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ИНГЛИЗ ТИЛИ ЛЕКСИКОЛОГИЯСИ КАФЕДРАСИ**

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QUALIFICATION PAPER

**THE IDIOM ANALYSIS WITHIN THE FRAMEWORK OF THE
COGNITIVE THEORY OF METAPHOR**

**5120100-Philology and teaching languages (The English Language)
for granting the bachelor's degree**

**THE QUALIFICATION PAPER
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Contents

Introduction

Chapter I. Central assumptions and the use of idioms.

- 1.1. General features of phraseological units in modern English.....9
- 1.2. The functions of idioms and their classifications13

Chapter II. The idiom analysis within the framework of the cognitive theory of metaphor

- 2.1. The notion of cognitive metaphor.....28
- 2.2. Typology of idioms on the base of cognitive metaphors.....35
- 2.3. The idiom analysis within the theory of conceptual metaphor.....42
- 2.4. Metaphorical idioms as an inevitable part of human speech and their purpose.....48

Chapter III. Teaching phraseological units in English classes

- 3.1 The importance of idioms in the development of improving comprehension of learners.....53
- 3.2 Learning phraseological units with the useful classroom activities...55

Conclusion

The list of used literatures

Introduction

In their daily communication, people often resort to figurative language, that is, they use different linguistic devices such as idioms, proverbs or similes in order to make their communication more original and effective. However, this use of language may cause some problems for foreign language learners since these linguistic resources, as vocabulary in general, may belong to different levels of language use in terms of formality or situational context.

However the review of the current foreign languages teaching system proves that educational standards, curricula and textbooks do not fully meet the up-to-date requirements in terms of application of the advanced information and media technologies. Teaching is being conducted using traditional methodologies. Both consistent learning of the foreign languages at all levels of the education system and teachers' professional upgrading and equipping them with modern educational literature require further enhancement.

In view of entire enhancement of the system of teaching youths the foreign languages and training of specialists able to communicate in foreign languages fluently, by introducing progressive teaching methods using modern teaching and information-communication technologies thus enabling them to access the achievements of the world civilization and globally available information resources, ensuring international collaboration and communication¹.

Education provides creative inspiration for the spirituality of the people of Uzbekistan. It helps us discover the best ability as of the up and coming generation, while continuously improving the skills of professionals. Education helps, educates and pass down the wisdom and experience of the older generation to the younger. Young people with their budding talents and thirst for knowledge, begin to understand spirituality through education.²

¹ decree of the president of the republic of Uzbekistan on measures for further enhancement of the system of teaching of foreign languages

² I.A. Karimov - Uzbekistan the road of independence and progress. Tashkent: Sharq, p.64

This qualification paper is dedicated to the study of “The idiom analysis within the framework of the cognitive theory of metaphor”.

Idiomatic expressions are characterized by unpredictable meanings or unusual grammatical patterns, and they often convey specific connotations. Sometimes non-native speakers lack confidence in using figurative language, especially idioms, that meaning often cannot be predicted or understood from the meaning of the words themselves. Consequently, people may misinterpret what the other person is saying if they are not acquainted with the special meaning of a particular expression.

The topicality of the research work held conditioned by the deep interest to investigate idioms within the framework of cognitive theory of metaphor, sources to which they traced, and the result of this process as the means of formation and enrichment of English vocabulary.

The aim of the research. The aim of the work is to study the analysis of phraseological units on the basis of cognitive theory of metaphor from the original and semantic points of view, and it includes the following **tasks**:

- to study theories, questions of phraseology and their main objectives and to get acquainted with the classifications idioms;
- to get acquainted with the scholars' opinion about phraseological units;
- to analyze the functions of idioms and different approaches of scientists;
- to analyze idiom semantics and conceptual metaphor;
- to learn general issues of metaphor and models of metaphorical comprehension in teaching English ;
- On the basis of analyzing the idiom semantics, to reveal or describe the role of cultural components in idiom semantics.

The degree of study of the research. The term of idiom and its problems are been learning in linguistics from XIX century as according to Ginzburg , “the approaches of idiomaticity can be interlingual and intralingual. The interlingual approach involves a comparison of two different languages, whereas the intralingual approach of idiomaticity is more related with the point of view of native speakers, In addition, Moon employs the term fixed expressions which encompass frozen collocations, grammatically ill-formed collocations, proverbs, routine formulae, sayings, similes and idioms. While Grant and Bauer use the term multi-word units which subsume collocations and idioms, Jackson applies the term fixed expressions which includes only clichés, proverbs and idioms. In this case, idioms are distinguished as a separate type of fixed expressions. Another scholar, Fernando, uses the term multiword expressions which include idioms and habitual collocations; however, in the same way as Jackson, she distinguishes idioms as a separate group.

Many linguists define an idiom as an expression which is fixed and cannot be understood literally. For Strassler, on the other hand, an idiom “is a relationship of more than one lexeme whose meaning is not derived from the meanings of its constituents and which does not consist of a verb plus adverbial particle or preposition. Gramley and Patzhold distinguish more categories. They classify idioms according to the “image or picture they evoke” and divide them into four distinct groups, Daphne M.Gulland and David Hinds Howell collected idioms under the various themes, Makkai also identifies two major types of idioms, i.e. those of encoding and decoding and Fernando indicates that a semantic classification depends on the degree of semantic isolation and the degree of opacity, according to Halliday, “interpersonal idioms fulfill an interactional function”, Kunin A.V. investigated the various types of idioms in 1996, Maalej, Z. *Metaphor, Cognition and Culture*, Manouba, Tunis, 2005. Print.

After getting acquainted the above given scholars work we found out that the idiom analysis within the framework of the cognitive theory of metaphor not learned and haven't done research works on it yet.

The scientific novelty of the research. As a result of investigating metaphorical idioms, the main crucial scientific novelties have been obtained. The present work is the first attempt to give an objective picture of different approaches and viewpoints on idioms with metaphorical units, to study them by the way of etymological approaches, analyze them according to their components with the help of methods of phraseology in present day English.

The method of the research. The investigation of the current research covers itself the ways and methods which represent the complex approach to the study of idioms on the basis of metaphorical units, including structural, semantic, lexical and historical ways of analysis.

The object of the research is idiomatic metaphorical units.

The subject of the research is to study idioms within the framework of the cognitive theory of metaphor.

The source of the research. More than 50 idioms with metaphorical units, which are collected from more than 5 explanatory and phraseological dictionaries are considered the main base of the research. They are chosen from English explanatory dictionaries and the following phraseological vocabularies: А.В.Кунин. Англо-русский фразеологический словарь (3-изд. М., 1967), Common American phrases (McGrawHill-2003). Most of these authors represent western linguistic schools. Their views regarding the structure of idioms are rather similar; however, they have different opinions with respect to the definition of idioms put forward so far and internet resources are widely used.

The theoretical importance of the research. The results of the analysis of cognitive theory of metaphor are of great importance to develop the theories of cultural linguistics, cognitive linguistics, and phraseology. The results of this qualification paper can be used by people who are involved in learning English Lexicology.

The practical importance of the research. It is possible to use collected material and their analysis, while giving the lectures and seminars on lexicology and compiling dictionaries. Moreover, relying on the results of analysis, one can study words and set expressions. It can be used as an aid for the theoretical courses of English lexicology and phraseology, as well as in the process of teaching English.

The structure of the research. The qualification paper consists of the introduction, three chapters, conclusion and the list of used literature

In the Introduction part the information about the actuality, scientific novelty, aim and tasks of the research, methods used in the research, its theoretical and practical importance and the structure of the qualification paper are given.

The first chapter of the research is devoted to the survey of the research works and the main issues of Phraseology and phraseological units, which are considered its objective. In this chapter the origin of phraseology, linguists, who contributed to this branch and their contribution, criteria of classifying phraseological units, different classifications of phraseological units are analyzed.

In the second chapter general problems in the field of idioms, which managed to turn into an actual issue of phraseology and its main notions are particularly represented and metaphorical phraseological units which are considered the main issue of the research are studied. In this chapter models of metaphorical comprehension are presented on the basis of the collected examples. We applied the statistical methods as well.

In the third chapter we investigated some crucial ways to learn English, its vocabulary through idioms and performed it through activities .

The results of the research , that have been announced. On the basis of the theme of the qualification paper an article in the English language have been published: the article under the title of “General issues in the study of metaphor”.

In conclusion we have spoken about the results of our investigation which have been done during our research.

List of used literature have attached at the end of the qualification paper which is valuable for the user of this research paper.

CHAPTER I. CENTRAL ASSUMPTIONS AND THE USE OF IDIOM.

1.1. General features of phraseological units in modern English

Phraseology is the branch of lexicology which studies phraseological units and idioms. An idiom is the phrase which means something different from the meaning of the separate words that are a part of it. Usually it cannot be understood by the literal interpretation of the words that make up the expression. Used together, the words convey a meaning that is often unrelated to the individual words in the idiom. Some idioms have become so well worn that they are also clichés: overused or commonplace expressions. Some idioms are slang they may be used to create an effect such as shock, irreverence or exaggeration.

The idioms included in the research work have been selected because they occur frequently in native speech or reading material used by both English and Uzbek language learners. Many of them are not found in standard dictionaries. Approximately 50 idioms are defined in this work, and this is only a small selection, from the thousands of idioms that exist in English and Uzbek. Occasionally an idiom has more than one meaning.

The vocabulary of a language is enriched not only by words but also by phraseological units. Phraseological units are word-groups that cannot be made in the process of speech they exist in the language as ready-made units. They are compiled in special dictionaries. The same as words phraseological units express a single notion and are used in a sentence as one part of it. American and British lexicographers call such units «idioms». We can mention such dictionaries as: L.Smith «Words and Idioms», V.Collins «A Book of English Idioms» etc. In these dictionaries we can find words, peculiar in their semantics (idiomatic), side by side with word-groups and sentences. In these dictionaries they are arranged, as a rule, into different semantic groups.

The chapter also considers the implications of a discourse-based approach to phraseological units in teaching and learning. The exploration of the discourse potential of phraseological units is of immediate relevance to the studies of language and literature as an area of applied stylistics. Teaching stylistic use helps to disclose the cognitive processes of the mind in creative thinking. It can lead to significant gains in stylistic awareness which involves a conscious perception and understanding of: significant changes in the base form and meaning of the phraseological unit, associative links and their networks, stylistic cohesive ties in the text and the creation of a new meaning in discourse.

Phraseological unit base form, core use, instancial stylistic use, pattern, stylistic awareness, applied stylistics. Phraseological units can be classified according to the ways

- they are formed,
- according to the degree of the motivation of their meaning,
- according to their structure and
- according to their part-of-speech meaning.

