in Suffolk, Castor in Cambridgeshire, Chester in Cheshire are understood as a single word.

The reason of difficulties of linguistic explaining of place names is their belonging to slang and dialects. Their structure didn't coincide to the phonetic and morphologic structure of recent language completely.

The characteristic features of place names made us to divide them into two groups.

1. Historical place names.
2. Present place names.

Historical place names are the names which haven't changed yet. And we use them as they were some ages before.

The characteristic features of present place names are:

a) These place names express new and social progressive meanings.

b) Formation of words and phrases expressing place names coincides formation of words at present days.

c) The component of toponyms didn't require etymologic analysis, it is easy to define them morphologically.

d) The word and element of new toponym has an active use in the lexis of

present language.

Toponomic words genetically consist of the elements of several languages. We can see this feature in the toponyms of Northen Uzbek dialects.

As a conclusion. I can say that studying place names in linguistic aspect is one of the most difficult methods. In this case it is paid a special attention to the morphologic, syntactic, orphographic, orphoepic and lexis-semantic features of the language.

THE MORPHOLOGIC FEATURES OF ENGLISH AND UZBEK NAMES

While analyzing place names morphologically one most pay attention to the structure of them. Morphological structure is a formation of words. Every word has its own particular form and structure[1].

This structure consists of structural element such as phoneme, phoneme combinations roots and others structural element of words are characterized with free, bound, simple and compound root: structural elements take an importance place on defining meaningful features of words, because lexical and grammatical meanings are expressed in structural elements such as morphemes. The real semantics of some changed words are defined by defining their meaning of structural elements.

Analysis structural elements helps to create the real etymology of words, to determine their relation to any language or dialect. For example:

Navobod, Qizilobod, Nizomobod, Eastwood, Richmond, Nav, qizil, east, rich and obod, wood, mond contain structural elements. These elements are considered as a lexic element of persian-tadzik language: nav (persian) – new, nizom (arabic) – measure, obod (persian) mean a place where people live.

Using of structural elements of on defining the meanings of words are said by several linguistic scientists.1 Morphologic features of toponomic words are

[1] Rahmatullayev Sh. “Etimological Dictionay of Uzbek language”. Tashkent, 2000.

expressed mutual relation of root and affixal morphemes sometimes more than one roots are connected with each other.

Toponyms are classified following according to them morpholocal features:

1. Simple toponyms.

a) Free names

b) Bound names

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1. Compound toponyms.

a) Two stem toponyms

b) Compound toponyms.

Simple toponyms contains with single rooted words. A simple word is a part of speech which has lexico-grammatical meaning. Simple words, as usual, are characterized with existence of single root in the word. Every root expresses a particular lexical meaning. In the development of Language we met transformation of compound words to the simple words.

In Uzbek Language the most parts of simple words historically characterized by the appearance from one root. For example: tepa- hill, quduq- well, adir- plain, yer- earth, suv- water, buloq- spring, ariq- brook, ko'l- lake, tog'- mountain and so on.

There are free and bound features of words in the toponomic names. There are bound toponyms in the toponyms of Nothern Uzbek dialects, such as, mehnat- labour, o'rtoq- friend, hayot- life, Hamza, Chigatoy (Arabic, Persian languages) and Uchqun, Tasti, Birlik and so on[1].

As a conclusion, we can say that the free words consist of root only, there are not word formative affixes in the component of word. Free word will be basic to the bound words formation of words services to increase the dictionary in Turkish Languages. Free words have a character of unity. For Example: tog'-

[1] Murzaev E.M. "Principles of toponomy", Moscow. 1964

mountain, tov, suv, qir, ko'l, soy, buloq, tepa, adir and etc. the toponomic word, which is met in the dialect of Northern Uzbeks, are considered as a free words. For example: Buloq,(spring), Bo'sag'a, Bozor, Darboza, Dzulduz Chanoq, Chayon, Sharq.

There are bound toponyms in Uzbek dialects. Bound toponyms are constructed by adding affixes to the root.

Compound toponyms are divided into two by its structure.

a) Two rooted toponyms

b) Complex toponyms

Compound word consists of combine of two are many roots. There will not be more that two independent roots in the compound word. There will be met compound toponyms in Northern Uzbek dialect lexic.

Their second component divides into several groups by their meaning:

I. The second component with the hydronym character. Ex: Uchquduq, uch+quduq

II. The second component with the oronym character.

III. The second component with the name of plants (trees) .Ex Qatortol

IV. The second component with the names of place. Where people live.

Ex: Yangiobod, Tashkent.

V. The second component with the names of place where people don't live.

Ex: Qizilqum, Qoraqum.

3. The semantic feature of English place names.

The semantic characteristics given in the previous section belong to already determined, formed, communicationally versatile word classes (above all, nouns and qualitative adjectives)[1]. However, the connection between the meaning of the word and its customary role in communication, and consequently the distinctive

[1] Murzaev E.M. "Principles of toponomy", Moscow. 1964

semantic feature or nature of words with a different "specialty" can also be observed amongst member of the same lexico- grammatical class capable of performing both communicative forms or functions. The noun is the obvious example of such a class[1].

