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DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH STYLISTICS

QUALIFICATION PAPER

on

SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH WORDS DENOTING NAMES OF FLOWERS AND THEIR TRANSLATION INTO UZBEK

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CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

<u>The subject matter</u> of this qualification paper is to study semantic structure of English words denoting names of flowers and their translation into Uzbek.

<u>The object</u> of research is to study the usage and characteristic names of flowers and to give the translations of them.

<u>The actuality</u> of the presented qualification paper is the role of the names of flowers in the English and Uzbek languages and their usage in figurative and contextual meaning. We try to prove that, while working and translating the English words denoting the names of flowers and giving their translation there were analyzed their figurative meanings according to national and common features of that languages in addition, we can say that analyzing one semantic group of words denoting the names of flowers in one language and their comparison with other languages belonging to another language family, the qualification paper gives the opportunity for making clear the role of words denoting the names of flowers in different languages, their significance in linguistics and while working on their characteristic features to show their common and distinctive features in those languages.

<u>The aim</u> of the qualification paper is based on detailed study of the words denoting the names of flowers which is very interesting and important for English lexicology.

The given aim follows successive solution of the following <u>tasks</u>:

- to study Semasiology and its place in linguistics;

- to study Polysemy and semantic structure of words;

- to study etymology of English words denoting the names of flowers;

- to give the etymology of English words denoting the names of flowers;

- to reveal structural peculiarities of them English words denoting the names of flowers;

- to describe semantic structure of English words and phraseological units denoting the names of flowers;

- to analyze the ways of translation of English words and phraseological units denoting the names of flowers from English into Uzbek.

The methods of the qualification paper are defined in the investigation which represents the complex approach to the study of semantic structure of words denoting the names of flowers including structural, semantic, comparative contextual and componential ways of analysis of the language unit.

The novelty of the qualification paper is that studying the phraseological units and words with the names of flowers and giving their semantic structure divided into many groups, learning their characteristic features is the new way of investigation.

In the presented qualification paper there won't be given only the variants of semantic groups of them but we'll try to show their functions in different contexts i.e. to express a person by English, Uzbek words denoting the names of flowers.

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, Translation and 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, Chapter I, Chapter II, 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 is devoted to study Semasiology and its place in linguistics, Polysemy and semantic structure of words and etymology of English words denoting the names of flowers.

Chapter II is devoted to study semantic structure of English words and phraseological units with the names of flowers and translation ways of English words and phraseological units denoting the names of flowers from English into Uzbek.

Conclusion part reflects our theoretical opinions on the whole work.

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

CHAPTER I. SEMASIOLOGY AND THE PROBLEM OF MEANING

1.1. SEMASIOLOGY AND ITS PLACE IN LINGUISTICS

Semasiology is a branch of linguistic concerned with the meaning of words and word equivalents. The main objects of semasiological study are as follows: types of lexical meaning, polysemy and semantic structure of words, semantic development of words, the main tendencies of the change of word-meanings, semantic groups in the vocabulary system, i.e. synonyms, antonyms, semantic fields, thematic groups, etc. here is no generally accepted definition of the term "meaning of the word".

F. de Saussure a well-known Swiss linguist says that the meaning is the relation between the object or notion named and the name itself.

L. Bloomfield, a well-known American linguist, points out that the meaning is the situation in which the word is uttered: The situations prompt people to utter speech.

E.g, if we want to know the meaning of the word "apple" we must make a situation for it.

The study of meaning is a permanent interest of scholarship. It has been pursued in all the languages of the major civilizations and in ancient times, especially in Sanskrit, Greek and Latin including the Latin of Medieval Scholastics. Duns-Scouts, Thomas of Erfurt. In English the obvious phrase "the meaning of meaning" is well known as the title of a work on the definition of knowledge, a matter which is not under examination in the present paragraph. There are many other ways of applying the word "meaning" in English, including the usages of logicians, psychologists, sociologists, mathematicians and lexicographers[1].

The use of the word "meaning" is the subject to the generally that each word when used in a new context is a new word.

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[1] Медникова Э.М. Значение слова и методы его описания. М., 1974

The disciplines and techniques are those of general linguistics which are designed for empirical analyses and do not necessarily have a point of departure in other disciplines such as biology, psychology, literary criticism or in a school of metaphysics. The constructs or schemata of linguistics enable us to handle isolates that may be called language events. These systematic constructs are neither immanent nor transcendent, but just language turned back on itself.

Semantic is a component or level of linguistics of the same kind as phonetics or grammar. More over nearly all linguistics have, explicitly or implicitly, accepted a linguistic model in which semantic is at one "end" and phonetics at the other, with grammar somewhere in the middle. The plausibility of this is obvious enough. Language can be viewed as a communication system that relates something to be communicates, a message on the one hand with a set of signs or symbols on the other. The Swiss Linguist, Ferdinand de Saussure, referred to these as the SIGNIFIER (significant) and the SIGNIFIED (signifie'). (He unfortunately, used the term SIGN to refer alone). Examples of communications systems, all of them no doubt much simpler than language, are numerous. For instance, traffic lights use a system of colours and colour combinations to instruct drivers to go or to stop (and also to warn that such instructions are about to be given). Similarly, animals make noises to communicate. The gibbons, for instance, have a set of calls to indicate the discover y of food, danger, friendly interest, desire for company, and they have one call that is intended merely to establish position and so prevent the band from spreading too far apart.

Although it is reasonable to see language as basically a communication system, we must no push the analogy with other systems too far, for several reasons. First, language does not always have a 'message' in any real sense, certainly not in the sense of a piece of information; part of its function is concerned with social relationships, though this is also true of the animal communication systems too. Secondly, in language both 'the signs' and the 'messages' (the signifiers and the signified) are themselves enormously complex and the

relationship between them is of even greater complexity. For this reason it has been convincingly argued that human language differs in rind rather than in degree from other 'languages'. Thirdly, in language it is extremely difficult, perhaps even impossible to specify precisely what the message is. In other communication systems there is no problem because the message can be independently identified in terms of language or, rather, of a language such as English, e.g. Red means "stop". For language in general we have no such easy solution, for we cannot define meaning (the message) independently of language. We can only state one set of meanings in terms of another set, only describe language in terms of language.

As Bollinger D said the definition itself shows that Lexicology deals with words, word-forming morphemes and word-grouping or phrases. All these linguistic units may be said to have meaning of some kind: they are all significant and therefore must be investigated both as to form and meaning. The branch of Lexicology that is devoted to the study of meaning is known as Semasiology.

Meaning is one of the most controversial terms in the theory of language. At first sight the understanding of this term seems to present no difficult at all-it is freely used in teaching, interpreting and translation. The scientific definition of meaning however just as the definition of some other basic linguistic terms, such as word, sentences, etc, has been issue of interminable discussions. Since there is no universally accepted definition of meaning we shall confine ourselves to a brief survey of the problem as it is viewed in modern linguistics both in our country and elsewhere.

The study of meaning is comparatively resent, as Indo-European linguists paid attention almost exclusively to the study of sounds and grammatical forms. Towards the end of the 19-th century, however, semantics began to attract the attention of linguists. The famous linguists Marr, transferred the centre of gravity from the study of forms to the study of meanings. Breal Carnoy, Darmesteter, Meillet in France, Wund in Germany, Gustaf Stern (Meaning and change of

meaning with special reference to the English Language) in Sweden, Mc Knight, Greenough and Kittredge, Mencken in the United States, Jesperson in Denmark, Ogden, Weckley in England are some of the scholars who have contributed to the clearing up of many problems of semantics.

But in spite of all that, many problems of semantics still remain obscure and we have very few scientifically formulated laws. There is possibly no branch linguistics in which there is such a preponderance of idealistic views as in semantics. The basic principle of some psychological schools studying the problem of thinking and meaning was, for instance, the immutability of the meaning of a word.

From the point of view of the idealistic school of psychology, the connection between a word and its meaning is a simple associate connection based on the coincidence in our mind of the impression of a word and the impression of the referent denoted by this word. The word recalls its meaning in the same way as the "coat" of a person. Associations connecting a word with its meaning may be strengthened or weakened, may be transferred to other referents on the basis of similarity or contiguity. We may speak about them generally later on.

The linguistic science at present is not able to put forward a definition of meaning of meaning which is conclusive.

However, there are certain facts of which we can be reasonably sure, and one of them is that the very function of the word as a unit of communication is made possible by its possessing a meaning. Therefore, among the word's various characteristics, meaning is certainly the most important.

Generally speaking, meaning can be more or less described as a component of the word though which a concept is communicated, in this way endowing the word with the ability of denoting real objects, qualities, actions and abstract notions. The complex and somewhat mysterious relationships between referent (object, e.t.c, denoted by the word), concept and word traditionally represented by the following triangle.

Thought of Reference

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        /\
       /  \
      /    \
     /      \
    /        \
   /          \
  /            \
 /_____\
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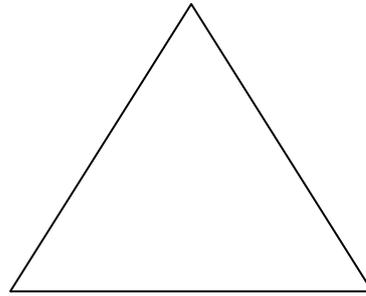
Symbol   Referent

By the "symbol" here is meant the word; thought of reference is no immediate relation between word and referent; it is established only through the concept.

On the other hand, there is a hypothesis that concepts can only find their realization through words. It seems that thought is dormant till the word wakens it up. It is only when we hear a spoken word or read a printed word that the corresponding concept springs to (into) mind.

The mechanism by which concept (i.e. mental phenomena) are converted into words (i.e. linguistic phenomena) and the reverse process by which a heard or a printed word is converted into a kind of mental picture are not yet understood or described. Probably that is the reason why the process of communication through words, if one gives it some thought, seems nothing short of a miracle. Isn't it fantastic that the mere vibrations of speaker's vocal chords should be taken up by a listener's brain and converted into vivid pictures? If magic does exist in the world, then it is truly, the magic of human speech; only we are so used to this miracle that we do not realize its almost supernatural qualities.

As with many terms, the term "semantics" is ambiguous for it can stand, as well as, for the expressive aspect of language in general and for the meaning of one particular word in all its varied aspects and nuances (i.e. the semantics of a word=the meaning(s) of a word).