A.V. Koonin³ classified phraseological units according to the way they are formed. He pointed out primary and secondary ways of forming phraseological units. Primary ways of forming phraseological units are those when a unit is formed on the basis of a free word-group :

a) Most productive in Modern English is the formation of phraseological units by means of transferring the meaning of terminological word-groups, e.g. in cosmic technique we can point out the following phrases: «launching pad» in its terminological meaning is «стартовая площадка» , in its transferred meaning - «отправной пункт», «to link up» - «стыковаться, стыковать космические корабли» in its transformed meaning it means -«знакомиться»;

³ Кунин А.В. Курс фразеологии современного английского языка. - Москва: Высшая школа, 1986. С-6

- b) a large group of phraseological units was formed from free word groups by transforming their meaning, e.g. «granny farm» - «пансионат для престарелых», «Trojan horse» - «компьютерная программа, преднамеренно составленная для повреждения компьютера»;
- c) phraseological units can be formed by means of alliteration , e.g. «a sad sack» - «несчастный случай», «culture vulture» - «человек, интересующийся искусством», «fudge and nudge» - «уклончивость».
- d) they can be formed by means of expressiveness, especially it is characteristic for forming interjections, e.g. «My aunt!», «Hear, hear!» etc
- e) they can be formed by means of distorting a word group, e.g. «odds and ends» was formed from «odd ends»,
- f) they can be formed by using archaisms, e.g. «in brown study» means «in gloomy meditation» where both components preserve their archaic meanings,
- g) they can be formed by using a sentence in a different sphere of life, e.g. «that cock won't fight» can be used as a free word-group when it is used in sports (cock fighting), it becomes a phraseological unit when it is used in everyday life, because it is used metaphorically,
- h) they can be formed when we use some unreal image, e.g. «to have butterflies in the stomach» - «испытывать волнение», «to have green fingers» - «преуспевать как садовод-любитель» etc.
- i) they can be formed by using expressions of writers or politicians in everyday life, e.g. «corridors of power» (Snow), «American dream» (Alby) «locust years» (Churchil) , «the winds of change» (Mc Millan).

Secondary ways of forming phraseological units are those when a phraseological unit is formed on the basis of another phraseological unit; they are:

- a) conversion, e.g. «to vote with one's feet» was converted into «vote with one's feet»;⁴

⁴ Кунин А.В. Курс фразеологии современного английского языка. - Москва: Высшая школа, 1986. С.10-11

- b) changing the grammar form, e.g. «Make hay while the sun shines» is transferred into a verbal phrase - «to make hay while the sun shines»;
- c) analogy, e.g. «Curiosity killed the cat» was transferred into «Care killed the cat»;
- d) contrast, e.g. «cold surgery» - «a planned before operation» was formed by contrasting it with «acute surgery», «thin cat» - «a poor person» was formed by contrasting it with «fat cat»;
- e) shortening of proverbs or sayings e.g. from the proverb «You can't make a silk purse out of a sow's ear» by means of clipping the middle of it the phraseological unit «to make a sow's ear» was formed with the meaning «ОШИБАТЬСЯ».
- f) borrowing phraseological units from other languages, either as translation loans, e.g. «living space» (German), «to take the bull by the horns» (Latin) or by means of phonetic borrowings «meche blanche» (French), «corpse d'elite» (French), «sotto voce» (Italian) etc.

Phonetic borrowings among phraseological units refer to the bookish style and are not used very often. In order to know the idioms well and understand their meaning clearly we should have imagination about the collocation. So what is collocation itself? Why do we say “to do your homework” and not “to make your homework?” and why do we go somewhere “by car” or “by train” but “on foot”? The reason is “collocation”. Collocation means the way that words form predictable relationship with other words. Knowing the “meaning” of a word is not only knowing its dictionary definition but also knowing the kind of words with which it is often associated.

We say, for example, “take a look” and “have a look”, but not “make a look” or “get a look”. There is no reason or rule that tells us why we use some words with “look” but not others. Looking up the meaning of **take** or **have** in the dictionary won't help us find the answer. Collocations, either fixed or more flexible, are the result of many years of habitual use by fluent speakers of the language.

Collocations are important because:

- it makes speech sound natural and alive
- it provides “chunks” of English that are ready to use
- it saves us a lot of time and effort when we are trying to express ourselves.

Many idioms in English are examples of strong collocations. There is very little, if any, room for changing the words that make up expressions such as the following:

- under the weather
- lose face
- spill the beans

Sometimes we can guess the meaning of an idiom if we understand all the individual words that it is formed from. But in many cases, this is not possible. For example, it is difficult to see why “spill the beans” should mean “to give away secret information”. The words and grammar that make up these idioms are almost impossible to change, without changing the meaning. We can’t say “on top of the weather” (but we can say “on top of the world”). We can’t say “find face” or “lose faces” (but we can say “save faces”) and “spill the peas” is not an idiomatic expression. A small error in the use of these fixed collocations makes a big difference to their meaning- and will often make them meaningless.⁵

I hope that readers and listeners will enjoy using these idioms and they will learn to understand and use many idioms in Uzbek and in English. If everyone keeps an open mind, play his cards right their proficiency in English will soon be something to crow about.

1.2. The functions of idioms and their classification.

Phraseological units perform a very important and specific function. They enable one to express one’s thoughts concisely and vividly, and give one’s utterance a semantic depth which would be difficult if not impossible to achieve by

⁵Michael Rundell “Macmillan essential dictionary”.-London: A&C black publishers LTD, 2005.- pp-494-495

other means. They provide the speaker with ready-made expressions of wisdom, irony, jocularly, etc. which rarely become threadbare with wear. The phraseological units, like no other units of the vocabulary, bear a clear national stamp, providing information about a country's history, cultural background and character of its people.

Phraseological expressions are united under the terms: set-phrases, idioms, word-groups and phraseological units. Even today they are treated differently by different linguists. The complexity of the problem is to a great extent caused by the fact that the borderline between free word-groups and phraseological units is not clearly defined. The so-called free groups are only relatively free while phraseological units are but comparatively stable and inseparable. Many set expressions originated as free phrases and only gradually became stereotyped.

From the semantic point of view of the phraseological units there are some peculiarities to be pointed out:⁶

a) A phraseological unit is semantically non-motivated, that is the meaning of the whole cannot be deduced from the meanings of its components, here the information does not exist, until we get the whole. E.g.: *At sixes and sevens*= *in confusion*; *the nuts and bolts*= *the practical considerations*.

b) A phraseological unit has unique meanings, that is the meanings of elements which it has only in a concrete given combination. For example the word salt in the phraseological unit "an old salt" has a unique meaning: "an experienced sailor"; "a walking bomb"= someone in a dangerous state of mind.

Phraseological units undergo important characteristics from the structural point of view:⁷

1) The verb-type equivalents are used in the imperative mood. E.g.: *keep your hair on*= *keep your temper*, *shut your head*= *be silent*.

⁶ Arnold I.V. The English word. M.-London: Просвещение, 1966-p-342

⁷ Muminov O. Lexicology of the English language. T.: Мехрдаг, 2008, pp161

- 2) The use of the second type of verb-equivalents only in the active voice. E.g.: *give a hand= to help, give ear to= to listen to.*
- 3) The use of the third type of verb-equivalents only in the negative form. E.g.: *not to stir a finger= to make no effort, give no help.*
- 4) The use of the fourth type of verb-equivalents only with the verb “can”. E.g.: *cannot make head or tail of=.*
- 5) The use of the fifth type of verb-equivalents in parenthetical and introductory phrases. E.g.: *in my book=, to make it short=.*

A semantic classification of phraseological units has been given by Smith L.P. and W. Ball, explaining etymologically and arranging them according to different spheres of human activity. It is very easy for a learner of English, having at his/her disposal such a classification, to find immediately the necessary variant of the phraseological unit and use it properly in communication. Numerous phraseological units are linked with:

- a) Sea life: *ships in the night/ ship that pass in the night= casual acquaintances and friendships that last only a very short time.*
- b) Colours: *to be green= to be inexperienced or untried.*
- c) Time: *to have a rough time= to be treated severely, to have a run of bad luck.*
- d) Weather: *to weather the storm= to overcome a crisis, often financial.*
- e) Months, days of the week, periods of the day: *not to have all day= not to have any more time to spare for somebody.*
- f) Life of trees, plants, animals: *to be in clover= to be in a comfortable situation.*
- g) Life and Death: *like an angel= with the utmost innocence and purity.*
- h) Birds and Insects: *like a bird in a cage= imprisoned, trapped.*
- i) Body and Mind: *to have body= to have weight or substance.*
- j) Relations: *marriage lines= a marriage certificate.*
- k) Town and House: *kitchen talk= uneducated talk.*
- l) Furniture and Clothes: *table talk= light conversation.*
- m) Food: *to be as different as chalk and cheese= to be completely different.*
- n) War and Peace: *to win a battle= to be successful in a struggle.*

- o) Weapon and Arms: to gun for someone= to plot revenge on someone.
- p) Numbers: in round numbers= in approximate number.
- q) School and Education: a different school of thought= a different body of opinion.
- r) Work and Occupations: the oldest profession= prostitution.
- s) Money and Valuables: smart money= money invested wisely.
- t) Games and Sports: to raise one's game= to better one's performance.
- u) Music and Theatre: behind the scenes= out of the public view.

In his works "Notes on Stylistics" and "French Stylistics" Charles Bally defined four groups of word combinations:

1. Free word combinations (lack fixedness);
2. Usual combinations (relatively free used together);
3. Phraseological sets or series (two notions or one idea);
4. Phraseological unities (loss of meaning of elements).

Here, as we can observe, a definite role plays the degree of stability. In our opinion, a drawback of this classification is lack of concrete description. Later, the same linguist distinguishes two groups out of the previous four:

1. Free combinations;
2. Phraseological unities (words based on his theory of equivalency between phraseological units and words).

Taking into account mainly the degree of idiomaticity, Vinogradov V.V. divides phraseological units into:

- 1) Phraseological fusions: completely non-motivated word-groups. E.g.: to kick the bucket= to die.
- 2) Phraseological unities: partially non-motivated, the meaning can be perceived through the metaphoric meaning of the whole phraseological unit. E.g.: to show one's teeth= to show an intention to injure.
- 3) Phraseological collocations: motivated, but they are made up of words possessing specific lexical valence, which accounts for a certain degree of stability

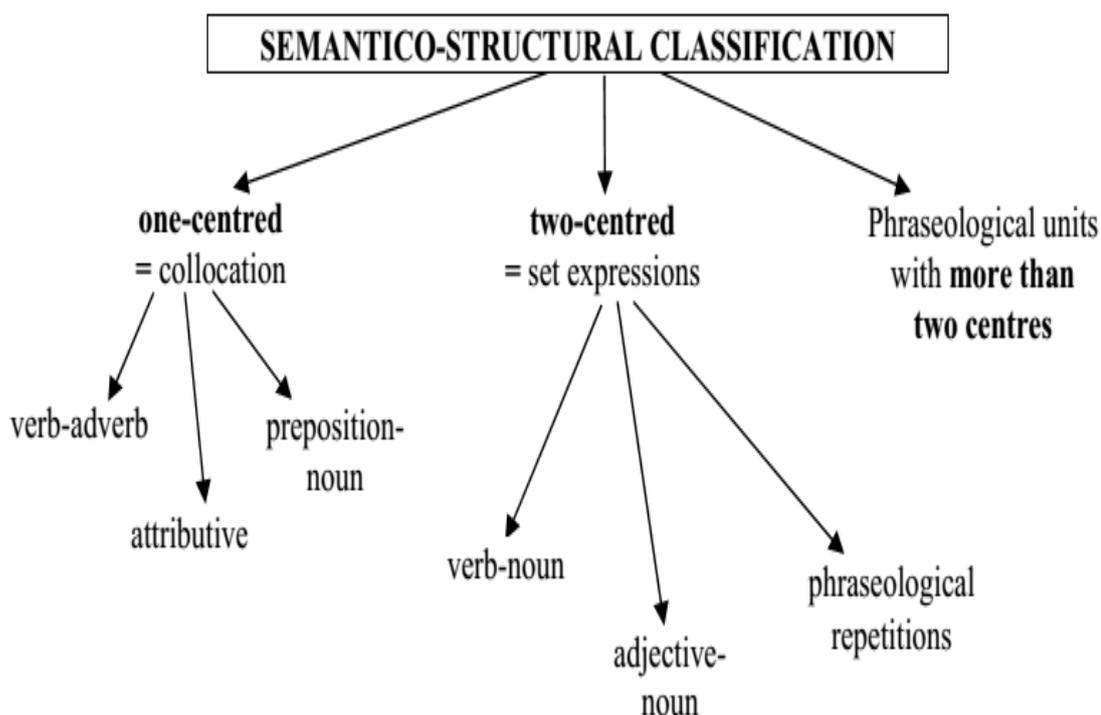
in such word-groups. For instance, bear a grudge may be changed into bear malice, but not into bear a fancy or liking.

