

THE MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND SPECIALIZED EDUCATION
OF THE REPUBLIC OF UZBEKISTAN

ANDIZHAN STATE UNIVERSITY
NAMED AFTER ZAKHIRIDDIN MUKHAMMAD BABUR

FACULTY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH PHONETICS

“A cognitive – pragmatic features of proper nouns in English proverbs
and sayings.”

QUALIFICATION GRADUATING PAPER

Compiled by: Таджибоева Насиба

Group: 401

Supervisor: Assistant KH.M.Matkulov

The qualification graduating paper has been passed for the first defense in the department, according to the official information № ____ “ ____ ” _____ 2016

Andizhan – 2016

Битирув малакавий иш инглиз тили фонетикаси ва лексикаси кафедрасининг 2016 йил май № 7 сонли йиғилишида кўриб чиқилган ва химояга тавсия этилган.

Факултет декани:

доц. М.Абдувалиев

Кафедра мудири:

катта ўқитувчи. Ж. Эгамбердиев

Кафедра эксперти:

проф. С. Р. Рахимов

Илмий рахбар:

ассистент. Ҳ.Матқулов

Такризчи:

Plan

Introduction.

Chapter 1. Grammatical characteristics of proper nouns in English.

1.1. The theory of proper nouns.

1.2. The classification of proper nouns in English.

Chapter II. Linguistic peculiarities of proper nouns proverbs and sayings.

2.1. The role of proper nouns in proverbs and sayings.

2.2. A cognitive-pragmatic features of proper nouns in the structure of English phraseology.

Chapter III. The problem of translation and teaching proper nouns proverbs and sayings.

3.1. Ways of translation proper nouns proverbs and sayings.

3.2. The strategies for teaching proper nouns proverbs and sayings.

Internet sources

Methodological recommendation

Conclusion.

Bibliography

C O N T E N T.

Introduction.....	3-10
Chapter 1. Grammatical characteristics of proper nouns in English...11-30	
1.1. The theory of proper nouns.....	11-29
1.2. The classification of proper nouns in English.....	29-30
Chapter II. Linguistic peculiarities of proper nouns proverbs and sayings.....	31-47
2.1. The role of proper nouns in proverbs and sayings.....	35-40
2.2. A cognitive-pragmatic features of proper nouns in the structure of English phraseology	41-47
Chapter III. The problem of translation and teaching proper nouns proverbs and sayings.....	48-65
3.1. Ways of translation proper nouns proverbs and sayings.....	51-61
3.2. The strategies for teaching proper nouns proverbs and sayings.....	61-65
Internet sources.....	66-67
Methodological recommendation.....	68-69
Conclusion.....	70-71
Bibliography.....	72-74

Introduction

Language is the chief means by which the human personality expresses itself and fulfils its basic need for social interaction with other persons. Robert Lado wrote that language functions owing to the language skills. A person who knows a language perfectly uses a thousand and one grammar lexical, phonetic rules when he is speaking. Language skills help us to choose different words and models in our speech. By learning language we can introduce with different people's tradition, their culture, religious and physiological inner-world.

However, no one knows exactly how people learn languages although a great deal of research has been done into the subject. Many methods have been proposed for the teaching of foreign language. And they have met with varying degrees of success and failure. Some have had their heyday and have fallen into relative obscurity; others are widely used now; still others have a small following, but contribute insights that may be absorbed into the generally accepted mix.

The presidential decree under number 18/75 underlines the fact that basic knowledge of English is taught in educational establishments must be renovated, makes us find out methods of teaching suitable for the teaching at schools, lyceums and universities mentioning the level of students[4,2]. Learning foreign languages in Uzbekistan has become very important since the first days of the Independence of our country which pays much attention to the rising of education level of people, their intellectual growth. As the President of Uzbekistan I. A. Karimov said: "Today it's difficult to revalue the importance of knowing foreign languages for our country, as our people see their great prosperous future in the cooperation with foreign partners." [1, 7] That's why knowing foreign languages has become very important today. Under the notion "knowledge" we understand not only practical but theoretical basis too.

Scientists of the Republic carry out fundamental and applied research in many areas of modern science. The republic has world-class research schools and investigations in many areas are successfully conducted. Development of our

own intellectual, scientific, and technical potential, as a factor for sustainable progress of our country, we immediately associate with further expansion of scientific, technological and cultural links with prestigious research centers in the world, with the joint research on many important issues. As our President said to our future generation that “The task of science is to form our future, trends for tomorrow, the laws of nature, to show the way it will be. Science must be the means and the force driving forward the development of society” [2, 76].