As Mario Pei puts it in "The Study of Language", "Semantics is language" in its broadest, most inclusive aspect. Sounds, words, grammatical forms, syntactical constructions are the tools of language. He also adds that **Semantics is language's avowed purpose.**

The meanings of all the utterances of a speech community are said by another leading linguist to include the total experience of that community; arts; science, practical occupations, amusements, personal and family life.

The modern approach to semantics is based on the assumption that the inner from of the word (i.e. the meaning of it) presents a structure which is called the semantic structure of the word.

Yet, before going deeper into this problem, it is necessary to make a brief survey of another topic which is closely connected with it.

REFERENTIAL AND FUNCTIONAL APPROACHES TO THE STUDY OF MEANING

There are broadly speaking two schools of thought in present day linguistics representing the main lines of contemporary thinking on the problem: the referential approach, which seeks to formulate the essence of meaning by establishing the interdependence between words and the things or concepts they denote, and the functional approach, which studies the functions of a word in speech and is less concerned with what meaning is than with how it works.

In our books "A practical course in English lexicology" by J.Buranov, A.Muminov[1] these approaches are given the following definitions. The common feature of any referential approaches is that meaning is in some form or other connected with the referent (object of reality denoted by the word). The meaning is formulated by established the interdependence between words and objects of reality they denote. So, meaning is often understood as an object or phenomenon in the outside world that is referred by a word.

[1] Buranov J. Muminov A. A practical course in English Lexicology, Tashkent, 1990

Functional approach to meaning. In most present day methods of lexicological analysis of words are studied in context, a word defined by its functioning within a phrase or a sentence. This functional approach is attempted in contextual analysis, semantic syntax and some other branches of linguistics. The meaning of linguistic unit is studied only through its relation to other linguistic units. So meaning is viewed as the function of a word in speech.

All major works on semantic theory have so far been based on referential concepts of meaning. The essential feature of this approach is that it distinguishes between the three components closely connected with meaning: the sound form of the linguistic sign; the concept of underlying this sound of form, and the actual referent[1].

For more convincing evidence of the conventional and arbitrary nature of the connection between sound form and meaning all we have to do is to point to the homonyms. The word "seal [si:l], e.g. means" a piece of wax, lead, etc.

Stamped with a design; its homonym seal [si:l] possessing the same sound form denotes a sea animal.

Besides, if meaning were inherently connected with the sound form of linguistic unit, it would follow that a change of meaning. We know, however, that even considerable changes in the sound-form of a word in the course of its historical development do not necessarily affect its meaning. The sound form of the Old English word lufian [luvian] has undergone great changes, and has been transformed into love [l ^ v], yet the meaning "hold dear, bear love", etc has remained essentially unchanged.

When we examine a word we see that its meaning though closely connected with the underlying concept or concepts is not identical with them. So begin with, concept is a category of human cognition.

Concept is the thought of the object that singles out its essential features. Our concepts abstract and reflect the most common and typical features of the

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[1] Медникова Э.М. Значение слова и методы его описания. М., 1974

different objects and phenomena of the world. Being the result of abstraction and generalization all concepts are thus intrinsically almost the same for the whole humanity in one and the same period of its historical development. The meanings of words however are different in different languages. That is to say, words expressing identical concepts may have different meanings and different semantic structures in different languages. The concept of "a building for human habitation" is expressed in English by the word "house", in Russian by the word "дом" but the meaning of the word "house" in English is not identical with that of the Russian, as "house" does not possess the meaning of "fixed residence of family or household", which is one of the meanings of the Russian word "дом" it is expressed by another English polysemantic word, namely "home" which possess a number of other meanings not to be found in the Russian word "дом".

The difference between meaning and concept can also be observed by comparing synonymous words and word groups expressing essentially the same concepts but possessing linguistic meaning which is felt as different in each of the units under consideration, e.g big, large; to die, to pass away, to kick the bucket, to join the majority; child, baby, babe, infant.

The precise definition of the content of a concept comes within the sphere of logic but it can be easily observed that the word-meaning is not identical with it. For instance, the content of the concept "six" can be expressed by the "three plus three", "five plus one", "ten mines four" etc. obviously, the meaning of the word "six" can not be identified with the meaning of these words.

To distinguish meaning from the referent, i.e from the thing denoted by the linguistic sign is of the utmost importance, and at first sight does not seem to present difficulties. To begin with, meanings linguistic whereas the denoted object or the referent is beyond the scope of language. We can denote one and the same object by more than one word of a different meaning. For instance, in a speech situation an apple can be denoted by the words apple, fruit, something, this, etc. as all of these words may have the same referent. Meaning can not be equated with

the actual properties of the referent, e.g. the meaning of the word "water" can not be regarded as identical with its chemical formulae H_2O as the water means essential the same to all English speakers including those who have no idea of its chemical composition. Last but not least there are words that have distinct meaning but do not refer to any existing thing, e. g angel or phoenix. Such words have meaning which is understood by the speaker, hearer, but the objects they denote do not exist[1].

Thus, meaning is not to be identified with any of the three points of the triangle. It should be pointed out that among the adherents of the referential approach there are some who hold that the meaning of a linguistic sign is the concept underlying it, and consequently they substitute meaning for concept in the basic triangle. Others identify meaning with the referent. They argue that unless we have a scientifically accurate knowledge of the referent we cannot give a scientifically accurate definition of the meaning of a word. According to them English word salt, e. g. means "sodium" chloride (Na Cl). But how are we to define precisely the meanings of such words as love or hate, etc? We must admit that the actual extent of human knowledge makes it impossible to define word-meanings accurately. It logically follows that any study of meanings in linguistics along these lines must be given up as impossible.

Here we have sought to show that meaning is closely connected but not identical with sound-form, concept or referent. Yet even those who accept this view disagree as to the nature of meaning. Some linguists regard meaning as the interrelation of the three points of the triangle within the homework of the given language, i. e. as of the interrelation of the sound-form, concept and referent, but not as an objectively existing part of the linguistic sign. Others and among them some outstanding linguists, proceed from the basic assumption of the objectivity of language and meaning and understand linguistic sign as a two-facet unit.

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[1] Firth J.R. Papers in linguistics 5.2/ Modes of meaning.

They view meaning as a certain reflection in our mind of objects, phenomena or relations that makes part of the linguistic sign-its so called inner facet whereas the sound-form functions as its outer facet. The outer facet of the linguistic sign is indispensable to meaning and intercommunication. Meaning is to be found in all linguistic units and together with their sound-form constitutes the linguistic signs studied by linguistic science.

The criticism of the referential theories of meaning may be briefly summarized as follows:
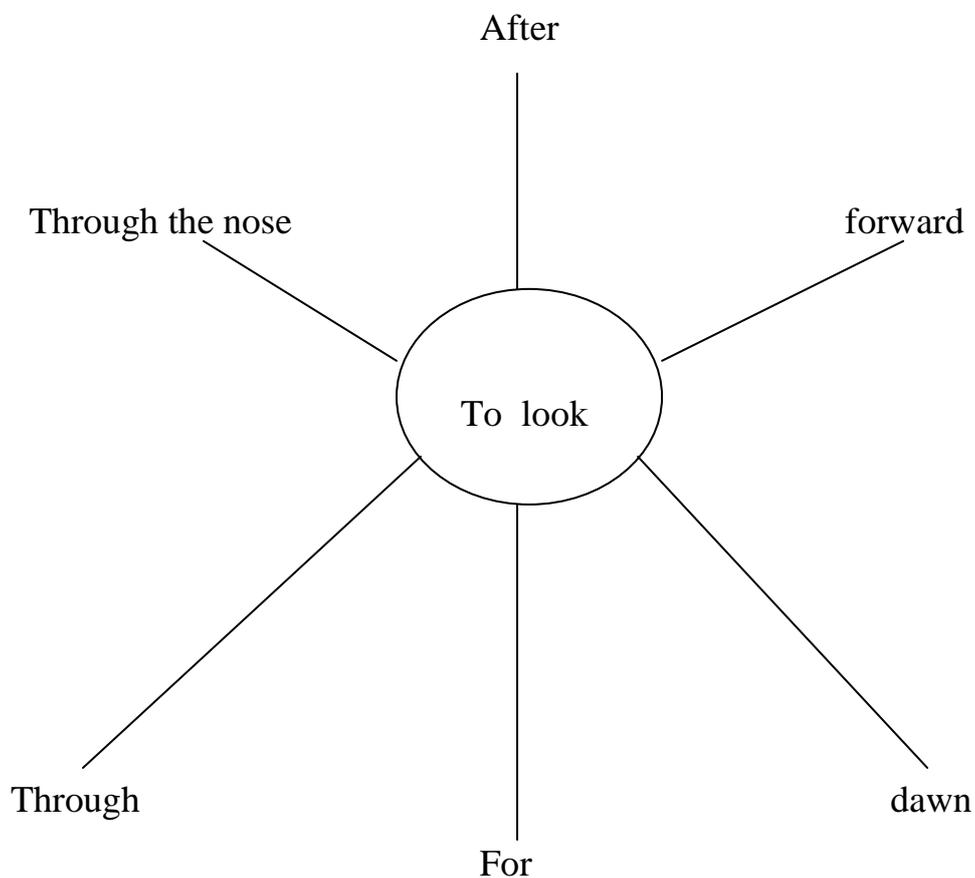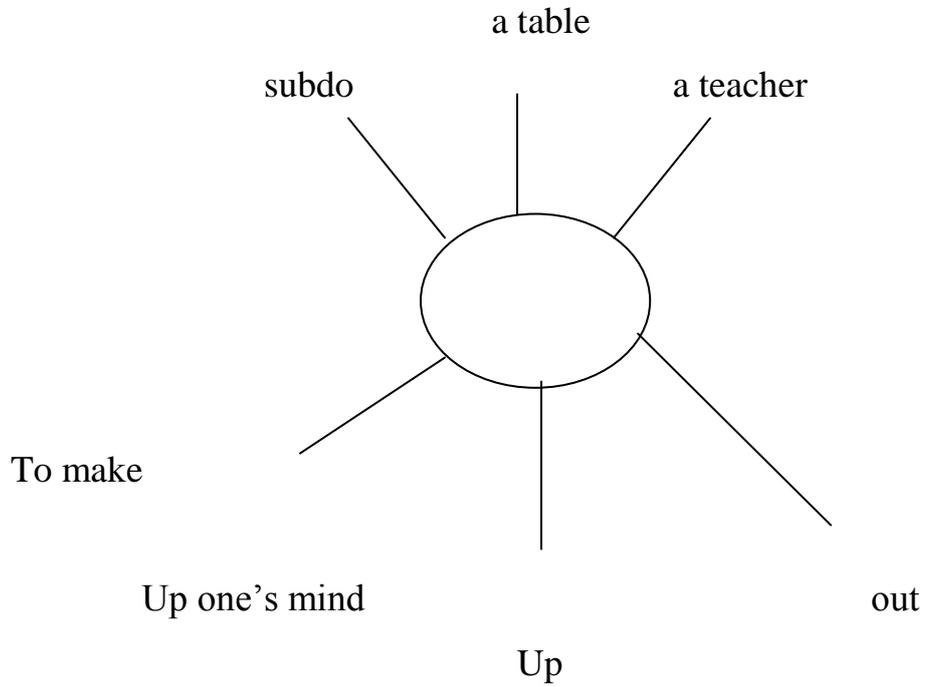
1.   Meaning, as understood in the referential approach, comprises the interrelation of linguistic signs with categories and phenomena outside the scope of language. As neither referents (i. e. actual things phenomena, etc.) nor concepts belong to language, the analysis of meaning is confined either to the study of the interrelation of the linguistic sign and referent or that of the linguistic sign and concept, all of which, properly speaking, is not the object of linguistic study.