In his book on modern lexicology A.I. Smirnitsky⁸ suggests a classification of phraseological units based on an underlying semantic principle combined with structural peculiarities, dividing phraseological units into three groups:

- a) one-member (or one-centre) collocation (combination which consists of several elements but only one element carries the lexical meaning): e.g. to make up;
- b) two-member (or two-centre) collocation (having nocentral word which focuses the semantic and grammatical properties on the whole, = set expressions): e.g. for good or ill;
- c) poly-member (poly-centre) collocation: e.g. to burn the candle on both ends.

Schematically it may be represented in the following way:

Scheme 1



According to A.V. Koonin's approach to the problem of phraseology:⁹

- 1) Phraseology deals with a phraseological subsystem of language and not with isolated phraseological units.

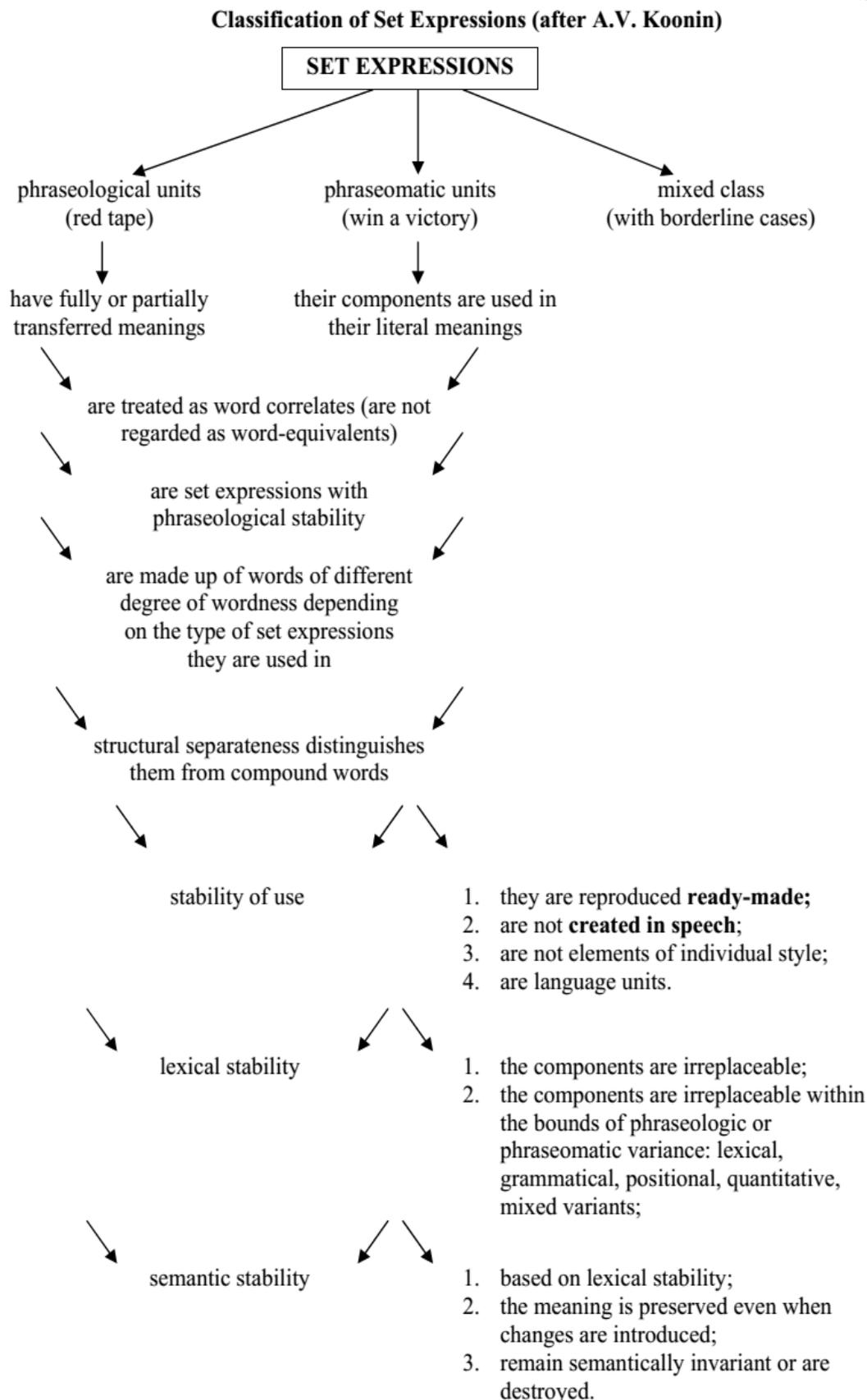
⁸ Смирницкий А.И. Лексикология английского языка. - Москва: Изд. лит. на иностр. яз., 1956.

⁹ . Кунин А.В. Фразеология современного английского языка. - Москва: Межд. отношения, 1972. 13, p.175-181

- 2) Phraseology is concerned with all types of set expressions.
 - 3) Set expressions are divided into three classes:
 - a) Phraseological units (red tape, mare's nest)
 - b) Phraseomatic units (win a victory, launch a campaign)
 - c) Borderline cases belonging to the mixed class.
 - 4) Phraseological and phraseomatic units are not regarded as word equivalents but some of them are treated as word correlates.
 - 5) Phraseological and phraseomatic units are set expressions and their phraseological stability distinguishes them from free phrases and compound words.
 - 6) Phraseological and phraseomatic units are made up of words of different degree of wordness depending on the type of set expressions they are used in. Their structural separateness, an important factor of their stability, distinguishes them from compound words (e.g. blackbird and black market). Other aspects of their stability are: stability of use, lexical stability and semantic stability.
 - 7) Stability of use means that set expressions are reproduced ready-made and not created in speech. They are not elements of individual style of speech but language units.
 - 8) Lexical stability means that the components of set expressions are either irreplaceable or partially replaceable within the bounds of phraseological and phraseomatic variance:
 - Lexical (e.g.: skeleton in the cupboard = a skeleton in the closet);
 - Grammatical (e.g.: to be in deep water = to be in deep waters);
 - Positional (e.g.: head over ears = over head and ears);
 - Quantitative (e.g.: to lead somebody a dance = to lead somebody a pretty dance);
 - Mixed variants (e.g.: raise (stir up) a hornet's nest about one's ears = arouse (stir up) the nest of hornets).
- Semantic stability is based on the lexical stability of set expressions. Even when occasional changes are introduced the meaning of set expressions is preserved. In spite of all occasional changes phraseological and phraseomatic units remain

semantically invariant or are destroyed . We think we can represent all these ideas, concerning classification, in the following scheme:

Scheme 2

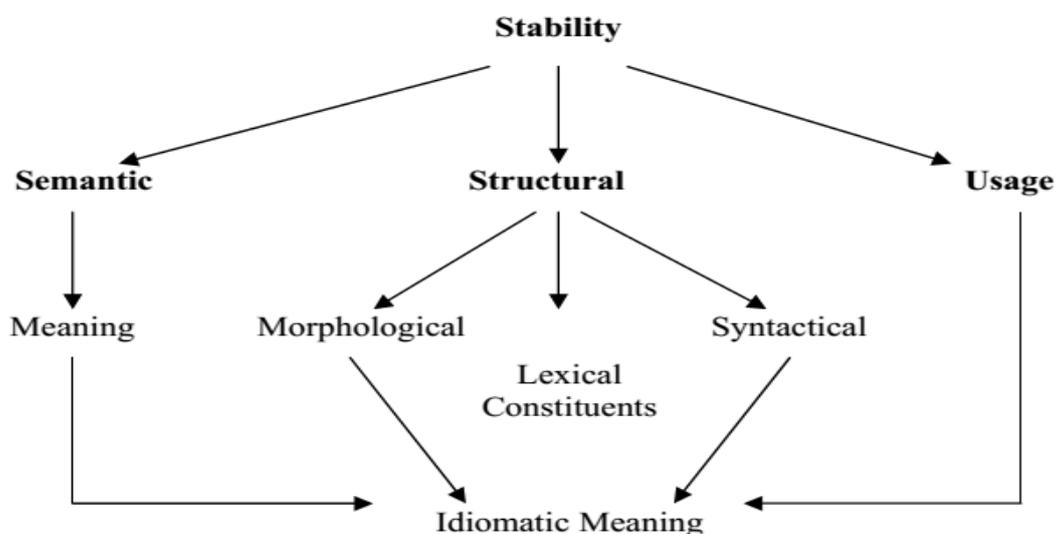


There are two main theoretical Russian schools treating the problems of the English phraseology classification- that of N.N. Amosova and A.V. Koonin. In the next that follows we shall try to give some guiding principles of each of the authors.

According to the theory of N.N. Amosova, a phraseological unit is a unit of constant context. It is a stable combination of words in which either one of the components has a phraseologically bound meaning (a phraseme: white lie= an innocent lie), or the meaning of each component is weakened, or entirely lost (an idiom: red tape; mare's nest = nonsense).

The theory of A.V. Koonin is based on the concept of specific stability at the phraseological level; phraseological units are characterized by a certain minimum of phraseological stability. As we can see, A.V. Koonin distinguishes stability of usage, structural and semantic stability, stability of meaning and lexical constituents, morphological stability and syntactical stability. The degree of stability may vary so that there are several "limits" of stability. But whatever the degree of stability might be, it is the idiomatic meaning that makes the characteristic feature of a phraseological unit. We may represent Koonin's theory schematically in the following way¹⁰:

Scheme 3



¹⁰ Кунин А.В. Фразеология современного английского языка. - Москва: Межд. отношения, 1972. 13, p.175-181

To come back to the classification suggested by Amosova N.N.¹¹, we have also to mention that this linguist divided phraseological combinations into:

1) Phrasemes (a unit of constant context, always binary, one element has a phraseologically bound meaning, the other determines the context); e.g.: serious money= a vogue phraseme of the 1980s, a decade in which money was considered even more important than it usually is. It has survived into the present decade and means money in considerable quantities, as “You would get a stake in that company only if you had serious money to invest, and there is serious money to invest, and there is serious money to be made in the antiques trade”.