According to research, a number of indicators of the education system of Uzbekistan exceed many countries. In particular, the analytical data show that the indicators of Uzbekistan concerning the development of the education sector of the country, government spending on it, the cost of capital construction and renovation of schools, number of teachers as a percentage of the number of students, number of graduates in the sciences and engineering, the average assessment of students in GMAT (standardized test for determining the ability to successfully study in business schools) and others, are very high. The study provides in details the basic criteria and factors of the achievements of Uzbekistan in the field. There is emphasized that the strongest sides of social and economic development and innovation potential of Uzbekistan are the investment into human capital, research, the amount of public expenditure on education and the overall status of the education system. In this connection it's appropriate to remind the saying of the President Islam Karimov: “It's not a secret that XXI century – is the one, where the intellectual values dominate [3, 78].

That is exactly why, if each state and society does not realize this truth and the need to master new knowledge, increasing intellectual potential, if these criteria do not become the purpose of their everyday life, then this society will leave out of world progress framework”. It should be underlined, that our people, which in the recent past was really behind of universal development, made right conclusions from this bitter experience, and after identifying the aspiration to science and education, intellectual development, growing harmoniously developed youth which is second to none, achieved significant practical results in this direction. Thanks to

that Uzbekistan today moves to front lines of world development. This is brightly confirmed by the results of this rating.

Given dissertation, dedicating for study students and for special extra curriculum courses at educational establishments includes phraseological units and proverbs with proper nouns or some activities and materials which can develop not only language skills of students, but also improve speech activities how to use phraseological units and proverbs of them.

The aim of this work was to introduce the modern approaches to learning phraseological units and proverbs in the process of studying and using them in novels, so that to make it easy to perceive for those willing to keep up their educational and scientific carrier in the science of English language, it was purposed to broaden their view on ways of teaching and peculiar features. Naming a single entity is one of the basic speech acts, included by Kunin in the class of declaratives. Proverbs, phraseological units are given with proper noun.

Naming serves to highlight entities that play a role in people's daily life, and to establish and maintain individuality in society. English proper nouns include people's names and surnames (Mark Smith, Miss Barkly), geographical names (Netherlands, the Pacific Ocean), names of institutions (the United Nations, the British Museum), places in the city (Trafalgar square, Big Ben and Fifth Avenue), historical and other events (the Carnation Revolution, the Jazz Festival). English proper nouns also include nationalities (Russian, Korean), weekdays (Thursday, Sunday), months (January, March) and other notions, objects and places that are capitalized and used as names.

The actuality of the research. There are many phraseological units and proverbs that contain proper nouns. The same as other proverbs or phraseological units, they came from people's everyday life, folklore, prose and poetry, myths, fairy tales, fables, songs, slang, novels and other sources. Quite a few proverbs with proper names are familiar to people of different nationalities, and in order to show the tradition, culture or personality of the nationality. It's natural that a student of English wants to know how to say those colorful expressions in English.

They use historical version and modern version of proverbs. By learning proverbs our youth can be more cleverer. It should be stressed, though, that proverbs or phraseological units with proper names are used in speech or writing often. For example, never say die; look before you leap; don't cry out before you are hurt; let every tailor stick to his goose but how often do we actually use them? Generally, we prefer more neutral phrases in everyday speech. Also, some proverbs containing people's names, names of nationalities, cities or countries, may be perceived as offensive stereotypes, and should be avoided [5,12]. All this makes the theme of research actual and important among the problems of modern linguistics. It is not less significant than learning grammar, lexis and pronunciation. By knowing them we can differentiate positive and negative sides of humanity.

Moreover, our research work is closely connected with tradition and culture of people and explains the origin of a large number of phraseological units and proverbs with proper names. If we examine them, the dominant subtype of phraseological units, we observe that they involve elements regarded as relevant for various reasons: body parts, because human beings as natural (and cultural) entities are at the centre of language; natural elements, animals, colours, clothing and food, being a good or bad man, because they are salient aspects of everyday life; references to the Bible, in Shakespeare works and in mythology too, because it is culturally relevant in Anglo-Saxon society. So, we expect to find a number of proper nouns because of their great importance in human communication, win they are signs of cultural, linguistic, geographical, ethnic and social identity. Their analysis can offer an insight into the interplay between language and culture in phraseology.