The great stumbling black in referential theories of meaning has always been that they operate with subjective and intangible mental processes. The results of semantic investigation therefore depend to a certain extent on "the feel of the language" and cannot be verified by another investigator analyzing the same linguistic data. It fellows that semasiology has to rely too much on linguistic intuition and unlike other fields of linguistic inquiry (e.g. phonetics, history, geography of language) does not possess objective methods of investigation. Consequently it is argued, linguists should either give up the study of meaning and the attempts to define meaning altogether, or confine their efforts to the investigation of the function of linguistic signs in speech[1].

The functional approach treats the meaning as the relation of one word to another. By this approach the meaning can be studied only through context, through its relation to other word. We can observe this in the following examples: to take a tram (a taxi), to take off, to take care of, to take ill, to take degree, to take

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[1] Ожегов С.И. Лексикология, лексикография, культура речи. М., 1974

cold, to take it easy, to take on, to take five minutes, to take place, to take tea, to take a bath, to take notice, to take part in, to take a book, etc. Also we are going to give other examples in the next gape:

a table

subdo a teacher

To make

Up one's mind out

Up

After

Through the nose forward

To look

Through dawn

For

TYPES OF WORD MEANING

There are two main types of meaning: grammatical and lexical. The grammatical meaning is the formal meaning of a word. It is defined as the meaning belonging to the lexico-grammatical categories. Ex, verbs have tense, voice, mood and person. Adjectives have the category of degree.

The nature of grammar as a constituent part of language is better understood in the light of explicitly discriminating the two plane of language of content and the plane of expression. The plane of content comprises the purely semantic elements contained in language, while the plane of expression comprises the material (formal) units of language taken by themselves, apart from the meaning rendered by them. The two planes are insuperably connect, so that no meaning can be realized without some material means of expression. As Blokh points out, grammatical elements of language present a unity of content and expression (or, in somewhat more familiar terms, a unity of form and meaning). In this grammatical elements are similar to the lingual lexical elements, is different in principle from the quality of lexical meanings[1].

The lexical meaning is the material meaning of a word. By the lexical meaning the word expresses the basic properties of the thing the word denotes. For stylistic purposes out of a variety of meanings, belonging to a word Kukharenko singles out the following types of lexical meaning:

Logical, nominal, emotive

Logical meaning is an expression of the concept of the given thing or phenomenon through one of its qualities. Logical meaning is a historical category and it usually changes in the course of time.

Logical meaning is the base upon which secondary logical meanings develop. For example: the word "head" is a poly semantic word. It has following meanings:

1. Upper par of man's body

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[1] Медникова Э.М. Значение слова и методы его описания. М., 1974

2. natural aptitude or talent

3. person

4. leader or director

5. cutting or striking part of toe and some other logical meanings.

<u>Nominal meaning</u> names being or things. There are words where the nominal meaning prevails; they are proper names or proper nouns. Generally proper names have developed from common nouns, so the word "Smith" has become proper name "Smith" or the word "sharp" has given miss Sharp in the novel "Vanity fair" by William Jackerey.

<u>Emotive meaning</u> expresses the feelings and emotive connected with the object or phenomenon denoted by the word. Emotive meaning usually coexists with logical meaning as in the word: sonnie, birdie, sweet, etc. But some words are devoid of logical meaning and have only emotive meaning. These words are interjections or exclamatory words.

Many words acquire an emotive meaning only in a definite context. In that case we say that they have a contextual emotive meaning.

Anything recognizable as having a strong impact an our senses may be considered as having emotive meaning either dictionary or contextual.

The context helps to distinguish if the word is used in its emotive meaning or its logical meaning.

The above three logical meanings form the semantic structure of the word. Apart from them there exists one more lexical meaning which appears only within the given context. This is the <u>contextual meaning.</u> The word may acquire in the context in the context a contextual logical meaning, a contextual nominal meaning or a contextual emotive meaning. Contextual meaning of the word is closely connected with such lexicological notions as polysemy, shades of meaning and transference of meaning. In Lexicology to lexical meaning is given another expression:

The lexical meaning of a word falls into two: 1. the denotational 2. the connotational.

<u>Denotational meaning</u> makes communication possible because words denote things, concepts, they name them. Ex. the denotational meaning of the word "table" is a piece of furniture consisting of a flat top with four supports (called legs).

<u>The connotational meaning</u> is a meaning which has a stylistic shade. It serves to express all sorts of emotions, expressiveness. Connotation may be shortly defined and evaluative component of the lexical meaning. Comparing the meaning of English word "well-known", "famous", "notorious" we see that al these words express the denotational meaning "widely known". But the word "famous" has a positive evaluative meaning and "notorious" has a negative evaluation. So, the words "well-known", "famous", "notorious" differ in their emotional colouring and evaluation.

Connotational meaning consists of such constituents as: emotion, evaluative and intensity (intensifying connotation). The word takes emotional situations. The denotational meaning is associated with emotion (ex. He besought a bavour of the judge. Here the word "beseech" means to ask eagerly and also anxiously).

Besides the lexical-grammatical meanings we can observe differential, functional and distributional meanings of a word. Differential meaning is the semantic component that serves to distinguish one word from other in words containing the same (identical) morphemes.

Mednikova E. M. classifies connotational meaning according to main types as: stylistic, emotional, evaluative and expressive or intensifying[1].

Stylistic connotations is what the word conveys about the speaker's attitude to the social circumstances and the appropriate functional style (stay-kill) evaluative connotation may show his approval or disapproval of the object spoken of (slique is group), emotional connotation may show the speaker's emotions

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[1] Медникова Э.М. Значение слова и методы его описания. М., 1974

(mummy is mother), the degree of intensity (adore is love) is conveyed by expressive or intensifying connotation.

The independence of connotations with denotative meaning is also different for different types of connotations. Thus, for instance, emotional connotation comes into being on the basis of denotative meaning but in the course of time may substitute it by other types of connotation generally with emphasis, evaluation and colloquially stylistic overtone. E-g. Terrific which originally meant "frightening" is now a colloquialism meaning "very, very good" or "very great": terrific beauty, terrific pleasure.

The orientation toward the subject-matter, characteristic of the denotative meaning, is substituted here by pragmatic orientation toward the speaker and listener; it is not so much what is spoken about as the attitude to it that matters.

Fulfilling the significative and the communicative functions of the word the denotative meaning is present in every word and may be regarded as the central factor in the functioning of language[1].

The expressive function of the language (the speaker's feelings) and the pragmatic function (the effect of words upon listeners) are rendered in connotations. Unlike the denotative meaning, connotations are optional.

Connotation differs from the implicational meaning of the word. Implicational meaning is the implied information associated with the word, with what the speakers know about the referent. A wolf is known to be greedy and cruel (implicational meaning) but the denotative meaning of this word does not include these features. The denotative or the intentional meaning of the word "wolf" is a wild animal resembling a dog that kills sheep and sometimes even attacks men. Its figurative meaning is derived from implied information, from what we know about wolves "a quell greedy person" also the adjective wolfish means "greedy".

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[1] Firth J.R. Papers in linguistics 5.2/ Modes of meaning.

1.2. POLYSEMY AND SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF WORDS

The word "polysemy" means "plurality of meanings" it exists only in the language, not in speech. A word which has more than one meaning is called polysemantic. Different meanings of a polysemantic word may come together due to the proximity of notions which they express. E.g. the word "blanket" has the following means: a woolen covering used on beds, a covering for keeping house warm, a covering of any kind/ a blanket of snow/ covering all or most cases/ used attributively/ e.g. We can say "a blanket insurance policy". There are some words in the language which are monosemantic, such as most terms, /synonym, molecule, bronchitis/, some pronouns/ this my, both/ numerals.

There are two processes of the semantic development of a word: radiation and concatenation. In cases of radiation the primary meaning stands in the centre and the secondary meanings proceed out of it like rays. Each secondary meaning can be traced to the primary meaning. E.g. in the word "crust" the primary meaning "hard outer part of bread" developed a secondary meaning "hard part of anything/ a pie, a cake/", then the meaning "harder layer over soft snow", was developed, then "a sullen gloomy person" then "impudence" were developed. Here the last meanings have nothing to do with primary ones. In such cases homonyms appear in the language. It is called a split polysemy. In most cases in the semantic development of a word both ways of semantic development are combined[1].

Polysemy is certainly not an anomaly. Most English words are polysemantic. It should be noted that the wealth of expressive resources of a language largely depends on the degree to which polysemy has developed in the language. Sometimes people who are not very well informed in linguistic matters claim that a language is lacking in words if the need arises for the same word to be applied to several different phenomena. In actual fact, it is exactly the opposite: if each word is found to be capable of conveying, let us say, at least two concepts instead of one, the expressive potential of the whole vocabulary increases two fold.