2) Idioms (are structures in which a new meaning is created by the whole). e.g.: to go by the board= to manage without, often used in the sense of sacrificing everything to one purpose.

We consider that a minus of this theory is that fixed units of integral predicative structure are not included in phraseology (proverbs and sayings). And as to the classification concerning the integrity of meaning promoted by Koonin A.V. we may distinguish three different classes:

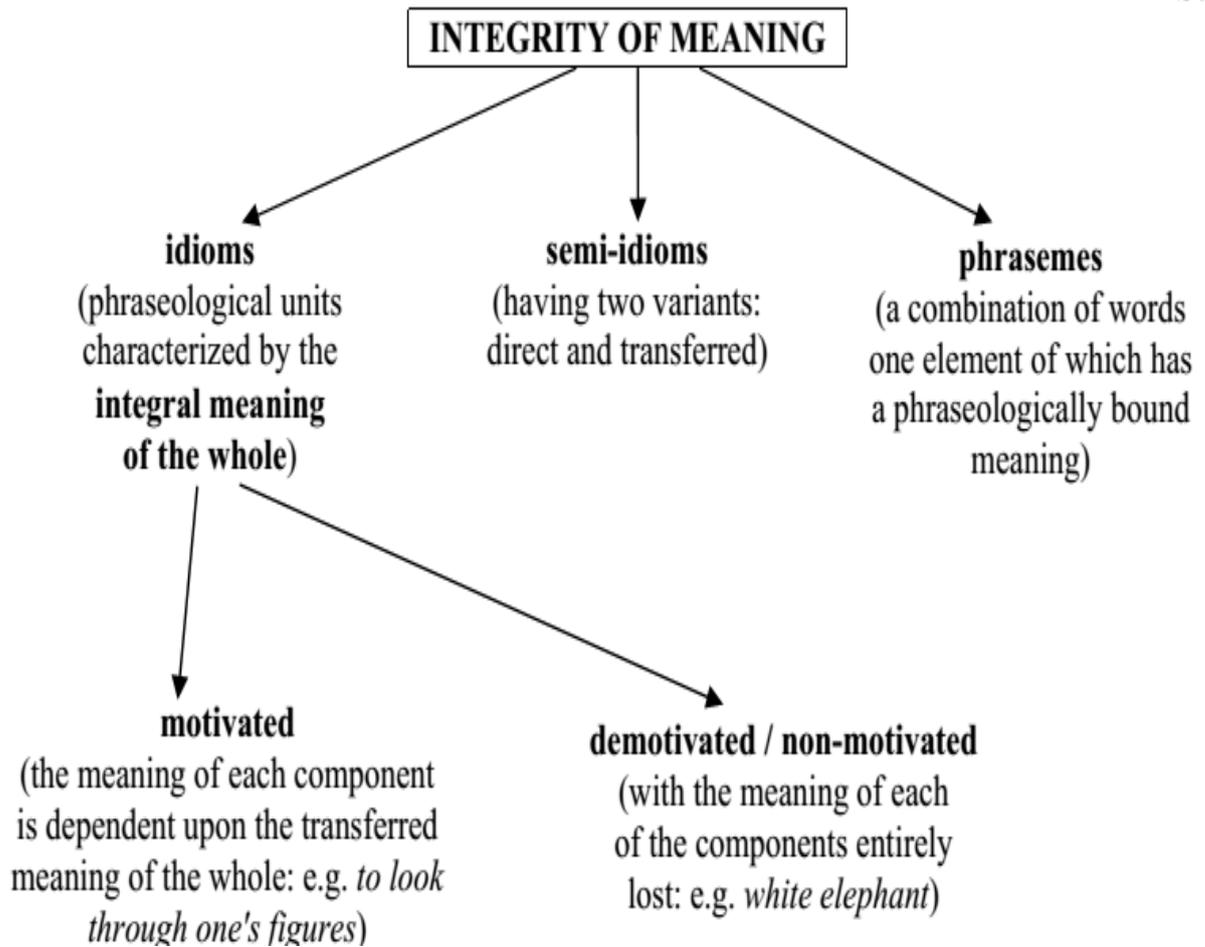
1) Idioms (phraseological units proper or idioms, e.g. fixed collocations of lexemes motivated and nonmotivated);

2) Semi-idioms (idiom-phrasemes), (set expressions having two variants – direct and transferred/indirect);

3) Phrasemes (phraseomatic units of non-idiomatic character, with complex meaning): e.g: to go to sleep= to sleep.

Schematically it can be represented in the following way:

¹¹ Амосова Н.Н. Основы английской фразеологии. Л.:ЛГУ, 1961 с 207



We have mentioned A.I. Smirnitkiy's classification and finally we are to add that it is divided into two elements¹²:

- a) Phraseological units (stylistically neutral expressions deprived of their metaphoricity or that lost it): e.g. to get up, to fall in love;
- b) Idioms (transfer of meaning, based on a metaphor): e.g. to burn the candle on both ends, to take the bull by the horns, etc.

As a conclusion we can underline the fact that the term phraseology has come to be used for the whole ensemble of expressions where the meaning of one element is dependent on the other, irrespective of the structure and properties of the unit (V.V. Vinogradov); with other authors it denotes only such set expressions which, as distinguished from idioms, do not possess expressiveness or emotional

¹² Смирницкий А.И. Лексикология английского языка. - Москва: Изд. лит. на иностр. яз., 1956.

colouring (A.I. Smirnitskiy), and also vice versa: only those that are imaginative, expressive and emotional (I.V. Arnold). A.V. Koonin lays stress on the structural separateness of the elements in a phraseological unit, on the change of meaning in the whole as compared with its elements taken separately and on a certain minimum stability. Phraseological units give colour to any language and it is useful to know them better for understanding and using them correctly and maybe because there is so much idiomaticity in every language, English especially.

Halliday's approach taken towards specific functions performed by idiomatic expressions is relevant for the topic of this paper because his ideational idiomatic expressions include idioms with headwords denoting colour terms. But before we turn to the discussion of Halliday's classification¹³, let us survey what other scholars have to say on the topic of functions of idioms.

Newmark states that an idiom is a kind of 'extended' metaphor and the purpose of metaphor is basically twofold: referential and pragmatic. The referential purpose is to describe a mental process or state, a concept, a person, an object, a quality or an action more comprehensively and concisely than is possible in literal or physical language.

The pragmatic purpose, on the other hand, is to "appeal to the senses, to interest, to please, to delight, to surprise. The first purpose is cognitive, whereas the second is aesthetic". The expressive function is considered to be the most important function of idioms.

In communication, most idioms indicate the speaker's evaluation or attitude to a specific situation or event. In fact, idioms are used to convey attitudes more often than to convey purely factual information. Cowie distinguishes three subcategories of idioms which reflect the user's unfavorable or frivolous attitude towards the people, events, etc. which they denote:

¹³ Halliday, M.A.K. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Arnold, 1994. Print. -p 45

- (a) idioms which express irritation, anger or a “violently abusive or dismissive attitude to others”;
- (b) idioms which connote a derogatory or contemptuous attitude towards the persons or things denoted;
- (c) idioms which convey a humorous or lightly mocking attitude to the people or things they denote.

On the whole, as Glaser claims, “the wide range of emotive undertones conveyed by idioms encompasses such connotations as derogatory, euphemistic, humorous and ironic”. These features can be treated as the most important functions of idioms. In general, idioms perform a wide range of functions within a text, but the emotive-expressive function is the most important.

In his research, Fernando points out that “Strassler’s study is treated as the first major work to appear on the functions of idioms, where he took into consideration a number of socially significant factors such as social status, age, education, and profession”. However, Fernando makes a strong claim that the three language functions identified by Halliday and their relation to idiomaticity are more accurate than Strassler’s description. A brief survey of Halliday’s distinction between interpersonal, relational and ideational idiomatic expressions is presented below¹⁴.

(1) Interpersonal idiomatic expressions

According to Halliday, “interpersonal idioms fulfill an interactional function”¹⁵. He further explains that interpersonal idiomatic expressions are overtly and covertly marked for interaction, most commonly in terms of you, I, and me. Consider the following examples:

- Literal idioms: Believe (you) me. I would not worry.
- Semi-literal idioms: Are you deaf? Are you blind?
- Pure idioms: Has the cat got your tongue? It’s raining cats and dogs.

¹⁴ Halliday, M.A.K. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Arnold, 1994. Print.-p-45

¹⁵ Fernando, C. *Idioms and Idiomaticity*. London: Penguin Books, 1996. Print. p- 73

According to Halliday, “such expressions are discourse oriented as they imply preceding context even as citation items, e.g. the question is..., a good question (semi-idioms), That’s true, as I said before (literal idioms), etc. Halliday also points out that interpersonal idiomatic expressions “contribute to structuring talk so that a coherent organization is discernible in different sorts of talk” Consider the following examples:

- Beginning: Hi, how are you?
- Body of discourse: By the way...
- End: See you later!

Interpersonal idiomatic expressions fulfill two functions: either interactional through expressing greetings and farewells (good morning), directives (let’s face it), agreement (you are telling me), eliciting opinions (what do you think), and rejections (come off it), or they characterize the message; as such, they have very important pragmatic functions in a language.

(2) Relational idiomatic expressions

The main function of relational idiomatic expressions is the connective one; they are helpful in achieving both cohesion and coherence within a given text. Moreover, they help to make the semantic unity of a discourse more explicit. According to Fernando, “they can be grouped along with conjunctions such as for example, and, but, or, so, because, if, etc. as having textual function. Moreover, they might be categorized into those which integrate information and those which sequence information”. Integrative expressions are as follows:

- (a) adversative: on the contrary, far from, etc.
- (b) comparison: on the one hand, on the other hand, etc.
- (c) causal: so that when, the more X...the more Y, no wonder, etc.
- (d) concessive: at the same time, etc.
- (e) addition: in addition, what is more, etc.

Sequencing is presented in the following way:

- (a) sequencing meta-discoursal information, e.g. in the first place, last but not least, etc.

(b) sequencing temporal information, e.g. one day, a long time ago, up to now, etc.¹⁶ Distinctly different from the above described interpersonal idioms, Halliday's relational idioms guarantee cohesion and coherence of the discourse.

(3) Ideational idiomatic expressions

According to Fernando, ideational idioms signify the content of the message which includes

- actions (mess about with),
- events (have blood on one's hand),
- situations (be in a pickle), people and things (a man about town),
- attributes (as green as grass),
- evaluations (turn back the clock) and
- emotions (green with envy).

Halliday's ideational idioms are also called "the state and way of the world idioms" because such idioms signify the content of the message or characterize the nature of the message they convey. Halliday describes them as "packages of information of varying degrees of complexity functioning as mini-commentaries on the world as its phenomena"¹⁷. These idioms most often occur in informal speech or journalism, but rarely or never in academic discourse, which is rather formal. In general, ideational idioms are high in information value and useful because of their functional perspective.

While Halliday's distinction of interpersonal idioms have very important pragmatic functions in language and his relational idioms ensure both cohesion and coherence within a discourse, his ideational idioms are useful because of their functional perspective.