Although all substantives (common nouns) may in theory be either the subject or the predicate of a sentence, some of them show a preference for an identifying, others for a predicative role.

The process that we are considering may go no farther than to transfer the name of a well known personage to some one who resembles him. Thus , we may call a great orator a Demosthenes' or 'a Burke' or ' Webster' , ' a great general' 'a wellington' or ' ' marlborough ' , a cruel tyrant 'a Nero' , the assistor of his countrys liberties ' a Washington'. This happens everyday and calls for no remark. A further step is taken when the name of such a character is used for all who resemble him. It is then a pure common noun, and if our coinage passes current, the language has gained a word. Perhaps the most impressive example is Caesar which, originally the name of a Roman family of no great distinction, has become a synonym for 'emperor' in languages so widely different as German (Kaiser) and Russian (Tsar).

Articles of the commerce are often named after the place from which they come or are supposed to come: as, java, moeba, ovlong, champagne, sauterne, sherry (older sherris) , from xeses, in Spain): cambric (from Kamerik, i.e. Cambrai), gin (from Geneva): china, japan, cashmere, madros, tweed, muslin (from the Mesopatamian town of Masoul or Mausil): damask (from Damascus), fustian (From fustat, i.e) Cairo; Marocco ; cordovan or cordwain (from Cordava); Landay , Berlin, survey; arras, tapestry bangings (from Arras, in France); fez (from Fez, in Marocco); macassar (from Arras, in France);

Most of the words just noted are obviously place-names and still

[1] Rahmatullayev Sh. "Etimological Dictionay of Uzbek language". Tashkent, 2000.

recognizable as such. But there are many other similar terms whose origin is seldom thought of. Thus spaniel is a Spanish dog (O. Fr. Espagnol); pistol is from Pistoja (Pistola, through Fr pistole); milliner is Milaner, one who important fallals from Milan; jet is from Gagas, an ancient town in Asia Minor, pheasant is from the river Phasis in Pontus; copper (L. Cuprum) was aes Cyprium, bronze from Cyprus'.

Magnet is Magnesian stone, from the district of Magnesia in Thessaly (whence) also the chemical names magnesia and maganese). The mystery of the loadstone has been a constant temptation to theorists of one school or another, and thus magnetic and magnetism have not only renounced their Thessalian connections, but have turned their backs on mineralogy. The modern figurative uses of the words – as in a magnetic personality, he lacks magnetism – might easily have come straight from magnet. In fact, however, they are derived from Mesmer's speculations on animal magnetism (about 1775). As Mesmer's theory of a physical force a kin to that of the magnet became discredited, the phrase was, replaced by mesmerism, which was popular until very recently. But Mesmer was felt to be something of a charlatan. At all events, investigators repudiated his views with unanimous enthusiasm. It was not tolerable, then, that his name should remain attached to a great class of phy psychic phenomena *Hypnotism* was accordingly coined and has become rapidly popular. Perhaps this will hold the field, for, comiry as it does from Gr. (hupnos), "sleep", it is vague enough to coer

Any discoveries that may be made in the future:

Thus, all this is perfectly natural: in language man as quiresa mass of different designates. He can be named in accordance with is social functions, views, normal fibre, tastes and inclinations, actions, and, behavior, family status, appearance, participation in some particular event, the stealcer's attitude to him and many other attributes.

The general difference we have beer described leads to the emergence of differences between the somatic properties of common roars in the class of names

of persons and the names of things. The use of majority of names of names of things for the purposes of naming (denotation), farther than designating (signification) brings them closer semantically to proper names.

Figurative descriptions of persons such as bere, monlay, bear, ass, tend, like classical predicates, towards monosemantic. When transferred to persons these animal names usually retain only one qualitative-evaluative feature in their meanings: hare-cowardly, ass-stupidor stubborn, monkey-fond of imitating ,bear clumsy. By contrast, the names of abjasts generated by a completely analogous metaphor –Ex. byki "bulls"-for the peers of abridge, sobacka "little dog"-for a firearm, zuravl-"crane'-for awell, kukuska cocko-for a train, toska 'cat-for a type of anchor or spiked shoes, etc. swiftly lose their figurative effete, and their national content is en riched by a greater or lesson amount of features that proceed from the denotatum and are essential to the denotatum and are essential to the identification of the corresponding objects. Features of one class of realia are replaced by the features of another class

Thus, in terms of their semantic tape common names of concrete objects are close to proper names. Both the former and the latter often issue from a metaphor based on a single identificatory feature, but they soon commit the original image to oblivion replacing it with a "portraint" of the referent (the proper names–koska) (from – "cat"), kukushka (from 'kuckoo') or the class of referents (the common nouns koska, kukuska).

CONCLUSION

One of the sciences which study the names is toponomy. "Toponomy" in greek "topos" and "anoma" means "place names".

The word "toponym" means the place. Toponomy has two meanings. First case, we understand all the geographic names which are situated in the same territory.