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[1] Ginzburg R.S. and others "A course in Modern English Lexicology"-Moscow, 1979

Henee, a well-developed polysemy is not a drawback but a great advantage in a language.

On the other hand, it should be pointed out that the number of sound combinations that human speech organs can produce is limited. Therefore at a certain stage of language development the production of new words by morphological means become limited, and polysemy becomes increasingly important in providing the means for enriching the vocabulary. From this, it should be clear that the process of enriching the vocabulary does not consist merely in adding new words to it, but also, in the constant development of polysemy.

The system of meanings of any polysemantic word develops gradually, mostly over the centuries, as more and more new meanings are either added to old ones, or oust some of them. So the complicated processes of polysemy development involve both the appearance of new meanings and the loss of old ones. Yet, the general tendency with English vocabulary at the modern stage of its history is to increase the total number of its meanings and in this way to provide for a quantitative and qualitative growth of the language's expressive resources.

When analyzing the semantic structure of a polysemantic word, it is necessary to distinguish between two levels of analyses.

On the first level, the semantic structure of a word is treated as a system of meanings. Some semantic structures are arranged on a different principle. In the following list of meanings of the adjective dull one can hardly hope to find a generalized meaning covering and holding together the rest of the semantic structure.

Each separate meaning seems to be subject to structural analysis in which it may be represented as sets of semantic components. In terms of componential analysis, one of the modern methods of semasiological research, the meaning of a word is defined as a set of elements of meaning which are not part of the vocabulary of the language itself, but rather theoretical elements, postulated in order to describe the semantic relations between the lexical elements of a given

language. The scheme of the semantic structure of dull shows that the semantic structure of a word is not mere system of meanings, for each separate meaning is subject to further subdivision and possesses an inner structure of its own[1].

Therefore, the semantic structure of a word should be investigated at both this levels: a) of different meanings, b) of semantic components within each separate meaning. For a monosemantic word (i. e. a word with one meaning) the first level is naturally excluded. It has been mentioned that the systems of meanings of polysemantic words evolve gradually. The older a word is, the better developed is its semantic structure. The normal pattern of a word's semantic structure encompassing only two or three meanings, with a further movement to an increasingly more complex semantic structure.

MEANING AND CONTEXT

Before this subtype we have discussed the advantages and disadvantages of the linguistic phenomenon "Polysemy". One of the "drawbacks" of polysemantic words is that there is sometimes a chance of misunderstanding when a word is used in a certain meaning but accepted by a listener or reader in another. It is only natural that such cases provide stuff of which jokes are made, such as the ones that follow:

Customer: I would like a book, please.

Bookseller: Something light?

Customer: That doesn't matter. I have my car with me.

In this conversation the customer is honestly misled by the polysemy of the adjective "light" taking it in the literal sense whereas the bookseller uses the word in its figurative meaning "not serious, entertaining". Generally speaking, it is common knowledge that context is a powerful preventative against any misunderstanding of meaning. For instance, the adjective "dull", if used out of context, would mean different things to different people or nothing at all. It is only

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[1] Ginzburg R.S. and others "A course in Modern English Lexicology"-Moscow, 1979

in combination with other words that it reveals its actual meaning: a dull pupil, a dull razor blade, a dull play, a dull weather, etc.

Current research in semantics is largely based on the assumption that one of the more promising methods of investigating the semantic structure of a word is by studying the word's linear relationships with other words in typical contexts, i. e. its combinability.

Scholars have established that the semantics of words characterized by common occurrences (i. e. words which regularly appear in common contexts) are correlated and, therefore, one of the words within such a pair can be studied through the other.

This leads us to the conclusion that context is a good and reliable key to the meaning of the word. Yet, even the jokes given above show how misleading this key can prove in some cases.

As a rule the contextual meaning represents only one of the possible lexico-semantic variants of the word. So, polysemy does not interfere with the communicative function of the language because the situation and the context cancel all the unwanted meanings.

By the term "context" we understand the minimal stretch of speech determining each individual meaning of the word. The context individualizes the meanings, brings them out. The two main types of linguistic contexts which serve to determine individual meanings of the words are the lexical or the grammatical aspect is predominant in determining the meaning. In lexical context of primary importance are lexical groups combined with the polysemantic words under consideration. The adjective "heavy" in isolation possesses the meaning "of great weight, weighty". When combined with the lexical group of words denoting natural phenomena as "wind, storm", etc. it means "striking, following with force, abundant", e. g. heavy rain, wind, storm, etc. In combination with the words industry, arms, artillery and the like, "heavy" has the meaning "the large kind of something" as "heavy industry, artillery".

In grammatical context it is the grammatical (mainly the syntactic) structure of the context that serves to determine various individual meanings of a polysemantic word. Consider the following examples: 1) I made Peter study. He made her laugh. They made him work. 2) My friend made a good teacher. He made a good husband. In the pattern "to make + N (Pr) +V inf" the word "make" has the meaning "to force", and in the pattern "to tern out to be". Here the grammatical context helps to determine the meaning of the word "to make".

So, linguistic (verbal) contexts comprise lexical and grammatical contexts. They are opposed to extra-linguistic contexts (nonverbal). In extra-linguistic contexts the meaning of the word is determined not only by linguistic factors but also by the actual situation in which the word is used.

THE PROCESS OF DEVELOPMENT AND CHANGE OF MEANING OF WORDS

The meaning of a word is a changeable category. The causes of semantic change may be either linguistic or extra-linguistic. Extra-linguistic causes are different changes in the life of the people speaking the language, the coming into existence of new notions and objects, changes in economic-social life, changes of ideas, etc.

Ex, the word "mill" originally meant "qo`l tegirmoni". The development industry gave us to the meaning "mill"- zavod, korxona. Ex, cotton mill, a stell mill. The word "atom" meant indivisible substance. Now the scientists discovered that atom can be divided and this changes concept of atomic indivisibility. A change in the meaning may be brought about by different linguistic development in the lexical system as a whole.

The word may change its meaning by the shortening of a word group. Ex, the old meaning of the verb "to starve" was "to die" and it was often used in the word "to starve" is result of the shortening of the group, "to starve" of hunger.

The meaning of the word "weekly" a newspaper published weekly is shortened form of the word group "weekly newspaper", "a musical" is the shortened form of the word group "a musical comedy".

The appearance of a new word, which is synonymous to the word already existing in the language, may cause a change in the meaning of word. Ex, the old meaning of the word "deer" was an animal. It was used for all kinds of animals. When the Latin word "animal" came into English language the meaning of the word was changed. Now it is used to name only one kind of animal. (deer- ohu).

The words may change their meaning when they are used transparently, i. e. metaphorically or metonymically.

Changes of lexical meanings can be proved by comparing contexts of different times. Transfer of the meaning is called lexico-semantic word building. In such cases the outer aspect of a word does not change. Semantic changes have been classified by different scientists. The most complete classification was suggested by a German scientist Herman Paul in his work "Prinzipien des Sprachgeschichte". It is based on the logical principle. He distinguishes two main ways where the semantic change is gradual (specialization and generalization), two monetary conscious semantic changes (metaphor and metonymy) and also secondary ways: gradual (elevation and degradation), momentary (hyperbole and litote).

Some scholars mistakenly use the term "transference of meaning" which is a serious mistake. It is very important to note that in any case of semantic change it is not the meaning but the word that is being transferred from one referent onto another (e. g. from a horse-drawn vehicle onto a railway car). The result of such transference is the appearance of a new meaning.

Two types of transference are distinguishable depending on the two types of logical associations under the semantic process: Transference based on Resemblance (Similarity) and transference based on contiguity. Here we study linguistic metaphor and linguistic metonymy. The first type is the appearance of a

new meaning on the base of likening of two objects and the association is based on subtle psychological links between different objects and a phenomenon is called metonymy. Sometimes metonymy is traced and identified with much difficulty. The two objects may be associated together because they often appear in common situations, and so the image of one is easily accompanied by the image of the other; or they may be associated on the principle of cause and effect, of common function, of some material an object which is made of it, etc.

Let us consider some cases of transference based on contiguity. You will notice that they are of different kinds. The adjective "dull" developed its meaning "not clear or bright" (as in dull green colour; dull light, dull shapes) on the bases of the former meaning "deficient in eyesight", and its meaning "deficient in hearing". The association here was obviously that of cause and effect; to a person with weak eyesight all colours appear pale, and all shapes blurred; to a person with deficient hearing all sounds are indistinct.

Another transference is metaphor. Metaphor is based on the similarities of objects. Ex, the word "warm" and "cold" may be used to denote the certain qualities of human voices because of some kind of similarity between these qualities and warm and cold temperature.

Ex, warm voice, warm temperature

Cold voice, cold temperature

1. The similarity of form. The eye of a needle, a head of a pin.

2. Similarity of function. Ex, the head of the state, the head of the demonstration.

3. The similarity of position. Ex, the foot of the mountain, a foot of the page, the top of the table, the leg of the table.

In Modern English it denotes a domestic hen or cock,-old meaning of "affection" was-any feeling new meaning is a feeling of love. The word "junk" originally meant sailors word meaning "old rope". Now it means "rubbish, useless stuff".

Semantic change also can be seen in specialization. It is a gradual process when a word passes from a general sphere to some special sphere of communication, e. g. "case" has general meaning "circumstances in which a person or a thing is". It is specialized in its meaning when used in law (a law suit), in grammar (a form in the paradigm of a noun), in medicine (a patient, an illness). The difference between these meanings is revealed in the context.

The next type of semantic change in generalization. It is a process contrary to generalization, in such cases the meaning of a word becomes more general in the course of time. The transfer from a concrete meaning. The usage of proper names for common nouns may cause a metaphor too. Some scientists use wildly some characters.

Ex, He is a Pushkin of our days / he is a very strong poet/.

Sometimes the names of animals are used to denote the human qualities. Ex, she is a fox / she is a canny /she is a parrot / she is a talkative/.

We must differ a metaphor from a simile. In simile we use before the words "as" and "like". Ex, she is a monkey (metaphor). She is like monkey (simile).