The sources of phraseology attract the attention of many linguists who investigate its matters in order to disclose them and reveal their core information. Learning proverbs and phraseological units are very interesting, because you can be close with this or that peoples. Mostly authors also use proverbs in their novels, short stories, fairy tales and others in order to illustrate the work. Using proverbs in fairy tales is understandable for young pupils too.

Object of analysis of onomastics, proper names (henceforth PNs) have been investigated by philosophers, logicians, anthropologists and psychologists. Famous linguist A.V. Kunin investigated a lot in phraseology and made up the whole theory, creating the English-Russian phraseological dictionary. With one word we can say that A.V. Kunin is “father of phraseology”. N.N. Amosova presented the general basis of phraseological science, E.F. Arsenyeva and Grenville was involved in the comparative investigation of phraseological sources of different languages, Cowie revealed the connection between phraseology and national cultural mentality of people. Such linguists as Glaser R described the stylistic potential of phraseological units and Grant L. studied out the frequency of usage of phraseological units in English.

The aim of the research is to investigate a cognitive-pragmatic features of proper nouns in English proverbs and sayings and explain their grammatical, lexical and cognitive-pragmatic features and reason of using them paying attention to the national and cultural matters. So, this work aims at exploration the cognitive aspects and usage of proper nouns proverbs and sayings containing personal beings.

The research work carries out the following tasks: to observe the grammatical characteristics of proper nouns in English; to learn out the role of using proper nouns in language; to present the classification of phraseological units and proverbs according to some cognitive structures; to study all the possible structures i.e. grammatical, cognitive-pragmatic category of phraseological units with proper nouns; to investigate the usage of proper nouns English proverbs and sayings; to describe the functions of proverbs with proper nouns.

The subject and object of the research is English proverbs and sayings containing onomastics in their cognitive-pragmatic and structural features.

The methodological ground of the research work consists of theoretical issues of scientists and linguists in the sphere of phraseology, stylistics, culture study, history, psycholinguistical features of nations, etc. We have used their

books, articles and thesis dealing with the theme of our investigation. We have introduced some which deals with proverbs.

The following methods of inquiry were used in the work:

- descriptive method (to describe main points of the research work),
- comparative analysis (to compare English phraseological units with their equivalents in Russian and Uzbek),
- componential analysis (to take component: proper name out of the whole phraseological unit or proverb and analyze it),
- cognitive –conceptual analysis (to investigate associations, background knowledge in phraseological units and proverbs with proper names),
- lingual-cultural analysis (to find out interesting cultural events which deal with phraseological units and proverbs with proper names),
- critical analysis of the literature on the problem of investigation (to analyze scientific issues dedicated to the theme of investigation).

The material of the research work was based on theories and concepts of linguists in the sphere of phraseology, a number of phraseological dictionaries, original texts and novels or stories.

The scientific novelty of the research work is vivid in the complex investigation of the grammatical, lexical, cognitive and pragmatic features of English proverbs and sayings with proper nouns.

The theoretical significance of the research is evident in the presenting important and interesting information about culture, historical background, semantic-stylistic and grammatical-lexical structures of English phraseological units and proverbs with proper names. Explanation of reasons of including proper names into them and classification of them according to some features.

The practical significance of the research is the possibility of usage of the rich material in communication during the speech act with English people, at the lessons of practical English, lectures and seminars on Country Study, Stylistics, Literature of English speaking countries, writing scientific articles and course

papers on the theme of research, compiling dictionaries of phraseological units and proverbs, while working at literary texts and reading original literature, etc.

The hypothesis of the research. The investigation of English phraseological units with proper names will surely make out many structures of their origin and present information about their semantic, grammatical, lexical and cognitive features, cultural and historical background, which can be used in compiling phraseological dictionaries and enriching the science of phraseology. By the way we can introduce the main characteristic feature of nationality.

The authenticity of the results of the research can be supported by the scientific interpretation, methods of analyzing of factological material and getting new information about proverbs and sayings with proper names.

1. English phraseological units with proper nouns include people's names and surnames, geographical names, names of institutions, places in the city, historical events, nationalities, weekdays, months, names of cinema, theatre, circuses and other notions, objects and places that are capitalized and used as names.

2. There are many proverbs and sayings that contain proper names. They came from people's everyday life, folklore, prose and poetry, myths, fairy tales, fables, songs, slang and other sources. Mostly we can differentiate their grammatical, lexical, cognitive structures.