Toponyms can be both place names, real or imaginary, as well as names derived from places or regions. Toponyms are found in many different arenas of industry, enterprise, culture, and current events. It is not unusual to find toponyms used for places that recall other places, as well as wars, treaties and agreements, bands, food, and fabric, among other items.

Second case, we understand a part of the linguistics which studies the geographic names.

The names of the cities, villages, stations, countries, districts, regions and names of seas, lakes, canals, wells, springs, bridges, valleys, deserts, woods, jungles, mountains, hills, roads and such names includes place names. Each of these names is toponyms.

Geographic toponyms are divided into two:

1. Proper Geographic names.

2. Common Geographic names.

Proper geographic names contain the names of concrete places. For example:

Turkiston, Washington (city), Qorachiq, Oulton (village)

Takakul, Loch Ness (lake).

It is known that proper nouns are used to refer to the singular things in the world.

Proper Geographic names contain one part of proper nouns and they are divided into several groups.

The names of springs: Moybuloq, the names of wells: Khudzakuduk,

Qizquduq, the names of books: Onamsoy, Oqsoy, Dark Hollow Brook the names of lakes: Tuqaykul, Obkul, Great lakes, Loch Ness, the names of sands. Bayrumqum, Qoraqum, Qizilqum, the names of mountains: Oqboshtog', Yettitog', Mout de vedio, the namesof hills: Bektepa, Kultepa, Oltintepa, Big Hill, Beverley Hills, the names of water: Buzsuv, Oqsuv, Takasuv, Niagara Falls, administrative-areal names: Central Asia, North English, South Kazakhstan. The main part of nouns consists of common geographic names. These are the names of thing which belong into the same genus, such as river, water, lake, mountain, and desert. In most cases common geographic names are used to make proper names as amaterial. For example Shurbuloq (there the first component is and adjective which means the taste (salty), the second component is spring a .common noun, means the spring with salty water.

Studying place names have scientific and practical importance. In resent days toponimics can be distiguished as an independant science as biochemistry, biophysics, astrobotany. Most of scientists E.M.Murzayev, V.A Niconov and Chechian toponomist V Shmilaures are pointing toponymy as an Independent science.

The science of toponomy is a branch of lingvistics which studies the history of language, materials of present languages and dialects.

Checking toponomy helps us to salve the historic, linguistic, geographic problems of place names, while learning toponomy we can learn the origin of place names.

Place names are part of Uzbek lexical language. It`s of great importance to learn toponomy for the sake of linguistics, geography, history, ethnography, hydrology, biology and geography. For example, IN some places in the Central Asia which are named with words gold was found gold mines. There are such place like Moylisuv, Gazli, Ko`mirtosh` Achchiqtosh in Uzbekistan. Their names Shows that there are mines there.

So, geographic names service not only for linguistic science, they service for

geology, historical geography, ethnography, archeology as a valuable source.

Despite of the fact the place names appear in a different ways, they pass from century to century, from one generation to another one.

So, the development of place names depends on the development of society and the development of language.

We can see the importance of place names in mapgraphy without help of toponomists there were a lot of mistakes giving the right place names.

Present days a lot of republics Ya. M. Endzelin, in Tomsk A. P. Dulzon, in Armenian academic G. A. Kapanasyan, Moskov E. M. Murzaev, V. A. Niconov, in Kazakhstan A. A. Abdurahimov, G. K. Konkashpaev, in Uzbekistan H. Hasanov, S. Qoraev and many others are working on toponomics. In Uzbekistan toponyms are not studied linguistically, some aspects of toponyms have been discovered by several scientists, such as L. N. Veselev, P. P. Ivanov, V. L. Vyatkin, M. E. Masson.

There works were the initial scientific researches about toponomy. Then there was long pause on studying toponomy, the real researches on toponomy began only in 60 years.

S. Zufarov wrote on article about history of Sayram. He discussed the book "Risola" about the history and people of Sayram and came to conclusion that this book belongs to a poct and scientific scientists Yusuf Sayramiy. Interest on the scientific of toponomies also increased among the Uzbek scientists, linguistics. F. A. Abdullaev wrote about Khorazm dialects, A. G. Gulomov about word formation, S. I. Ibragimov about Uzbek toponomys.

Binomial names have the advantage that at least the generic name is consistent. This not only reduces the effort of learning the names, but is likely to convey information about relationships and attributes. Common names are less consistent in such respects, except when they are systematically coined, and when they are consistent it often is because they take the form of pointless translations of the binomials. When they do not reflect the literal meaning of the binomial, but are

coined to be systematic in their own right, possibly reflecting guild membership for example, they simply amount to an arbitrary polynomial nomenclature in partial parallel to the binomial system; an added complication rather than a simplification.

As in most questions of imposition of rules of lexicography there is no general reason either to waste effort in opposing initiatives to create global standardised lists of common names, or to support them. The most practical and economical approach is to let developments take their course according to the long-established principle enunciated by Gamaliel.

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