Also, the result of semantic change can be observed in:

1. Restriction or narrowing of meaning. Restriction of meaning is the capacity of a word to narrow its meaning in the course of historical development.

2. Extension /or widening/ of meaning. It is the explanation of polysemy in the course of its historical development; i. e. it is the widening of meaning. Ex, the word "fowl" meant in old English "any bird" but to an abstract one is most frequent e. g. "ready" (a derivative from the verb "ridan"-"ride") meant "prepared for a ride", now its meaning is "prepared for anything". "Journey" was borrowed from French with the meaning "one day trip" now it means "a trip of any duration".

All auxiliary verbs are cases of generalization of their lexical meaning, because they developed a grammatical meaning: "have", "be", "do", "shall", "will" when used as auxiliary verbs are devoid of their lexical meaning which they have

when used as notional verbs or modal verbs, e. g. cf. "I have several books by this writer" and "I have read some books by this author". In the first sentence the verb "have " has the meaning "possess", in the second sentence it has no lexical meaning, its grammatical meaning is to form Present Perfect.

In the next paragraphs we are going to discuss about such types of changes in adjectives characterizing physical activity of a person.

1.3. ETYMOLOGY OF ENGLISH WORDS DENOTING THE NAMES OF FLOWERS

We are aware of the fact that the vocabulary of any language can't develop without borrowings. The etymological linguistic analysis   showed   that   the borrowed stock of words is larger than   the   native   stock   of   words. Etymologically the vocabulary of the English language consists of two groups - the native words and the   borrowed words. In fact native words comprise only 30% of the total number of words in the English vocabulary. A native word is a word which belongs to the original English stock, which belongs to Anglo - Saxon origin. To the native words we include words from Common Germanic language and From Indo -European stock. Borrowed words are words taken over from other languages.[1]

In the research work there were found over 75 names   flowers and among them there will be given the etymology   some English words denoting the names of flowers.

The common names of plants make a fascinating study. Some flowers   are named for their appearance - snowdrop, blueball, and   sunflower   for   instance. Others are more fanciful:

Carnation - originally in the sixteenth century the plants was called   the coronation, a reference either to its jagged flower which resembled a little crown or to its use in floral garlands. Towards the close of the century, however, the name

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[1] Buranov J., Muminov A. "A practical course in English Lexicology". Tashkent "UKITUVCHI" 1990

was confused with carnation, a colour, "fresh - color" (from French carnation ' "fresh colour" (from Italian <u>carnation,</u> "fresh colour" from Italian <u>carnagione,</u> from Latin <u>carnatio,</u> "fleshiness"' from <u>caro,</u> "flesh"), doubtless because the flowers were sometimes of this colour[1].

Coltsfoot - the shape of the leaves suggests the hoof of a colt. Other animals occasionally lent their names to it: *fole foote*, *horse house* or *bull foote*. Should the allusion seem too tenuous, French has Pas - d'ane, 'ass's foot'.

Cranesbill - this name, which is now applied to various species of geranium, though originally only to the geranium dissectum, is a translation by sixteenth century herbalists from German and Dutch terms. It alludes to the long, pointed beak of the fruit.

Dandelion -Middle English dent-de-lion, from an old French translation of medieval Latin dens leonis,'lion's tooth', an allusion to the jagged leaves. Vulgarly the plant was called *pissabed*, in French *pissenlit*, because of its diuretic properties. *Foxglove* - (Old English *foxes glofa,* 'fox's glove) so called because the individual flowers look like finger-stalls. The reference to the fox is obscure but Norvegian has revbjelde, 'fox bell'. The modern Latin name for the plant is digitalis, 'of the fingers', and was bestowed by the German herbalist Fuchs in 1542 after the German name *Fingerhut,* 'thimble'.

Garlic – the Old English compound is garleac where leac means 'leek' and gar 'spear', descriptive of the shape of the leaves.
Orchid - the Greeks named the plant orchis, 'testicle', because of the shape of the tubers. The English word is formed from the Latin borrowing *orchis*. Seventeenth century botanists erroneously believed the Latin stem to be orchid-, thus introducing the final d.

Pansy- this viola was popularly called pensee, 'thought' by the French, possibly because its marking resemble a face with a thoughtful look. English

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[1] "Wild flowers of Britain and Europe" D. Sutton. Printed in 1993 New Holland Publishers

borrowed the word at the turn of the sixteenth century, but the modern spelling did not evolve until the eighteenth.

Snapdragon- to the sixteenth century imagination the two lipped flowers of the antirrhinums were fashioned like a dragon's mouth.

Tulip- originally named for its resemblance to a turban. Sixteenth century English from New Latin tulipa from tulibend, a vulgar Turkish borrowing of unattested Persian dulband, 'turban'.

Other plants were named for the place in which they grew. Sixteenth century botanists list the wallflower and cornflower, for instance, but other names are less obvious.

Cowslip - in Old English the plant was cuslyppe or cusloppe where cu meant 'cow' and slyppe ' a slimy dropping'. Thus the plant was named for its proliferation in fields abundantly fertilized by grazing cattle.

Houseleek- in Old English this was probably husleac, giving howsleke in Middle English. The plant was so named because it was often grown on roofs, perpetuating the belief held by the Romans that it offered the household protection against lightning and evil. For this reason it was also known as *Jove's beard*, Jove (or Jupiter) being the god of the elements.

Oxlip- the name was formed like cowslip from Old English oxan, 'of an ox', and slyppe, 'dung' giving oxanslyppe.

Rosemary- this is the native of southern Europe and was known aS rosmarinus 'Sea dew', in Latin (from ros, 'dew' and marinus, 'of the Sea', from mare 'Sea'), supposedly because the plant grew, profusely on the coast. The word came into Middle English as rosmarine via Old French rosmarin and Late Latin rosmarinum but its form was soon altered because of the elements' similarity to rose and Mary, the name of the Virgin.

Other plants were named for the uses to which they were put. The euonymus, for instance, was commonly known as the spindle-tree as its wood was excellent for making spindles.

Thyme- the Greeks evidently used this herb as a sweet-smelling burnt offering. Its name ultimately derives from Greek *thuos*, 'sacrificial incense', and *thuein,* 'to offer a burnt sacrifice to the gods'. Thus Greek *thumon* was named for its sweet sacrificial smell. From it Latin derived *thymum* and Old French *thym*, borrowed into Middle English as tyme.

Many of the uses to which plants were put were of course medicinal and this is reflected in their names: *feverfew, fleabane and sneezewort*, for instance.

Sage sauge - in Middle English, a borrowing from old French *sauge* and from Latin *salvia* which means 'the healing plant' (from *salvus*, 'healthy')

According to medieval belief, plants with particular medicinal properties bore a signature, that is a mark, feature or colouring, which indicated their usefulness.

Thus the *lungwort*, which has white - spotted leaves reminiscent of a diseased lung, was thought to heal pulmonary disorders . *The viper's bugloss*, on the other hand, was deemed efficacious against the viper's bite because its seed looked like a viper's head, while its stem resembled snake skin. Wounds from agricultural implements were treated with selfheal, a herb whose flower bears a petal shaped like a billhook[1].

Plants might also be named after a particular characteristic they displayed: Daisy The Middle English forms *daisie* and *dayeseye* derived from the old English *doegeseag,* literally 'day's eye' (from *doeg*, 'day' and eage 'eye'), an allusion to the fact that the petals open in the day to reveal the flower's yellow eye and close again in the evening .

Honeysuckle Old English had hunigsuce (from hunig, 'honey' and sucan, 'to suck') which gave honysouke (l) in Middle English Originally the word was used of any flower, especially the clover, which readily yielded nectar for honey and then, in the sixteenth century, to the climbing woodland shrub familiar to modern gardens.

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[1] "Wild flowers of Britain and Europe" D. Sutton. Printed in 1993 New Holland Publishers

Lupin The plant was originally grown for animal fodder and its seed, which was used as a vegetable. The Romans called it lupinum, derived from lupinus, meaning 'wolf - like' (from lupus, 'wolf). Ancient belief held that, just as the wolf was a greedy, ravenous creature, so the *lupin* destroyed the soil, sucking out all the goodness.

Nasturtium This is a kind of cress with edible leaves According to Pliny, their pungent taste gave rise to the plant's Latin name, *asturtium* (from unattested nasirtoirtium, from nasus, 'nose' and *tortus*, from *torquere*, 'to twist'). The allusion is to the burning felt at the back of the nose when the plant is eaten. (French has nasitort).

Soapwort 'The stalkes of sope - woort are slipperie,' declared the herbalist John Gerarde (HERBALL, 1597). The plant is named because a lather forms when its stems are rubbed. Dutch and German have similar names for the plant and the English term is perhaps fashioned after these.

The Indo - European root bhlo- meaning 'to flourish', influenced both Latin and the Germanic languages so that 'floral' words which appear very different are, in fact, cognates . Bhlo- was responsible for Old English blostm, a general word for 'flower' which has become blossom in Modern English. It is also the ultimate source of Middle English blom or blome, meaning 'bloom', so that, eventually, a finer distinction was drawn between 'blossom', which heralded fruit, and 'bloom', which was considered the ultimate glory of the plant.

Latin *flos*, 'flower', was also derived from *bhlo*. *Flos* had the stem *flor-* from which the Romance languages derived their words for 'flower'. Old French had flor or flour, both of which were borrowed into Middle English.

In the thirteenth century the word also developed a specific use to denote 'the finest could be separated off general term for 'ground arose in the first half of quality meal , from whatever grain, that by sieving', and eventually became a grain' . When the variant spelling flower the sixteenth century, the forms flour and flower were used interchangeably in both senses of the word. By century flower was

being regularly to either form continued to be used for 'milled grain'. In his DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE (1755), however, Dr Johnson refused even to recognize the spelling flour, let alone make a distinction in meaning between the two forms and indeed, as late as 1806, a travel book about France advised ' in a *long voyage ...* flower *will not keep*.'

CHAPTER II. SEMANTIC AND STRUCTURAL PECULIARITIES OF
ENGLISH WORDS AND PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS WITH THE NAMES OF
FLOWERS

2.1. SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH WORDS AND
PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS WITH THE NAMES OF FLOWERS

This chapter deals with the semantic structure of the words denoting the names of flowers that is used both in its figurate and contextual meaning.