4. Proverbs and sayings are the cultural-determined part of the English language's vocabulary.

5. Some English proverbs have direct equivalents in the Russian and Uzbek languages, and so there is no problem with their understanding by these people. Unfortunately this group of proverbs is rather small.

6. The most of English proverbs (70%) have approximate equivalents in the Russian and Uzbek languages – proverbs with the same meanings but with different ways of its expression.

The structure of the research work. The work consists of the following parts: Introduction, 3 chapters, Conclusion and List of used literature. Introduction presents the problems, which are investigated and discussed in the work, points out

the aim of this research, tasks of the work, scientific novelty, theoretical value, practical value and other peculiarities and features of the research work. In Chapters I, II and III all the duties and problems of the work are investigated and analyzed in details.

Chapter I investigate the grammatical features of proper nouns in English.

Chapter II presents linguistic peculiarities of proper nouns proverbs and sayings.

Chapter III is devoted to the investigation of the problem of translation and teaching proper nouns proverbs and sayings.

In Conclusion we pointed out the most important facts of our investigation and showed the significant results of the research work. List of used literature presents the names of authors and their theoretical issues and books, which were used for writing this research work. The research work contains pages of printed text.

Chapter I Grammatical characteristics of proper nouns in English

1. 1 The theory of proper nouns

Proper names are familiar expressions of natural language. Their semantics remains a contested subject in the philosophy of language, with those who believe a descriptive element belongs in their meaning (whether at the level of intension or at the level of character) ranged against supporters of the more austere Millian view [5]

- 1. Syntax
- 2. Semantics
 - 2.1 Millianism
 - 2.2 Sense Theories
 - 2.3 The Description Theory
 - 2.4 Attacks on Descriptivism
 - 2.5 The Causal-Historical Theory of Reference
 - 2.6 Descriptivist Replies
 - 2.7 The Character of Names
 - 2.8 Anti-Functionalism
 - 2.9 Names as Anaphors

Proper names are distinguished from proper nouns. A proper noun is a word-level unit of the category *noun*, while proper names are noun phrases (syntagms). For instance, the proper name ‘Jessica Alba’ consists of two proper nouns: ‘Jessica’ and ‘Alba’. Proper names may consist of other parts of speech, too: ‘Brooklyn Bridge’ contains the common noun ‘Bridge’ as well as the proper noun ‘Brooklyn’. ‘The Raritan River’ also includes the determiner ‘the’. ‘The Bronx’ combines a determiner and a proper noun. Finally, ‘the Golden Gate Bridge’ is a proper name with no proper nouns in it at all.

While any string of words (or non-words) can be a proper name, we may (tentatively) locate that liberality in the form of proper nouns. Proper names, by contrast, simply have a large number of paradigms corresponding to the sorts of

things named. For instance, official names of persons in most Western cultures consist of (at least) first and last names (themselves proper nouns). Names of bridges have an optional definite determiner and often contain the common noun 'bridge'. Hence we can have bridge names that embed other proper names like 'The George Washington Bridge'. We can also have structurally ambiguous names like 'the New York Public Library'.

Names are often claimed to be syntactically "definite," since they can occur with markers of definiteness, such as the definite article in English. Since definite expressions include pronouns, demonstratives and definite descriptions, this evidence is often used to support views on which names are subsumed to one of these categories, though it is also consistent with names forming their own species of definite.

What we might call proper nominals (proper names without their determiner) can modify other nouns, as in 'a Bronx resident'. They can also occur as the restrictors of determiners other than 'the', as in 'every Alfred'. Some notably take such non-argumental occurrences as constituting their primary use (in a theoretical, rather than statistical sense). However, it might seem more natural, pre-theoretically, to regard such occurrences as on a par with "coerced" expressions such as the verb 'googled'.

Is there just one proper name 'Alice' or are there many homonyms ('Alice-1', 'Alice-2', etc.)? On the one hand, it is tempting to infer the uniqueness of the name, on syntactic grounds, from the uniqueness of the proper *noun* (arguably the same noun recurs in the names 'Alice Waters' and 'Alice Walker', as well as in the phrase 'two famous Alices'). On the other hand, there is pressure from semantics to recognize multiple homonyms (or else large-scale ambiguity). For instance, if the meaning of a name is its referent, then there is either one ambiguous name 'Alice', with as many meanings as there are individuals named Alice, or many univocal names with identical spelling. If instead the meaning of a name corresponds to a rule determining, or constraining, its reference in a context, then there is no pressure to adopt either expedient [39].