Furthermore from the functional point of view idioms can be classified into:

1) Verbal idioms (functioning like verbs): *to talk through one's hat, die with one's boots on, lick someone's boots, fit like a glove.*

¹⁶ Fernando, C. Idioms and Idiomacity. London: Penguin Books, 1996. Print. P- 74

¹⁷ Fernando, C. Idioms and Idiomacity. London: Penguin Books, 1996. Print. P- 243

2) Substantive phraseological units (functioning like nouns): *Fur coat and no knickers, Kid gloves, All hat, no cattle, etc.*

3) Adjective phraseological units (functioning like adjectives) *Hot under the collar, Old hat, Soft shoe, etc.* The most expressive are comparative phraseological units: *Bright as a button, Cute as a button, Tough as old boots, (as) mad as a hatter.*

4) Adverbial phraseological units (functioning like adverbs): *on a shoestring, out of your own pocket, Under someone's heel, Under your belt, On pins and needles*

5) Interjectional phraseological units (выполняющие роль междометия): *Keep your shirt on!, Keep your wig on!*

So from the functional point of view idioms can be classified into: verbal idioms (functioning like verbs), substantive idioms (functioning like nouns), adjective idioms (functioning like adjectives), adverbial idioms (functioning like adverbs) and interjectional idioms.

CHAPTER II. THE STUDY OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS BASED ON METAPHORICAL COMPONENTS.

1.2 The Notion of Cognitive Metaphor

Metaphors have been studied for a long time. And since ancient times there have been many attempts to define this term. Metaphor can be defined as «*a figure of speech in which an implied comparison is made between two unlike things that actually have something in common*». There is one more definition of metaphor – “*a figure of speech in which a word or phrase is applied to an object or action that it does not literally denote in order to imply a resemblance, for example he is a lion in battle*” (Literary & Literary Critical Terms). With the development of cognitive linguistics new notions came to existence. One of new terms in Cognitive Linguistics is “Cognitive Metaphor”. The theory of Cognitive Metaphor was suggested by George Lakoff and Mark Johnson. They were the first to pay special attention to this phenomenon; they viewed cognitive metaphor from different angle. Nowadays many researchers study cognitive metaphor, its characteristics and types. Among them we may mention names of such famous scholars as M. Black, A. Richards, E. S. Kubryakova, Jose Ortega y Gasset, E. McCormack and many others. Cognitive Metaphor is one of the fundamental processes of human cognition, a specific way of conceptualizing reality based on the mental process of analogy and knowledge transfer from one conceptual field into another (Ashurova). At present cognitive metaphor is regarded not just a stylistic device, but a tool of cognition. We perceive the world around us through and with the help of cognitive metaphors. We may find support of cognitive metaphor in the analysis of texts, cultural practices and social events and even in films. Cognitive metaphors help us interpret texts, we may understand the author’s message (explicit or implicit) with the help of this device. Lakoff and Johnson claim that the whole human’s cognition is based on metaphor, which means that we compare all

our knowledge about the world and represent it with the help of other more simple notions or concepts. We can perceive metaphorically almost everything: people, situations even places. The biggest effect of cognitive metaphor on human's cognition is structuring. As it has already been mentioned, cognitive metaphors help us understand one concept or idea in terms of another and we structure the target domain according to definite processes the same as in cognitive metaphor.

It is also crucial to mention the theory of Conceptual blending. It helped to make further research in the field of Cognitive Metaphor. Conceptual blending is also called conceptual integration. It was developed by Gilles Fauconnier and Mark Turner. This theory suggests that elements of different mental fields are mixed "blended" and as a result it influences people's thinking and cognition processes.

Let's take an example provided by George Lakoff and Mark Johnson: "argument is war". They support with different examples, such as:

Your claims are indefensible.

He attacked every weak point in my argument.

His criticisms were right on the target.

I demolished his argument.

I have never won an argument with him.

You disagree? Okay, shoot!

If you use that strategy, he will wipe you out.

He shot down all of my arguments.

These examples are common in speech although we rarely think about them as cognitive metaphors. Cognitive metaphor "argument is war" is a very good example to discuss. While arguing with someone we really see argument as a war:

our interlocutor is our enemy; our arguments or ideas are our warriors; if our idea is strong we win the battle, if it is weak we lose the battle; if we understand that our point is incorrect or weak we give up.

However, in some cases while analyzing one idea in terms of another we highlight one aspect and hide another aspect of that idea. For example, while comparing argument to a war, we highlight the idea of contradiction or disagreement, but we forget the idea that argument is also cooperation. While arguing we spend our time, we try to express our point of view- these actions are not constituents of war, but on the contrary we show our sympathy and wish to cooperate.

According to this example we can say that cognitive metaphors help us understand some phenomena in terms of others.

Let's take one more cognitive metaphor to prove the idea that cognitive metaphors are part of one's cognition. Cognitive Metaphor "*time is money*" can be presented by a multitude of examples:

You are wasting my time.

This gadget will save you hours.

I don't have the time to give you.

How do you spend, your time these days?

That flat tire cost me an hour.

I've invested a lot of time in her.

You're run/ling out of time.

You need to budget your time.

Is that worth your while?

Do you have much time left?

You don't use your time profitably.

I lost a lot of time when I got sick.

Nowadays time is a valuable thing that we all need and lack. We can count time: decades, years, months, days, hours, minutes and even seconds. People get salaries according to the time they work, that is why cognitive metaphor “*time is money*” is also one of widely-spread ones. However, from the point of view of religion or philosophy it is not always so. For them money is something not worth so much effort; they see inner balance as the main essence of life. However, today’s consumerist society lives according to the idea that “*time is money*”.

As it was mentioned above cognitive metaphors help us understand some phenomena of our life with the help of the mechanism of analogy. In cognitive metaphor “*argument is war*” there are two general ideas, which are called domains: source domain and target domain. The first idea, more abstract is usually called target domain and the second, more concrete- source domain. In the given cognitive metaphor “*argument*” is target domain and “*war*” is source domain, which explains target domain. In the second example “*time is money*”, “*time*” is target domain and “*money*” is source domain.

Probably the most well-known example of cognitive metaphor explained by Lakoff and Johnson in their book “*Metaphors we live by*” is “*love is a journey*”. Target domain in this cognitive metaphor is “*love*” and source domain is “*journey*”. There are numerous expressions used by people that illustrate this cognitive metaphor:

Look how far we have come.

It has been a long, bumpy road.

We can't turn back now.

We are at a crossroads.

We may have to go our separate ways.

The relationship is not going anywhere.

We are spinning our wheels.

Our relationship is off the track.

The marriage is on the rocks.

We may have to bail out of this relationship.

If we imagine that love is a journey or a travel and people who have relationship are travelers, while having relationship, many people have problems that are impediments on their way (*bumpy road, we are at a crossroads*) or they break apart (*we may have to go our separate ways; we may have to bail out of this relationship*) and at the end they may either finish their travel successfully or do not reach their destination, which means to split up.

There is another sense in the metaphor "*love is a journey*". People can travel on highways or freeways, where the traffic is too fast and dangerous; so is a love relationship sometimes. Love can be dangerous and exciting and at the same time short, it even can be dangerous. There is one more part of a language system, that needs to be mentioned idioms. Idioms are very helpful for expression of cognitive metaphors. If any idiom is considered as non-motivated, it might be used in its direct meaning when it is studied from the point of view of cognitive metaphors. Let's take idiom "*spinning one's wheels*" as an example. When one hears this idiom, he or she may imagine a situation when a car is stuck, but the driver still tries to pull the car, although it is useless and there is no sense in doing this. But at

the same time this idiom can be used as cognitive metaphor “*love is a journey*”- when a couple has problems but they still try hard to save their relationship, not understanding that sometimes it is better to stop and leave it as it is. From this point of view this expression is quite explicit and understandable for the reader. Max Black, another prominent researcher, suggested “*interaction theory*” according to which cognitive metaphor “projects a set of associated implications from a primary subject upon a secondary subject”. As a result the reader or hearer will understand the secondary object through the primary one. Black gives the following example: “*the sky is crying*”- as tears are always associated with crying, we project it to the rain and as a result we construct a cognitive metaphor “*sky is a person*”. He also says that we should not see the subjects as independent elements, but on the contrary, we should view them as a system of interrelated elements, that create systems and interact with each other.

Although George Lakoff and Mark Johnson were the pioneers in the field of cognitive metaphor theory there are many other prominent scholars in this field. One of them Elena Semino, criticized them, saying that the examples they suggest are artificial and are created to support their theory of cognitive metaphor not appropriate for deep and versatile analysis. As a result, Andrew Goatly created a database- *Melatude*, for cognitive metaphors that exist in the language. Goatly in his work wants to identify how cognitive metaphors shape our behavior and thinking patterns in various aspects of life, from education to genetics. Moreover, he proves that cognitive metaphors are created with the help of cultural experience. *Melatude* is a database of metaphors with direct, metaphorical and grammatical meanings and examples. Although there are already existing dictionaries of metaphors, *Melatude* is a different one, because it takes into account lexicographical approach as well, but not only cognitive. It consists of 6 columns that represent categories of Targets and 4 that represent categories of Sources. The Target categories are: 1) Values, Quantities and Qualities

2) Emotions, Experiences and Relationships

3) Thinking and Speaking

4) Activity and Movement

5) Humans, Humans Senses and Society

6) Things and Substances

The Source categories are: A) Things and Substances (Objects, plants, Substances, Money, Liquid, Food)

B) Human Body, Animals and Senses

C) Activity and Movement

D) Place and Space.

Some cognitive structures are called “*natural*”. They are those concepts that are connected with natural experience, such as love, time, ideas, understanding, arguments, labor, happiness, health, control, status and morality. Although Lakoff and Johnson did not discuss cognitive metaphor in connection with culture, but it is clear that these two notions are interconnected. It is impossible to analyze cognitive metaphor separately from the cultural context. It has always been considered that anything of a big size (a living creature or inanimate object) is more important or valuable than that of a smaller size. Let’s take a proverb “*a great ship needs deep waters*”. It means that a big project, for example, will be given more opportunities and support, as it can bring more benefit. That is why we consider that “*Big*” is something good, while “*Small*” is not.

Any cognitive metaphor may have different abstract meanings, but if we talk about practical implementation of a metaphor, the meaning of a cognitive metaphor will be restricted only to pragmatic meaning.

One of the main functions of cognitive metaphors is to explain. And it is really true. Cognitive metaphors are frequently used to create an example to something less familiar with the help of more familiar notions or phenomena. With the help of cognitive metaphors we may define something new, such as complex events, different cultures, unexpected situations and emotive experiences. And Lakoff and Johnson agree with this idea. They write: “*metaphor is one of our most important tools for trying to comprehend partially what cannot be comprehended totally*”.

One more important notion that is connected with cognitive metaphor is “*metaphor cluster*”. Cluster is a group of expressions that are connected to one conceptual metaphor and are used in one text. If we take cognitive metaphor “*Time is money*”, all words and phrases, used to form this metaphor will constitute metaphor cluster: “*waste, save, hour, spend, cost an hour, invest, budget, etc.*”

Cognitive metaphors unite two seeming absolutely different ideas: they are more or less regular and conventional and at the same time they are creative and original. Cognitive metaphors are restricted to some definite examples, but we may find numerous expressions that prove this cognitive metaphor and some of them may be unique or created by the speaker during his/her speech.