First of all, we should define the types of lexical meaning. Many stylistic devices are based on using lexical meaning of word. Words can have various meanings. Scientists do not have exact approach to this problem, some of them say that the meaning is the relation between the object or notion named and the name itself (F. D Saussure).

Working on the meanings of the word, we come across the concept of semantic structure of the word. The meaning of the word may be realized by its structure. By semantic structure we understand word's denotational, connotational meanings, its emotive charge and so on. We know that words can be polysemantic. There are following meanings of the word: abstract, concrete, main or primary, secondary, central, peripheric, nalrow, extended, general. particular.[1] Linguistic literature abounds in various terms reflecting various points of view. We can see many differences among these meanings and while analysing it, there can be seen that words give different meanings in various contexts. For ex:

The primary meaning of the word "rose" is a flower with a sweet smell, that grows on a bush and usually has thorns on its stem, but such meaning as pink wine (For. ex: a bottle of rose) is secondary meaning.[2] In most cases the surrounding context points out quite clearly which of the meanings of a word is intended:

E,.e. 1. It is a rose.

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[1] I.V. Arnold "The Enslish word" Moscow. Vish. Shkl. 1973.

[2] "Oxford wordpower dictionary".O x.Univ.Press.1 994.

The Here "it» shows that the word "rose" is used in the meaning "atirgul" (роза).

2. She is a rose. The presence of "She" shows that "rose" is in the meaning of "beautiful" (go'zal, oqeponarelsuar). The meaning which is not dependent on the context is the major (or basic) meaning of the word and the meanings which are dependent on the context are minor meanings. By context we mean the minimal stretch of speech determining each individual meaning of the word.

We know that, there are general and universal meanings of the language. These general meanings are given in similar ways in different languages, besides, it includes cultural characteristics of given languages.

Theory and practice of modern structural linguistics deals with the degrees of languages from the point of isomorphemic principles. So, we can say that there are differences and similarities of meanings in different languages. But the meanings of the words denoting the names of flowers do not coincide with the meanings of other languages all the time. For ex: In the areas of Great Britain and the U.S people use many names of flowers such as rose, lily, daisy, violet and many others to describe beauty a woman. It shows the richest of vocabulary stock of that languages[1].

From the given concepts above we may consider that for giving the correct translation of words denoting the names of flowers requires to analyze semantic structure of them.

First of all we should make componential analysis of the word "flower" itself. It includes the following components:

1. A complex organ of phenagamous plants, comprising a group of reproductive organs and its envelops.

2. A blossom considered independently of the plant, and especially in regard to its beauty or perfume.

3. Big, bloom, beauty (especially a s applied to a person).

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[1] Медникова Э.М. Значение слова и методы его описания. М., 1974

4. The choicest individual or individual among a number of persons or things.

5. of persons: the "pick» period of state of bloom, vigor or prosperity.

During a conversation every person tries to describe a thing beautifully, understandably and emotionally. Flowers play a great in this situation, but different situations require choosing a correct types and differential meanings of the word.

For instance, while expressing people's appearance we take into account the words "beautiful" or "ugly", while expressing one's age we use "young" or "old" and so on.

STRUCTURAL PECULIARITIES OF ENGLISH WORDS WITH THE NAMES OF FLOWERS

1. to come out smelling like a rose

v + prep + participle + prep + noun

Suvdan quruq chiqmoq

Выйти сухим из воды

2. in the pink

prep + art + noun

juda yaxshi (sog'lik haqida)

В прекрасном состоянии (о здоровые)

3. the pink of Perfection

Art+ noun + prep + noun

kamolot cho'qqisi

Верх ссовершенства

4. the pink

art + noun

eng oliy daraja

высшая степень

5. to turn up one's toes to the daisies

v + prep + pron + noun + prep+art+ noun

Vafot etmoq

Умереть

6. lily livered

noun + part II

qo'rqoq

трусливый

7. Iily of the valley

noun + prep + art + noun

mayda o'suvchi marvaridgul

ландыш (майский)

8. the rose of

Art+noun+ prep

... da eng go'zal

Первая красавица в…

9. bed of roses

Noun+prep+noun

osongina hayot

лёкая жизнь

10. path strewn with roses

noun + part II + prep+ noun

osongina, yoqimli hayot

лёкая, приятная жизнь

11. life is not all roses

noun + V + neg. particle + pron+ noun

hayot faqat rohatdan iborat emas

в жизни ни одни только удовольствия

12. under the rose

prep + art+ noun

sir, yashirincha, pismiqlarcha

по секрету, тайном, втихомолку

13. born under the rose

part II + prep+ art+ noun

nikohsiz tug'ilgan

рождённый вне браке

14. blush like a rose

y + prep+ art+ noun

qip-qizarib ketmoq

зардеться как маков цвет

15. bring back the rosesto her cheeks

y + prep+ art + noun + prep + pron+ noun

uning yonoqlariga qizillik kiritmoq

вернуть румянец ее щекам

16. come up roses

V+ prep+ noun

juda omadli kechmoq

сложиться очен удачно

l7. gather life's roses

v +noun+ noun

jon koyitmay rohat- farog'atda yashamoq

срывать цветы удовольствия

18. have roses in one's cheeks

v +noun + prep + pron+ noun

butun yonog'i qip- qizil bo'lmoq, soppa- sog'

румянец во всю щеку, пышет здоровьем

19. lose one's roses

v+ pron+ noun

xiralashmoq, so'lmoq

поблёкнуть, увянуть

20. no rose without a thorn

pron + noun + prep+ art+ noun

atirgul tikansiz bo'lmas

нет розы без шипов

21. not all roses

neg. participle + Pron+ noun

faqatgina xursandchlikdan iborat emas

усыпанный не только розами

22. a rose between two thorns

Art+ noun + prep+ numer. + noun

ikki erkak orasida qolgan ayol

красивая женщина сидящая между двумя мужчинами

23. a crumpled rose- leaf

Art+ part II + noun+ noun

kichik ko'ngilsizlik

небольшое огорчение, омрачающее радость

24. push up daisies

V+ prep+ noun

u dunyoga ravona bo'lmoq

отправиться на тот свет, сыграть в ящик, отдать концы

25. under the daisies

Prep+art + noun

qabrda

В могиле

26. gild the lily

V+art+noun

hech qanday sababsiz biror narsani o'zgartirishga urunmoq

«позолотить лилию», пытаться улучшить или украсить что либо, не нуждающиеся в улучшении или украшении

27. pure as a lily

adj + as +art + noun

toza, bokira, nilufarguldek pok bo'lmoq

чистый, непорочный, чиста как лилия

28. primrose path

Noun+ noun

Rohatbaxsh yo'1

Путь наслаждений

29. Primrose- Primrose Day

Noun+noun+noun

l9 aprel (Dizraelning xotirasiga bag'ishlangan kun)

19 апреля (день памяти Дизраэли)

19 anpenx (aenr rrawflrkr lraspaenr)

30. rose water

Noun+ noun

o'ta sermulozamatlik

приторная любезность

31. one (he) wants some ginger

Pron*v+pron*noun

beparvo odam

ему (кому- то) «изюминки» не хватает

32. to say smth with flowers

V+ pron +prep + noun

biror narsani go'zaI tasvirlamoq

красиво выразиться

33. lily hand

Noun+ noun

qo'li gul

золотые руки

34. rosebud

Noun+ noun

yoshgina, go'zal qiz

красивая, молоденькая девушка

35. to look at smth through rose- tinted spectacles

v + prep + pron + prep+ noun + part II + noun

biror narsagay engil munosabat bildirmoq

смотреть сквозь розовые очки

36. rose-colored

noun + part II

hayotdan xursand , quvnoq

жизнерадостный, радужный

37. look at houses with rose-colored glasses

v + prep+ noun + prep+ noun + part II + noun

biror narsaga ko'r- ko'rona qaramoq

Смотреть сквозь розовые очки (в результате таких людей легко обводить вокруг пальцы)

38. a shrinking violet

Art+ particip I+ noun

juda uyatchan

слишком робкий

39. no shrinking violet

pron+ paft I+ noun

o'ziga o'ta ishongan

Слишком самоуверенный

40. fresh as a daisy

adj+ as+ art+ noun

yangi uzllgan guldek

Свежая как маргаритка

41. fair as a lily

adj + as + art+ noun

guldek bokira

чиста как лилия

42. in the flower of one's age

Prep+noun + prep + pron+ noun

ayni gullagan yoshda

в цветущем возрасте.

SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF WORDS DENOTING THE NAMES OF FLOWERS EXPRESSING BEAUTY OF A PERSON

1. **the rose of**- . . . da eng go'zal

    Первая красавица в ...

    first in beauty

E.g. Alice was the rose of her country. ("Alice in Wonderland")

2. **flower**- maftunkor

    Обворожительная

    enchanting

E.g. She is a flower.

3. **rosebud** - yoshgina, go' zal qiz

    Красивая, молоденькая девушка

    a young beautiful girl

E.g. The cat stared at a rosebud for a while. ("Alice in Wonderland")

4. **fresh as a daisy**- yangi uzilgan guldek sof, toza

    Свежая как маргаритка

    very young and Pretty

E.g I'll show you. She is fresh as a daisy. ("Sister Carry" Th . Dreiser).

5. **fair as a lily**- guldek bokira

    Чиста как лилия

    very innocent, Young being

E.g. Ms. Greenwield is fair as a lily, I can tell you. I noticed it while she was talking to you. ("Daniel Deronda" Sister Carry" by G.Elliot)

SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH WORDS AND PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS EXPRESSING THE STATE OF A PERSON

a) state of living

l. **Bed of roses** - osongina hayot

лёкая жизнь

easy life

E.g. Ann's life became harder and harder. But if she married him, bed of roses were ready for her.

2. **Paths strewn with roses**- osongina yoqimli

Лёкая, приятная жизнь

easy, pleasant life

E.g. While analyzing other people's life, she realized that none of them went by path strewn with roses. It was a great discovery for her.

3. **Life is not all roses** - hayot faqat rohatdan iborat emas

В жизни ни одни только удовольствия

nothing is perfect

E.g. Jane made him understand that life was not all roses. But he still couldn't find the way out. It was too difficult for him.