J. S. Mill is given credit (and naming rights) for the commonsense view that the semantic contribution of a name is its referent (and only its referent). For instance, the semantic value of the name ‘Aristotle’ is Aristotle himself (note that this assumes that, by ‘Aristotle’, a particular, as opposed to generic, name is intended. It is unlikely that Mill was the first to hold this view (Mill's argument that a town could still with propriety be called ‘Dartmouth’ even though it didn't lie at the mouth of the Dart River engages with a dialectic as old as Plato's *Cratylus*), which underwent a revival in the second half of the twentieth century, beginning with Ruth Barcan Marcus 1961[19,5].

Frege's puzzle of ‘the Morning Star’ and ‘the Evening Star’ challenges the Millian conception of names (note that while Frege used ‘proper name’ [*Eigennamen*] to cover singular terms generally, both expressions seem to be proper names of a sort—“star”. For while both expressions have the same referent (the planet Venus), they do not seem equivalent in *cognitive significance*, nor do they contribute in the same way to the truth conditions of all sentences in which they occur. In particular, they cannot be substituted *salva veritate* (preserving truth) in the scope of propositional attitude verbs [39]:

1. Homer believed that the Morning Star was the Morning Star. (True)
2. Homer believed that the Morning Star was the Evening Star. (False)

Russell [39] required that a propositional attitude holder be acquainted with each of the components of the proposition in question. This presents a further problem for the Millian view, for it seems that one can believe the proposition expressed by the sentence ‘Aristotle was wise’ without personally being acquainted with Aristotle, suggesting that Aristotle is not himself contributed to that proposition.

Even if we don't find Russell's epistemological views persuasive, names without a referent (e.g. ‘Atlantis’) pose a problem for Millianism. For it is plausible that the sentence ‘Atlantis lies to the west of Gibraltar’ expresses a proposition (and one distinct from that expressed by ‘El Dorado lies to the west of Gibraltar’, for someone might believe the former without believing the latter) and

yet on the Millian view ‘Atlantis’ does not contribute anything to the semantic content of the sentence (and hence nothing over and above what ‘El Dorado’ might contribute).

Millians have made responses to all three of these objections. For the puzzle of empty names. Russell's [39] conditions on singular thought are now generally viewed as overly stringent, and it is common to assume that we *are* in a position to entertain a proposition with Aristotle as a constituent [34, 753].

Frege's [21] answer to his own puzzle was to add an additional tier, of *Sinn* or “sense,” to the referential semantic value of a name. While ‘the Morning Star’ and ‘the Evening Star’ have the same reference, or ground-floor semantic value, the expressions differ at the level of sense.

Frege left his notion of sense somewhat obscure. Subsequent theorists have discerned a theoretical role unifying several distinct functions. First, as just remarked, an expression has a sense (along with a *Bedeutung* or reference) as part of its semantic value. Its sense is its contribution to the thought (proposition) expressed by a sentence in which it occurs. Names, considered as generic syntactic types, most likely do not have senses as their linguistic meanings. However, any successful use of a generic name (or perhaps any “particular” name) will express a complete sense. Second, the sense of an expression determines its reference. Third, sense encapsulates the cognitive significance of an expression. In the last capacity, the sense of a sentence—a thought (proposition)—must obey Frege's intuitive criterion of difference [5]. Roughly, any two sentences that may simultaneously be held to have opposite truth-values by the same rational agent must express different thoughts.

Take ‘the Morning Star’ and ‘the Evening Star’. In addition to referring to Venus, each of these names has a sense. The sense in each case determines (perhaps with respect to some parameter) the referent Venus. Additionally, the senses encapsulate the cognitive significance of each expression. This implies that the senses of the two names are different, since the thought expressed by (3) is

distinct from the thought expressed by (4) (from the intuitive criterion of difference, and the fact that someone might think (3) is true but (4) is false).

3. The Morning Star is the Morning Star

4. The Morning Star is the Evening Star

Neo-Fregeans have come up with a host of candidates for the role of sense. These candidates do not always satisfy all of Frege's requirements (though they usually satisfy at least one), making the Neo-Fregean camp somewhat heterogeneous. For example, Michael Devitt [21] takes senses to be causal-historical chains linking utterances of names to their referents (see the Causal-Historical Theory below). For him, senses play a role in semantics (by constraining the notion of synonymy and the truth conditions of attitude reports) without encapsulating the cognitive significance of an expression for a group of speakers. John McDowell [20] provides an account of sense that fills the cognitive and reference-determining roles Frege ascribed to it, without adopting a two-tiered semantic theory (that is to say, without reifying sense as a semantic value). He associates the sense of a name with an appropriately stated clause in a Tarskian truth theory (making it possible to state what one must know to have the sense but not what the sense itself consists in).