2.3 Typology of idioms on the base cognitive metaphor.

With the development of the study of Cognitive Metaphor, the problem of typology of Cognitive Metaphor became one of the most important. Several linguists provided their typology of cognitive metaphors. Classification of George Lakoff and Mark Johnson is among the most famous ones. They suggest three types of Cognitive Metaphors: *structural*, *orientational* and *ontological*. Let's discuss them in more details.

1. Structural Cognitive Metaphor.

This type is sometimes called the *Conduit Metaphor*. Describing Conduit Cognitive Metaphor Lakoff and Johnson state that while speaking, the speaker transfers information into the words, sends them to the interlocutor and the interlocutor removes these ideas from the words he/she hears or receives. However, sometimes it is quite difficult to distinguish Structural Cognitive Metaphor from Conduit Cognitive Metaphor. Examples of Structural or Conduit Cognitive Metaphor may serve the following expressions:

I gave you that idea.

Your reasons came through to us.

It's difficult to put my ideas into words.

When you have a good idea, try to capture it immediately in words.

The meaning is right there in the words.

Don't force your meanings into the wrong words.

His words carry little meaning.

Metaphor if it is not used in some context. If we take sentence “*Please sit in the apple-juice seat*”- we shall not understand it, moreover, we shall think that there is no sense in this sentence. But if we imagine a situation that at the table there were four places and for three people there were glasses with orange juice and one seat with a glass with an apple juice, in this context we may understand the meaning of this utterance. Or, another example: if we take a phrase: “*We need new alternative sources of energy*”, different people understand it differently. For example an Oil Company Director and representative of Green Peace Organization. So, in cognitive metaphor, and in structural especially not only the meaning is important, but also the situation, when and how it was told.

2. Orientational Cognitive Metaphor

This type of Cognitive Metaphor is connected with the orientation in space: left-right; good-bad; deep-shallow; in-out; front-back. This type of metaphor depends on the culture of people: for some people right is good and left is bad, but in some countries it may be different and in that situation everything connected with left will be considered good, but all concepts and phenomena of life connected with right will be bad. One of the most well-known Orientational Cognitive Metaphors is “*Happy is Up; Sad is down*”:

I'm feeling up.

That boosted my spirits.

My spirits rose.

You're in high spirits.

Thinking about her always gives me a lift.

I fell into a depression.

I'm feeling down.

I'm depressed.

My spirits sank.

He's really low these days.

And these examples describe the real situation. When a person is happy, he keeps his head high, he straightens, but whenever a person has a problem, he/she is sad and even his posture shows it: shoulders are not straight and he/she may even stoop.

One more example of Orientational Cognitive Metaphor is “*Health and Life are Up, Sickness and Death are Down*”:

He's at the peak of health.

Lazarus rose from the dead.

He's in top shape.

As to his health, he's way up there.

He's sinking fast.

He came down with the flu.

His health is declining.

He dropped dead.

Here, we may see the same situation. When a person is ill he lies in the bed, or if this person dies he also falls, healthy person is on the contrary: active and energetic.

Although sometimes we may observe Orientational Cognitive Metaphor. However, there are some other expressions that show this situation differently. Not so often, but sometimes we come across such phrases that change or widen our perception of some realia: "Happy is wide, sad is narrow". No one looked at "happiness" from this point of view, although it also exists and there are some (but not many) expressions, which may serve as examples:

"I'm feeling expansive".

Although in most cultures "happiness" is associated with "up", which is more common.

Quite often cognitive metaphors widen their usage and may be used in other spheres as well. If we take physics, as an example, we may see such expression as "*high-energy particles*" - this expression is based on Cognitive Metaphor "more is

up", or another expression: "*low-level phonology*"- phonology deals with the smallest units of a language, that is why word "low" is used here.

3. Ontological Cognitive Metaphor

In Ontological Cognitive Metaphors we view one thing in terms of another: "*life is a game*", or "*Inflation is an essence*":

Inflation is lowering our standard of living.

If there's much more inflation, we'll never survive.

We need to combat inflation.

Inflation is backing us into a corner.

Inflation is taking its toll at the checkout counter and the gas pump.

Buying land is the best way of dealing with inflation.

Inflation makes me sick.

All these expressions compare "inflation" an inanimate phenomena to some living creature that "*lowers, backs, makes sick*".

There are also some more examples of Ontological Cognitive Metaphor, such a "*Life is Theatre*", "*Life is a Journey*" or "*Life is a Plant*". Other scientists also provide their classification of Cognitive Metaphors. Kubryakova in her Dictionary of Cognitive Terms gives six types of Cognitive metaphors. Some of them are similar to those of Lakoff and Johnson; however, others are new and have different interpretation.

1. *Structural Cognitive Metaphors*- they are formed by transferring some parts of an object or phenomena to others.

2. *Ontological Cognitive Metaphors*-categorize some abstract things in more concrete by making borders in the space.
3. *Conduit Cognitive Metaphor*– views communication as a process of movement of senses (meaning fills words and then transported by channel that unites the speakers)
4. *Oriental Cognitive Metaphors*- mostly connected with space orientation (up-down, central-peripheral, etc.)
5. *Container Cognitive Metaphor*- it can be describes as follows, words are seen as containers and meaning is that what fills these containers.
6. *Blockbuilding Cognitive Metaphor*- it represents some big speech utterances as a group of smaller ones.

There are also some more classifications of Cognitive Metaphors. Some researchers categorize Cognitive Metaphors according to the sphere of the source domain, for example, there are:

1. *Military*
2. *Vegetative*
3. *Physiological*
4. *Criminal*
5. *Sports*
6. *Zoological*

Let's take a look at some examples of these metaphors:

1. *Cold war, informational war, war with drugs;*
2. *To sow the seeds of dissension, to inculcate habits of work; the extortionate*

budget;

3. At the president's back, to face the problems of the youth; to digest new information;

4. Political swindler; political killers

5. To come to the finish line; move of the knight;

6. Sharks of business; Communism bacilli; socialist parrots;

Chudinov also suggested one more type of cognitive metaphor, which is *political*. He claims that it should be stated separately because politics is a crucial part of our life. Every time a country embarks on a new stage or changes its leader the perception of the whole nation changes as well. He provides several examples, in which a political party is compared to a human body:

Nobody's a more visible face of the opposition than Sen. Ted Cruz, tea party star and potential presidential candidate.

In another example that he gives, Chudinov uses sense organs. He points that a tooth can be compared to a hardness and nose to the ability to acquire new information.

Chudinov points out that Cognitive Metaphors describe our life at some moments. They may show or even warn people about the social situation and some negative aspects of life at this or that moment. People have always valued money. But in the twentieth and twenty first century people started to value time as well, although before people around the world were relaxed and easy-going. But it became a part of life, people started to compare time to money and some time later, this expression became a part of humans' cognition, now most people unite these notions and it reflects present state. And we can say that this Cognitive Metaphor helped people to adapt to new way of living and perceiving of the reality.

Another scholar, Maslova found out that there are some stable metaphors, such as:

World is theatre;

World is a book;

World is a temple;

Love is fire;

Time is water;

Human is a plant

She claimed that these Cognitive Metaphors are the most stable in all languages and cultures.

2.3. The idiom analysis within the theory of conceptual metaphor.

In this part we deal with the role of cognitive heuristics in idiom analysis. The first set of questions to be answered is: How far does conceptual metaphor explain the specifics of idiom semantics? What level of analysis has to be chosen to achieve most efficient results? The second set of questions deals with the role of cultural knowledge for processing idioms. Can the relevant motivating links be explicated without addressing cultural phenomena? Or does their explication (at least in some cases) require addressing people's cultural experiences?

It is evident that subsuming all possible metaphorical expressions of different languages under the same conceptual metaphor would be an important step of linguistic analysis. It would enable us to compare idioms with other kinds of metaphorical expressions and enlarge the explanatory basis. For example, expressions like *to be down*, *to be low* on the one hand and *to be beaten to the*

ground on the other all going back to the conceptual metaphor *sad/unhappy is down* are analysed separately in the framework of traditional lexicology because of their different status in the taxonomy of lexical units. The cognitive approach allows us to put taxonomic differences aside and semantically and pragmatically analyse related lexical units across boundaries between taxonomic classes. Compare, for example, the following metaphorical expressions based on the conceptual metaphor, *Difficulties are impediments to motion*

to drive someone into a corner;

to put a spoke in someone's wheel;

in a bind;

in a fix;

in a jam;

up the creek (without a paddle);

in queer street;

with one's back to the wall;

there is no way out;

between a rock and a hard place;

caught in a cleft stick; encirclement; bottleneck; logjam; strait

Clusters like these provide a good basis for semantic analysis. From this point of view, the idea of conceptual metaphor as cognitive foundation for different linguistic expressions is an efficient instrument of analysis, both within one language and cross-linguistically. On the other hand, it is obvious that we need a more sensitive tool of analysis than conceptual metaphor for explaining fine grained semantic differences between the expressions listed under .

Idioms and other metaphorical expressions based on the same conceptual metaphor often reveal semantic differences that cannot be explained on the basis of rather abstract metaphoric models. There are idioms that belong to the same conceptual metaphor and nevertheless display specific semantic features.

Thus, even though *spill the beans*, *let the cat out of the bag*, *blow the lid off*, and *blow the whistle* each roughly mean ‘to reveal a secret’, there exists some convention such that *spill the beans* might be appropriate to use in situations where a person is revealing some personal information about someone else, while *blow the lid off* might be used to talk of revealing secrets about, say, governmental corruption.

The two idioms *spill the beans* and *blow the lid off* activate the same two conceptual metaphors at the same time, namely *Mind is container* and *Ideas are physical entities*, so an explanation for the above-mentioned differences in meaning has to be looked for in another domain. It is obvious that these differences are caused by mental images corresponding to the idioms under consideration. *Spill the beans* evokes the image of an accidental, non-intentional action, whereas *blow the lid off* involves associations with an active role of an observer who makes certain efforts to look into a container where some secret processes are going on. Therefore, the explanatory power of metaphorical models increases if the corresponding source domains are oriented towards the basic level of categorization rather than formulated in abstract terms like *container* or *physical entities*. This does not contradict Lakoff’s postulate that mappings from a source domain to a target domain “are at the superordinate level rather than the basic level”. For the description of semantic properties of idioms inherited from the image structure, the level of primary conceptualisation, where rich mental images can be found, is more important than the superordinate level, which is suitable for relevant generalization.

Another example of the relevance of “rich images” for the semantic description of metaphorical expressions can be taken from the conceptual domain presented

under. As the most salient feature of figurative language is its image component, the traces of the literal meaning inherited by the figurative meaning, and not only the conceptual mapping at the superordinate level of categorisation, have to be taken into account; *(caught) between a rock and a hard place* ‘in a very difficult position; facing a hard decision’

The explanation of the meaning given here is not sufficient because it neither involves the images connected with the individual constituents nor the metaphor as a whole. The constituent *rock*, as well as *hard place*, evokes an image of something very solid, heavy, and immovable that hurts when one attempts to remove it, etc. The underlying literal reading i.e. the source concept, on the other hand, is to be described as ‘lack of freedom of movement’. When mapped on the target concept ‘difficult position’, idiom appears as a realization of the well-known conceptual metaphor *Difficulties are impediment to motion*. Still it is intuitively clear that this idiom cannot be substituted by any other English expression belonging to this metaphoric model.