4. **Come up roses** - juda omadli kechmoq

Сложиться очень удачно

to be successful

E.g. ...if some real disaster hits us... we'd have to soldier or, pretending that everything in the column was coming up roses. ("The Times" Dec. 12, 1969).

5. **Gather life's roses**- jon koyitmay rohat-farog'atda yashamoq

Срывать цветы удовольствия

to lead a comfortable life

E.g. We had 4 days in which to make marry and gather the roses, after that who knows? (W.S.Maugham "The making of a Saint" . ch XXII)

6. **Push up daisies** - u dunyoga ravona bo'lmoq

     Отправиться на тот свет

     to pass away

E.g. What will we care for

The why and the wherefore

When you and I

     Are pushing up daisies. (Gr. Greene '(The Heart of the matter" book 1)

7. **under the daisies** - qabrda

     В могиле

     in the grave

E.g. I think she is drinking herself under the daisies... (Suppl)

8. **To turn up one's toes to the daisies** - vafot etmoq

     Умереть

     to die

E.g Yet it was too early to turn up her toes to the daisies. But it was her fate...

b) **a state of a person**

1. To come out smelling like a rose- suvdan quruq chiqmoq

     Ввыйти сухим из воды

     to pretend not to be guilty

E.g. Larry should have got into trouble for what he did, but he was lucky and came out smelling like a rose.

2. **In the pink** - juda yaxshi (sog'lik haqida)

     В прекрасном состоянии (о здоровье)

     very well (about health)

E.g." Then he is ill". "I'll?".Ha, if ever I saw a gentleman in the pink.

(P.H.Johnson(c The UnspeakableS kipton,ch XXV)

3. **The pink of perfection**- kamolot cho'qqisi

Верх совершенство

in the top of smth

E.g. Francis was the pink of perfection this morning in a brown suit, garnet tie...
His shoes were immaculately polished, and his young, healthy face glistened.
(Th. Dreiser "The Titan,, ch XXVil)

4. **Born under the rose** - nikohsiz tug,ilgan

Рожденный вне браке

illegitimate

E'g' "Born under the rose". Dan wasn't tolerant enough to suffer it . It was burden
to him.

5. **Blush like a rose** - qip-qizarib ketmoq

Зардеться как маков цвет

to flush to the top of one's ears

E.g. when Andrew popped the question she blushed like a rose, she didn,t utter a
word.

6. **Bring back the roses to her cheeks**- uning yonoqlariga qizillik kiritmoq

Вернутся румянец ее щекам

To cause to bring her to her senses.

E.g. These words brought back the roses to her cheeks, though they weren't
pleasant enough.

7. **Have roses in one's cheeks** - butun yonog'ш qip-qizil bo'lmoq, soppa-sog'

Румянец во всю щеку, пышет здоровьем

to have red cheeks, to be healthy

E.g. Though she complained about her health, she still had roses in her cheeks. It
seemed to him that all of them were deceived by her.

8. **Lose one's roses** - xiralashmoq, so'lmoq

Поблёкнуть, увянуть

to wither, to fade

E.g. The child's losing all her roses. She needs a change from town air. We'd better send her to the country for a time. (DEI)

9. **No rose without a thorn** - atirgul tikansiz bo'lmas

> Нет трозв без шипов
>
> everything has its defects

E,.g. Nancy is becoming selfish. Every time she finds faults with him. No rose without a thorn. And he is no exception.

10. **A crumpled rose-leaf** - kichik ko'ngilsizlik

> Небольшое огорчение
>
> a little grief

E.g. Those two crumpled rose-leaves. Fleur's caprice and Monsieur Profound's snout, would level away if he lay on them industriously. (J.Galsworthy "To let" part II, ch II)

11. **Pure as a lily** - bokira, nilufarguldek pok

> Чистый, непорочный, чиста как лилия
>
> pure, not vicious

E.g. She is like bud. Her voice is as a bell. Her hair is like waterfall. She is Pure as a lily. You know, I fell in love with her.

12. **Lily hand** - qo'li gul

> Золотые руки
>
> a person who is good at everything

E.g. Mr Black's wife was very kind, and polite. Besides, she had lily hands. Every time I visited them, she surprised me with something very delicious.

13. **The pink** - eng oliy daraja

> Высшая степень
>
> the highest position

E.g. "The pink" - that was his goal for life. He didn't pay attention to anything that could prevent him. All days and nights he thought about it.

SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH WORDS AND PHRASEOLOGICAL
UNITS EXPRESSING THE CHARACTER OF A PERSON

1. **Lily livered**- qo'rqoq

Трусливый

Coward

E.g. All was going well. Everybody thought her to be very strong and brave. Not a single man could even imagine how lily livered she was.

2. **Under the rose** - sir. yashirincha

По секрету. Тайном

secretly, without saying a word

E.g. Do what you like under the rose, but don't give a sign of what you're about...(Ch. Dickens "Hard Times" book II)

3. **Gild the lily** - hech qanday sababsiz biror narsani o'zgartirishga harakat qilmoq

«позолотить лилию», пытаться улучшить или украсить что- либо не нуждающееся в улучшении или украшении

to try to improve or adorn smth that is not necessary to do so

E.g. Don't you know that you have a reputation for putting on airs a little - for guilding the lily a bit? (T.Williams" Summer and Smoke", part I)

4. **Rose water** - o'ta sermulozamatlik

Приторная любезность

sickly sweet courtesy

E,.g. There is no need for rose water. Let's speak about the matter. It's good for both of us.

5. **He wants some ginger** - beparvo odam

Ему «изюминки» не хватает

indifferent person that lacks "interest" for smth

E.g. It's very boring sitting with such person like him. He wants some ginger and then he'll be one of us.

6. **To say smth with flowers** - biror narsani go'zal tasvirlamoq

Красиво ввыразиться

to describe something beautifully

E.g . He always shows that he graduated from literature faculty by saying everything with flowers. This is the one thing I like in his character.

7. **To look at the smth through rose** - tinted spectacles- biror narsaga yengil munosabat bildirmoq

Смотреть сквозь пальцы

to notice only good thing about smth

E.g. Even when I'd stopped looking at him through rose – tinted spectacles I could see what he was, I was still tied to him.

8. **Rose- coloured** - hayotdanx ursand , quvnoq

Жизнерадостный, радужный

very happy, merry

The world seemed to him to be rose - colored. Because he achieved his aim . He went to Rome.

9. **Look at houses with rose** - coloured glasses- biror narsaga ko'r -ko'rona qaramoq (bunday odamlar odatda aldanib qoladi).

Смотреть сквозь розовые очки (в результате таких людей легко обводить вокруг пальцы)

to look at smth carelessly (such people are often decieved)

E,.g. Tom Foye believes that many buyers tend to look at houses with rose - coloured glasses Consequently, they end up feeling cheated.

10. **A shrinking violet** -juda uyatchan

Слишком робкий

very timid and shy

E.e : Give him a tough assignment and he turns into a shrinking violet.

11. **No shrinking violet** - o'ziga o'ta ishonuvchan

Слишком самоуверенный

self - confident

E.g.: Amber is no shrinking violet. She is a brash colored character

Above we gave semantic structure of the words and phraseological units denoting the names of flowers according to different dictionaries. We know that a lot of great writers such as W.Shakespeare, G.Chaucef, E.Spenser describe any word so beautifully that makes us delight Here we'd like to give descriptions of some flowers written by great writers ' If helps us to distinguish more dearly the semantics of the words denoting the names of flowers[1]:

1. I know a bank whereon the wild thyme blows,

Where oxlips and the noddling violet grows

Quite over canopied with luscious woodbine,

With sweet musk - rose and with eglantine

W.Shakespea re (1564- 1616)" A Midsummer Nights Dream"(1595-1596)

2. Ah, Sun - flower weary of time,

Who countest the steps of the sun;

Seeking after that sweet golden clime

Where the traveller's journey is done.

W.Blake (1757- 1827)   " Songs of Experience ("7 94)

"Ah, Sun - flower".

3. That wel by reson men it calle may

The "dayesye" or elles the "ye of day"

The emperice and flour of floures alle.

Geoffrey Chaucer C. 1343 - 1400 "The Legend of Good Woman "The Prolosue"

4. Bring hither the pink and purple columbine,

With gilly flowers:

Bring coronation, and sops in wine,

Worn of paramours

Strew me the ground with daffadowndilles,

And cowslips and kingcups, and loved lilies

---

[1] Медникова Э.М. Значение слова и методы его описания. М., 1974

E. SpenseCr . 1552-99((The Snepherd'sC alenda"r (1579) "April".

5. I never saw daffodils so beautiful. They grew among the mossy stones about and about them, some rested their heads upon these stones as on a pillow for weariness; and the rest tossed and reeled and danced , and seemed as if they verily laughed with the wind that blew upon them over the lake'

D. Wodrdsworth (1171- 1 85 5) "Grasmere Journal" I 5 April 1 802

6. Here are sweet peas' on tip-toe for a flight John keats (1795 - lgzl) "I stood tip - toe upon a little hill" (1817)

7. Summer set lip to earth's bosom bare

And left the flushed print in a poppy there

Francis Thompson (1859- 1907) "The poppy"(1913)

8. Oh, no man knows

Through what wild centuries

Roves back the rose

Walter de la Mave (1873 - 1956):"A11 tha's past" (1912)

10. Hey, buds below, up is where to grow'

Up with which below can't compave with'

Hupry , It's lovely up here! Hurry!

Alan Jay Lerner (1918 - 1986) "It's lovely up here" (1965)

11. There's rosemary, that's for remembrance... … and there is pansies, that' s for thoughts'

W. Shakespeare "Hamlet" V, 5'

l2. In the wood, where often You and were won't to lie.

I upon faint Primroseb eds

W. Shakespear"A Midsummer Night Dream" I ' I

13. Lilies that faster smell far worse than weeds

W. Shakespeare" Sonnet"9 4'

14. The fairiest flowers o'the season

Are oure carnations and streak'd gillyvors

W. Shakespeare" The Winter's Tale" IV '4'.

2.2. TRANSLATION WAYS OF ENGLISH WORDS AND PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS DENOTING THE NAMES OF FLOWERS FROM ENGLISH INTO UZBEK

Translating a word or phraseological unit is not an easy matters as it depends on several factors: different combinability of words, homonymy, synonymy, polysemy of phraseological units and presence of falsely identical units, which makes it necessary to take into account of the text. Besides, a large number of phraseological units have a stylistic expressive component in meaning, which usually has a specific national feature.

As we were acquainted with the main principles of the general theory of phraseology in chapter I we'd like to give information about the ways of translation of English words and phraseological units denoting the names of flowers from English into Uzbek and Russian.

Any type of phraseological unit can be presented as a definite micro - system. In the process of translating phraseological units functional adequate linguistic units are selected by comparing two specific linguistic principles. These principles reveal elements of likeness and distinction. Certain parts of these systems ma) correspond inform and contact (completely or partially) or have no adequacy[1]. The main types of phraseological conformities are as follows:

I. Complete conformities

II. Partial conformities

III. Absence conformities

1. Complete conformities. Complete coincidence of form and content in phraseological units is rarely met with.

2. Partial conformities. Partial conformities of phraseological units in two languages assume lexical grammatical and lexico - grammatical differences with identity of meaning grammatical differences with identity of meaning and style,

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[1] Бархударов Л.С. Язык и перевод. М., 1975

i.e they are figuratively close , but differ in lexical composition, morphologic number and syntactic arrangement of the order of words . One may find:

1) Partial lexic conformities by lexic parameters (lexical composition)

2) Partial conformities by the grammatical parameters.

3. Absence of conformities. Many English phraseological units have no phraseological conformities in Uzbek and Russian. In the first instance this concerns phraseological units based on realiae. When translating units of this kind we are to use the following types of translation:

A . A verbatim word for word translation

B . Translation by analogy

C . Descriptive translation

A verbatim translation is possible when the way of thinking (in the phraseological unit) does not bear a specific national feature.

Translating by analogy. This way of translating is resorted to when the phraseologicaul nit has a specific national realiae.

Descriptive translation. Descriptive translation i.e. translating phraseological units by a free combination of words is possible when the phraseological unit has a particular national feature and has no analogue in the language it is to be translated into.[1]

Here we are to analyze the ways of translation of the words and phraseological nits denoting the names of flowers according to the principles we have given above. And we shall divide the words and phraseological nits into 3 groups according to the ways of translation and give their Uzbek and Russian versions.

I. Complete conformities:

1. **no rose without a thorn**

atirgul tikansiz bo'lmas

нет розы без шипов

---

[1] Translation: theory and practice. Tashkent "UKITUVCHI"1989

2. **pure as a lily**

nilufar guldek pok bokira

Чистый, непорочный, чиста как лилия

3. **in the flower of one's age**

ayni gullagan yoshda

в цветуўем возрасте

4. **to look at something through rose tinted spectacles**

Смотреть сквозь розовые очки

 (in Uzbek it has partial adequance)

5. **look at houses with rose colored glasses**

Смотреть сквозь розовые очки (в результате таких людей легко обводить

вокруг пальцы)

 (in Uzbek it has partial adequance)

II. Partial conformities:

l. **to blush like rose**

qip - qizarib ketmoq

Зардеться как маков цвет

2. **bring back the roses to her cheeks**

uning yonoqlariga qizillik kiritmoq

Вернутся румянец ее щекам

3. **to say something with flower**

biror narsani go'zal tasvirlamoq

красиво выразиться

4. **lily hand**

qo'li gul

золотые рука

5. **to look at something through rose - tinted spectacles**

biror narsaga yengil munosabat bildirmoq

(In Russian it has complete adequance)

6. **look at houses with rose** - coloured glasses

biror narsaga ko'r - ko'rona qaramoq (bunday odamlar odatda aldanib qoladilar)

(In Russian it has complete adequance)

7. **fresh a daisy**

yangi uzilgan guldek sof , toza

свежая как маргаритка

8. **1ife is not all roses**

hayot faqat rohatdan iborat emas

в жизни ни одни только удовольствия

9. **gather life's roses**

Срывать цветы удовольствия

(in Uzbek it has no adequance)

10. **have roses in one's cheeks**

butun yonog'I qip-qizil bo'lmoq

 Румянец во всю щеку

11. **not all roses**

Усыпанный не только розами

 (in Uzbek it has no adequance)

12. **one (he) wants some ginger**

Ему (кому- то) «изюминки» не хватает

l3. **fair as a lily**

guldek bokira

чиста как лилия

III. Absence of adequance

l. **to come out smelling like a rose**

suvdan quruq chiqmoq

выйти сухим из воды

2. **in the pink**

juda yaxshi (sog'lik haqida)

в прекрасном состоянии (о здоровые)

3. to turn up one's toes to the daisies

vafot etmoq

умереть

4. lily livered

qo'rqoq

трусливый

5. the rose of . . .

... da eng go'zal

Первая красавица в…

6. bed of roses

osongina hayot

лёкая жизнь

7. path strewn with roses

osongina, yoqimli hayot

легкая, приятная жизнь

8. under the rose

sir, yashirinch,i pismiqlarcha

по секрету, тайном, втихомолку

9. born under the rose

nikohsiz tug'ilgan

рожденный вне браке

10. come up roses

juda omadli kechmoq

сложиться очень удачно

11. gather life's roses

jon koyitmay rohat - farog'atda yashamoq

(in Russian it has parttal adequance)

12. loseo ne's roses

xiralashmoq, so'lmoq

поблёкнуть, увянуть

13. **not all roses**

faqatgina xursandlikdan iborat emas

(In Russian it has partial adequance)

14. **a rose between two thorns**

ikki erkak orasida qolgan go'za ayol

красивая женщина, сидящая между двумя мужчинами

15. **a crumpled rose - leaf**

kichik ko'ngilsizlik

небольшое огорчение, омрачающее радость

16. **push up daisies**

u dunyoga ravona bo'lmoq

отправиться на тот свет, отдать концы

l7. **under the daisies**

qabrda

в могиле

18. **gild the lily**

hech qanday sababsiz biror narsani o'zgartirishga urinmoq

«позолотить лилию», пытаться улучшить или украсить что- либо не

нуждающееся в улучшении или украшении

l9. **primrose path**

rohatbaxsh yo'l

Путь наслаждений

20. **rosewater**

o'ta sermulozamatlik

приторная любезность

2l. **one (he) wants some singer**

beparvo odam

(In Russian it has partial adequance)

22. **rosebud**

Yoshgina go 'zal qiz

Красивая, молоденькая девушка

23. **rose- colored**

hayotdan xursand, quvnoq

жизнерадостный, радужный

24. **a shrinking violet**

Juda uyatchan

Слишком робкий

25. **no shrinking violet**

o'ziga o'ta ishonuvchan

слишком самоуверенной

CONCLUSION

This carried out investigation allows us to do the conclusion. This research is characterized by a great interest towards the problem connected with the study of semantic structure of English words denoting the names of flowers and their translation into Uzbek.

We are eager to know as much as possible about the names of flowers and their usage in phraseological units, the aim of the qualification paper is to study structural semantic peculiarities of phraseological units with the names of flowers and reveal their structural components.

The aim is achieved through solution of given tasks.

From the point of linguistic factors there can be singled out the main levels of investigation.

Here the phraseological units with the names of flowers classified according to their structural semantic types. On extra linguistic level they are considered:
a) cultural - historic
b) classified phraseological units with the names of flowers expressing the beauty, state, character and state of living of a person.

Here, they are classified according to their structures, to which parts of speech they belong and how they are translated into Uzbek and Russian.

For instance: under the daisies, they belong (as a part speech) to preposition and noun. Directly we can translate it as type of flower "под маргариткой", «дасторгул тагида» but it is rendered as an idiom- в могиле, қабрда.

Also, there were discussed the ways of translation of phraseological units and words denoting the names of flowers. There were discussed the theory of the ways of translation and all the phraseological units denoting the names of flowers were classified according to three ways of translation (complete conformities, partial conformities and absence of conformity).

Thus, the investigation of their classifications plays an important role in various branches of linguistics.

Analyzing the etymology of English words denoting the names of flowers we gathered some information from many books. Here we'll give some examples:

Daisy - The Middle English forms daisie and dayeseye derived from the Old English doegeseag,eli terury "day' s eye" , an illusion to the fact that the petals open in the day to reveal the flower's yellow eye and close again in the evening .

Lupin - the plant was originally grown for animal fodder and for its seed which was used as a vegetable. The Romans called it lupinum derived from luprnus meaning "wolf - like" (from lupus "wolf'). Ancient belief held that just as the wolf was a greedy ravenous creature so the lupin destroyed the soil, sucking out all the goodness.

In the second chapter there were given structural semantic peculiarities of English phraseological units and words denoting the names of flowers. While making structural analysis we analyzed to what part of speech they belong, for example:

Born under the rose

Part II + prep+ art+ noun

Nikohsiz tug'ilgan

рождённый вне браке

Path strewn with roses

Noun + part II + prep + noun

Osongina, yoqimli hayot

лёкая, приятная жизнь

We also gave their semantic groups expressing beauty of person, state (state of living, state of a person) and character of person.

Beauty - fresh as a daisy

Yangi uzilgan, guldek sof

Свежая как маргаритка

State of living - bed of roses

Osongina hayot

Легкая жизнь

A state of a person - to come out smelling like a rose

Suvdan quruq chiqmoq

Выйти сухим из воды

Characte-r a shrinking violet

Juda uyatchan

слишком робкий

At the end of this chapter there were given beautiful quotations given to flowers by great poets. In chapter three there were discussed the ways of translation English words and phraseological units denoting the names of flowers and classified them into three groups.

l. Complete conformity, for example:

no rose without a thorn

atirgul tikansiz bo' lmas

нет розы без шипов

pure as a lily

nilufardek pok, bokira

чиста как лилия

2. Partial conformity

to blush like a rose

qip - qizarib ketmoq

зардеться как маков цвет

to say something with flowers

biror narsani go'zal tasvirlamoq

красиво выразиться

3. Absence of conformities

the bed of roses

osongina hayot

легкая жизнь

under the rose

yashirincha, pismiqlarcha

по секрету, тайном, втихомолку

In conclusive part of our research we made conclusions to each discussed chapter. In summary it is given all information about research brief.

In bibliography we gave the list of used literature for our research.

We hope the investigation on theme the semantic structure English words denoting the "names of flowers" will help future research works on this theme.

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