The concrete image fixed in the lexical structure of presupposes that the subject finds himself/herself in a situation where he/she has to choose between two possibilities which both entail difficulties and failure. Therefore, idiom should be defined as ‘facing a situation of choice between two possibilities that both entail difficulties and failure, as if the person pursuing his/her goals was not able to move away freely’.

This definition seems to be more appropriate not only than the definition given but also than the following definitions, which are more elaborate than first one. ‘in a difficult situation in which any choice that you make will have bad results’¹⁸ ‘in a situation where one is faced with two equally difficult or unpleasant alternatives’¹⁹ ‘nothing to choose between two difficult situations’.²⁰

¹⁸ Longman ID, 1998, page 286

¹⁹ Oxford ID, 1999, page 297

²⁰ Penguin DEI, 2001, page 17

Although the definitions point to the fact that an important part of the meaning of this idiom is the existence of a choice between different ways to manage a situation, they do not take the image component itself into account, which provides relevant links between the lexical form of the idiom and its actual meaning. This example shows the importance of developing an efficient metalanguage for describing the semantics of figurative lexical units in contrast to non-figurative ones, which would include discriminating semantically related figurative units that are based on the same conceptual metaphor, but reveal fine grained image-dependent specific features.

The presence of the idea of choice between two possibilities, both of which are perceived as disadvantageous for the subject, as well as the image-based reference to a 'lack of freedom of movement' can be exemplified by the following contexts taken from the British National Corpus.

She wanted to scream the words back at him, but they log-jammed in her throat. To reveal the truth would be to render herself still more vulnerable to him, and she couldn't allow that to happen. But the alternative – to have him believing her poor showing had been caused by drugs, was equally untenable. She was *caught between a rock and a hard place* – with no obvious way out.

If you produce the right designs I'll use them. And be only too happy to give you full credit." He paused. "But, if you fail, I'll show no mercy. You can absolutely bank on that." That scarcely needed saying. Lisa felt a chill go through her. Suddenly she was *caught between a rock and a hard place*. "So, I would advise you", he added, nodding at her folder, "to make a bonfire with those sketches and start again from scratch."

But if this is what love does to you, it's perhaps just as well you've never suffered from the malady before." Rory shook her head, sending her long wheat-coloured curls tumbling about her face. "Don't be ridiculous", she said adamantly, then bit her lip. She was *caught between a rock and a hard place* here, she realised

with grim humour. Since Adam had been monopolising practically all her time, she couldn't protest her dislike of him too vehemently. Candy would pounce on that like a terrier, demanding to know why she didn't just tell him to get lost. But she'd given her promise, albeit with great reluctance, not to confide the truth to her friend.

In all these examples, the idiom *between a rock and a hard place* means more than just 'in a very difficult position', revealing additional semantic components that can be traced back to the mental image captured in the lexical structure of the idiom. The necessity of taking mental images into account results from the fact that the figurative component not only has a connotative potential that modifies relevant imaginative associations of speakers but also affects the meaning and usage of idioms.

In general, the conceptual mapping from source domain onto target domain is only one of the tools of cognitive semantics. What conceptual metaphor can contribute to idiom analysis is, above all, provide a semantically structured empirical basis for investigating into both intra- and cross-linguistic specifics of figurative language. Especially promising is the possibility to compare idioms with other kinds of metaphorical expressions, on the one hand, and to structure semantic fields according to metaphoric models, on the other. However, the semantic analysis proper requires a much more detailed description of mental images underlying the actual meaning of idioms. Among the main tasks of a cognitively based theory of idioms are, firstly, a description of all fine-grained differences between near-synonymous idioms both within one language and cross linguistically, and secondly, an explanation of these differences in terms of conceptual structures. The question is to what extent the specific features of meaning and usage can be traced back to the mental imagery. Are relevant constraints due to the usage only, or can they be explained in terms of knowledge structures fixed in the lexical form of idioms? A semantic theory that does not respond to these needs cannot be considered an adequate tool for describing

idioms. Thus, the most efficient results of an analysis of idiom semantics can be expected at the level of rich mental images and rich knowledge structure, and not at the superordinate level of conceptual mapping.

Metaphors as motivational basis of figurative units show different levels of abstraction. Let us consider idioms like *to split hairs* or *to throw the baby out with the bath (water)*. The relevant motivating link is provided at the basic level of rich images, evoked by the lexical structure of the idioms. One could picture the situations to oneself, when someone behaves or acts *as if* he was splitting hairs, or *as if* he was throwing the baby out with the bath water, the images serving as bases of inference. An abstract metaphorical correspondence in the sense of conceptual metaphors at the superordinate level can hardly be formulated in these cases. In contrast, an idiom like *to be slow on the uptake* ‘to lack the ability of understanding quickly, especially of understanding something new’ provides motivating links at rather an abstract level and does not involve “rich imagery” of any kind. To process this idiom one has to access the conceptual metaphor *Understanding grasping*. In other cases, however, both the basic and the superordinate level of metaphor can contribute to the motivation of an idiom.

2.4. Metaphorical idioms as an inevitable part of human speech and their purpose.

Language is a wonderful thing. Its semantic sphere encodes all available knowledge about the history, culture, habits and ways of a particular nation. This information is expressed through language means, mostly words and phrases. The latter, especially idioms, possess the highest cultural value as they are flesh of the flesh of the national culture.

Idioms are terms which require some foundational knowledge, information, or experience, to use only within a common culture where parties must have common reference. As cultures are typically localized, idioms are more often not useful for communication outside of that local context. However, some idioms can be more universally used than others, and they can be easily translated, or their metaphorical meaning can be more easily deduced.

The most common idioms can have deep roots, traceable across many languages. *To have blood on one's hands* is a familiar example, whose meaning is obvious. Many have translations in their languages, some of which are direct.

Many idioms are in fact colloquial metaphors. According to Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary metaphors are figures of speech in which a name or descriptive term is transferred to some object different from, but analogous to, that in which it is properly applicable. I.A. Richards quoting from Aristotle's Poetics said that the greatest thing by far is to have a command of metaphor and he defined it as a shift carrying over a word from its normal use to a new one. In a sense metaphor, the shift of a word, is occasioned and justified by a similarity or analogy between the object it is usually applied to and the new object .

While many idioms are clearly based in conceptual metaphors such as "*time as a substance*", "*time as a path*", "*love as war*" or "*up is more*", the idioms themselves are often not particularly essential, even when the metaphors themselves are. For example "*spend time*", "*battle of the sexes*", and "*back in the day*" are idiomatic and based on essential metaphors.

There are some more examples for idioms that possess metaphorical meaning. For example, when speaker says

Criticism is a branding iron,

she does not literally mean that criticism is a tool to mark livestock. Rather, the speaker intends this utterance to have some figurative meaning along the lines that

criticism can psychologically hurt the person who receives it, often with long-lasting consequences.

Sally is a block of ice,

means Sally is and extremely unemotional and unresponsive person.

I have climbed to the top of the greasy pole- I have after great difficult become prime minister;

Richard is a gorilla- Richard is fierce, nasty, and prone to vilonce;

Encouragement is giving someone a drug- it was very encouraging as made someone to do something important;

Accepting something is eating it- made someone feel very disgusting;

Affection is the heat- to be deeply in love with someone;

Optimism is light- to remain very optimistic in difficult situations;

Control is grasping- to start doing well;

Love is magic-used to describe something that makes people easily fall in love;

Broken heart- your heart is not literally broken into pieces, you just feel hurt and sad;

Time is a thief- time is not really stealing anything, this idiom just indicates that time passes quickly and our lives pass us by;

He is the apple of my eye- there is, of course, no real apple in a person's eye. The apple is someone beloved and held dears;

Sea of grief- here also how and where does one come across a sea that is filled not with water, but with grief? Of course not;

Fishing- it is not used to mean that the person is actually fishing, it is an expression which is used to signify that the person is looking for something that is difficult to obtain;

Inflamed your temper- the news inflamed your temper is not a situation where there is any actual fire or flames, it is just a situation where someone gets mad;

To feel blue – to look /feel depressed or disconnected. Blue is associated with gloom and depression in such expression as having the blues, feeling blue, a fit of the blues;

My dreams are flowers to which you are a bee –used to describe someone who is dear and close;

Words are the weapons with which we wound- resemblance of words we use into weapons as they affect ourselves also;

Kisses are the flowers of love in bloom – metaphorical idiom that describes something very sweet and special;

Her hope was a fragile seed- used to describe as something that is very easily broken and temporary;

Laughter is the music of the soul- laughter always makes people feel happy and that's way it's the music of the soul;

He pleaded for her forgiveness but Janet's heart was cold iron- Janet's heart doesn't want to forgive her, doesn't melt her heart and that's why resembled into a cold iron.

Expressions are used to give effect to a statement. Imagine how bland a statement such as “he was sad” is, compared to a statement describing a “sea of grief.” The metaphor is sure to give the reader a better idea of the depths of grief in this situation.

Similarly, who would really spend time thinking of the vast differences between success and failure if the metaphor was missing, and the statement was just “Everyone wants to be successful, no one wants to a failure?” That statement would be a failure itself, in inspiring interest in the conversation.

To conclude, I can say that idioms with the feature of metaphor are meant to create an impact in the minds of readers. The aim of this literary tool is to convey a thought more forcefully than a plain statement would.

They are exaggerated expressions no doubt, nut they are exaggerated because they are supposed to paint a vivid picture, or become a profound statement or saying.

CHAPTER III. TEACHING PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS IN ENGLISH CLASSES

3.1 The importance of idioms in the development of improving comprehension of learners.

Phraseological units are an integral part of the English language. They are used often by almost all native speakers of English. Some are used often by some people, but not by others. There are some that everyone understands, but hardly anybody uses. Some are used and understood in some parts of the English speaking world and not in others. Because idioms are rooted so strongly in culture and used in very specific situations, it is difficult for English language learners to know what idioms are used in what situations and by whom. That's a tall order! (A tall order is a very difficult and complex task.)

The best way to begin a study of idioms is to improve comprehension. We suggest that the teacher first focus on understanding definitions and situations so that students can make sense of what they hear or read.

The following classroom activities begin with tasks that focus on comprehension and progress to tasks that require speaking. Many of the activities in this part refer to the categories of idioms listed in above. We encourage teachers to use their imaginations in creating integrated activities around idioms. The

suggestions here are only a jumping-off point. (A jumping-off point is a starting place to help ideas develop.)

And remember, idioms are fun! You don't need to learn them all to speak English well, but knowing just a few can help make your English more colorful.

The role of oral and written speech is very important in the development of learners' intellectual facilities and oral speech habits. The phraseological units play a great role to develop learners' viewings and their oral speech habits in learning foreign languages, they help to bring up them. If the phraseological units are taught to learners effectively they will learn them with pleasure. They rise their emotion, feelings. Phraseological units lead them to be interested in learning proverbs while introducing them to the learners tales, stories, facial expressions are used and it helps to explain everything influentially and clearly. We'd manage to enlarge learners's knowledge develop their intelligence, memory, image, attentiveness as a result of it.

These factors help to enlarge their vocabulary and increase their interests to retell what they've heard from others, to retell the stories to learners using phraseological units, teach them to master their auding practice and grow their memory. It's clear that every learner remind the things which they understood well. That's why the chosen phraseological units are demanded to be easy to understand sensible and memorable according their level.

The most sustained and innovative recent work on metaphor has occurred in cognitive science and psychology. Psycholinguistic investigation suggests that novel, poetic metaphors are processed differently than literal speech, while relatively conventionalized and contextually salient metaphors are processed more like literal speech. This conflicts with the view of "cognitive linguists" like George Lakoff that all or nearly all thought is essentially metaphorical. There are currently four main cognitive models of metaphor comprehension: juxtaposition, category-transfer, feature-matching, and structural alignment. Structural alignment deals

best with the widest range of examples; but it still fails to account for the complexity and richness of fairly novel, poetic metaphors.

Philosophers have often adopted a dismissive attitude toward metaphor. Hobbes advocated excluding metaphors from rational discourse because they “openly profess deceit,” while Locke claimed that figurative uses of language serve only “to insinuate wrong ideas, move the passions, and thereby mislead the judgment; and so indeed are perfect cheats.”²¹ Later, logical positivists like Ayer and Carnap assumed that because metaphors, like *How sweet the moonlight sleeps upon this bank*, involve category mistakes, they have no real meaning or verification conditions. Thus, they too mentioned metaphor only to place it beyond the pale of rational discourse.

3.2 Learning phraseological units with the useful classroom activities

In this part we tried to give several useful classroom activities for teaching and learning phraseological units, for instance

Matching

Purpose/Goal: to recognize PUs meanings

Number of Participants: any number

Materials: teacher-made handout with PUs and definitions

Procedure

1. Select up to ten PUs from particular book.
2. Write the PUs on the left side of the paper (or board) and the definitions on the right side.

²¹ Locke 1995.

3. Ask students to write the letter of each definition next to the corresponding idiom.

Sample

- | | |
|--------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. “a piece of cake | a. sell well |
| 2. sell like hot cakes | b. in right order |
| 3. in apple-pie order | c. live a rich life |
| 4. have one’s cake baked | d. a very easy thing |

Multiple Choice

Purpose/Goal:to recognize appropriate PUs in context

Number of Participants: any number

Materials: teacher-made handout with sentences and idioms

Procedure

1. Select PUs according to the theme.
2. Write a sentence using each idiom, but leave a blank space for the idiom.
3. Give students three or four idioms that might belong in the blank, and ask them to choose the correct one.

Sample

1. Our company has been (losing money) for over three years now.
 - a. in the pink
 - b. in the red
 - c. in the black
 - d. in black and white

2. My father can do anything; he's a _____ .

- a. Jack of all trades
- b. fish out of water
- c. bull in a china shop
- d. lame duck

Memory (Card Game 1)

Purpose/Goal: to recognize meanings

Number of Players: 2 – 10

Materials: teacher-made cards (30) marked with idioms and definitions

Procedure

1. Choose 15 idioms that you want your students to learn. Write each one down on a card or slip of paper.
2. On 15 more cards, write the definitions to the idioms.
3. Mix the cards up and place them face-down on a table.
4. Taking turns, the students turn two cards over to show the writing. Is there an idiom and a definition? Do they match? If they match, the student keeps the cards. If not, the student turns them back over and the next person takes a turn.
5. The student with the most matches at the end of the game is the winner.

Variation

Instead of writing the idioms and definitions on cards, write them on the blackboard in random order. Before the students are in the room, tape a piece of paper over each word and each definition. Play the game by having students come up one at a time to the board and remove two pieces of paper to see if they match.

If they match, erase the words. If they don't match, replace the papers to cover the words and choose another student to come to the board.

Sorting (Card Game 2)

Purpose/Goal: to identify similarities

Number of Players: 1– 6 in each group

Materials: teacher-made cards (30 per group) marked with idioms

Procedure

1. Select about 30 idioms and write them on cards or slips of paper.
2. Write the same set of idioms for each group of five or six students.
3. Ask students to sort the idioms into categories by meaning.
4. Students can check this book or another source for the meanings, if necessary.

Variation 1 (Easiest)

Give students categories and tell them how many words are in each category. For example, 'The categories are idioms about happiness, anger, sadness, and ill health. There are six in each category.'

Variation 2 (Harder)

Don't give students any categories. Let them develop their own. Follow up by asking students to write their categories on the board. For example, 'I'm not going to tell you the topics of the categories. Try to figure them out yourselves. You may come up with your own categories.'

Idiom-a-week

Purpose/Goal: to notice selected idioms

Number of Participants: any number

Materials:none

Procedure

1. Choose an idiom to be the idiom of the week.
2. Post the idiom somewhere in your classroom for all students to see—for example, at the top of your blackboard.
3. Students must find the meaning of the idiom in this book, in their dictionaries, on the internet, or in other resources.
4. Ask students to compare their findings with each other to see how many different ways the idiom is used.
5. Have students keep track of how many times they hear or read that idiom during the week.

Pocket Reminders

Purpose/Goal: to use all five senses to learn idioms

Number of Participants: any number

Materials: small blank cards or slips of paper

Procedure:

1. Have each student choose an idiom from this book or another source.
2. Have each student write the idiom on a slip of paper or index card.
3. Ask each student to put the idiom in his or her pocket and keep it there for the whole week. Each time they see or touch the slips of paper, they will be reminded of their idioms. They can also try to use the idiom in their English language conversations during the week.

Note to Teacher

This idea is based on the theories of peripheral learning. If students are surrounded by new vocabulary and take it in through all of their senses, they will have a better chance of learning and remembering words or phrases. The pocket reminder uses the sense of touch as a learning tool.

Idiom Journal

Purpose/Goal: to keep active, individualized lists

Number of Participants: any number

Materials: journal paper or writing books

Procedure:

Have each student keep an idiom journal. This is a list of idioms they have used, either in speech or writing. (If students are already keeping a vocabulary journal, have them designate a separate section just for idioms.)

Variation 1

Students can write down the idioms that they plan to use in the next week. They then can check them off once they have used them.

Variation 2

Students can keep track of how many times they have used a new idiom, either spoken or written.

Variation 3

Students can use their journal to write down new idioms they discover. These new vocabulary items may come from movies, books, magazines, or television. They can share and compare these with their classmates and then find their meanings in their resource books or on the internet.

So an idiom journal is not just a list of phrases; it should be an interactive tool for learning. If students are actively engaged in their learning, they have a better chance of retaining learned material. By writing their own journals, students strengthen their own learning strategies and improve their opportunities for acquisition.

Conclusion

At the end of XX century and the beginning of XXI century we can witness remarkably much novelties in all spheres, particularly in linguistics. Cognitive linguistics, cultural linguistics and other linguistic sciences emerged, and deal with studying the relationship between the language and culture. In current time this issue is being more actual one. Our research has dealt with two sciences: phraseology, and cultural linguistics. Modern studies have reported the influence of human factors on language, when the content of linguistic units expanded and enriched emotional components. It is admitted that "language has the heart," but also the "heart has language" one and in order to express emotional experiences and feelings in every language formed special means capable of reflecting the emotional state of the person, to recreate the language picture of the world and the sensory element of objective reality - human.

Idiom is one of the linguistic means of reflection of reality, and the identity of their value lies in the fact that it "regularly than lexical meaning", is used for outer characteristics and enhanced individual and subjective assessment of the facts for the transmission and expression of the emotional state of the speaker. A complicated informative, evaluative element, imagery and other signs of phraseologisms make them "tough nut to crack" for researchers.

Based on the notions of these sciences we have tried to expose the essence of our research work. Mainly during our research work, we dwell on a lot of

scholars' ideas on this issue: Lakoff, V.V.Vinogradov, A.V.Kunin , A.Makkai, V.A.Maslova, Farzad Sharifian, Sh.Rakhmatullaev, T.T.Ikramov, E.Kaptyurova. Z.Ivanovic, and others.

First of all it is necessary to clarify once again that a phraseologism is valuable. To do this , probably should take into account the fact that " idioms have a special , compared with the word, a specific value, this value (phraseological)is so distinctive than more specific turnover ".

We could highlight three main aspects. Firstly, figurative language teaching in general, idioms in particular is very complex and, therefore, poses many problems not only from a pedagogical point of view, but from a cultural one. It is clear, however, that these fixed expressions, due to their high frequency in discourse, should be included in the curriculum and not be relegated to a secondary position

Secondly, it is crucial to teach these idioms as part of a culture, reflection of beliefs of a community. Studying the etymology is essential for that purpose, since these expressions were coined in a specific moment and because of cultural reasons that cannot be found out by merely analysing the constituent parts of the expression itself. As it has been seen, each idiom has a specific semantic content, so, if we explain and transfer this semantic content to our students, they will be able to associate them with the figurative meaning, and thus, they will be able to infer the idioms' meanings from the context.

Thirdly, as active participants in their learning process, teachers should make students realize the importance of learning idioms. Once they know the cultural and historical associations of the idioms and their etymology they will be more likely to understand and to carry out successfully all kind of activities designed for working on them. Because, the national idiomatic phraseological units serve not only to express our emotions, feelings, attitudes to a certain degree but is also considered as one of the factors to determine national specificity.

The basic part of the research work is based on some scholars' ideas. At first Koonin's , Amosova's , Arnold,, V.V.Vinogradov, V.A,Maslova and Farzad Sharifian, , Adam Makkai's and etc. The above mentioned scholars' ideas on cultural linguistics are also dwelled on in theoretical part of the research work .

Main part uncovers the characteristics of national metaphorical phraseological units given in the paper by analyzing deeply . Firstly , chosen examples are studied from linguistic point of view , in other words , semantic and original properties have been exposed as well . And the second step is contrastive analysis , finding out equivalents of phraseological units.

In conclusion, it's relevant to emphasize that both linguistic and cultural differences play an important role in the linguistic field. However, the research works devoted to phraseology can be found , but the work , which cover the very two sciences and relying on the theoretical materials, analyzing the English examples contrastively may be found.

As a result of qualification paper, we came to this conclusion while analyzing to find the structural features of idioms based on cognitive metaphors we witnessed that the phraseological units of the language ,the nation's culture, tradition, history are reflected the analysis of idiomatic phraseological units, religious, traditional, mode of life factors.

So, it's relevant to emphasize that metaphorical phraseological units as the language unit serve to express emotional state of a human being, and besides that reflect national-specific properties of the certain nation.

Moreover most of idioms within the theory of metaphor semantically related to the nation, whose name conveys an adjective. Phrases with the meaning of metaphor reflect the long history of the English people, the uniqueness of its culture, way of life and traditions.

English idioms based on metaphor can contribute to a better understanding of the characteristics of the British and participate in the dialogue of cultures.

To sum up, we can say that materials and results of the study can be used in related disciplines such as linguistics and area studies and intercultural communication, style, theory and practice of translation, as well as applied in practical classes in English for Uzbek-speaking pupils.

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