Perhaps the best known account [19] treats sense as intension. An intension is a function from possible worlds to extensions. For instance, the intension of 'the number of planets' is a function that, given a possible world w , returns a number—the number of planets at w . The extension of an expression at the actual world corresponds to its reference (in the case of 'the number of planets' this is 8); thus intension can be said to determine reference (relative to a world parameter). Moreover, if we take propositions to be functions from possible worlds to truth-values (i.e., intensions of sentences), then we can easily treat the intension of a noun phrase as its compositional contribution to the proposition expressed by a sentence. Finally, the intension of a definite description can be seen to correspond to its cognitive significance. The significance of a definite description 'the F ' is presumably the information that allows one to discriminate possible worlds based

(only) on who or what is (uniquely) F . The intension of a definite description partitions logical space (i.e., the set of all possible worlds) in precisely this manner.

We can cook up an intension for a name N by finding a (proper) definite description ‘the F ’ true of the referent of the name at the actual world, and then setting the intension of N to the function that takes a world w and outputs the F at w . Indeed, for any intelligible intension for a name, there is a corresponding definite description. The view of sense as intension thus has many of the same features (and, as we will see, drawbacks) as the Description Theory of names.

The Description Theory of names (a.k.a. descriptivism) says that each name N has the semantic value of some definite description ‘the F ’. For instance, ‘Aristotle’ might have the semantic value of ‘the teacher of Alexander the Great’. As stated, this view is consistent with Millianism (it would be Millianism if we assumed that the semantic value of a definite description was the individual it referred to), however in practice it is always coupled with a view on which definite descriptions have either a Russellian (see the section on Russell's theory in the entry on descriptions) or an intensional semantics (see the section on Sense Theories above). In the latter case, descriptivism corresponds to the intensional interpretation of Frege's sense theory. It should be noted that Montague's [18, 182-196] treatment of names as denoting higher-order functions (i.e., quantifier denotations) does not belong under this heading. It was adopted for reasons of type consilience, rather than descriptivist intuitions. Moreover, his first meaning postulate imposes an intensionally rigid interpretation on names.

Russell is the earliest proponent of the Description Theory [23]. He applied it to ordinary, but not what he called “logically proper” names (the latter were in fact demonstratives like ‘this’ and ‘that’, and he gave them a Millian semantics). In conjunction with his semantics for definite descriptions, he used the theory to solve the puzzles mentioned in the last section, without resorting to a two-tiered semantic theory. ‘The Morning Star’ and ‘the Evening Star’ (as well as ‘Atlantis’ and ‘El Dorado’) might correspond in semantic value to different definite descriptions, and so would make different semantic contributions to the sentences in which they

occur (semantic contribution must, as on the sense theory, be connected with cognitive significance, if Russellian descriptivism is to answer Frege's puzzle). Moreover, a thinker can often be acquainted (on Russell's view) with the property *F* in the semantic value of the corresponding description where they cannot be acquainted with the individual the name refers to.

Famous deeds descriptivism is exemplified by the interpretation of 'Aristotle' as 'the teacher of Alexander the Great'. Note that the latter description also contains a proper name, which will in turn be interpreted as a definite description. The hope is that this description will not mention Aristotle, and indeed that ultimately every description will bottom out in irreducible predicates (or "logically proper" names) rather than entering a loop (which would mean that we have not specified, only constrained, the semantic values in question). Like many exercises of this sort, this translation has never been carried out.

Some obvious problems with famous deeds descriptivism have been recognized. The choice of 'the teacher of Alexander the Great' as the description synonymous with 'Aristotle' seems arbitrary; why not 'the most famous pupil of Plato'? Not only that, but at birth Aristotle was so-named, but not yet known as, for he had not yet become, the teacher of Alexander the Great. Finally, the vast majority of names belong to people (or inanimate objects) that have never performed any deed worthy of note. Two improvements of famous deeds descriptivism have been suggested. One is **cluster** descriptivism, put forward by Searle [13, 5] and Strawson [39], which says that a name corresponds to a definite description whose nominal is a disjunction (or more complex collocation) of predicates like 'teacher of Alexander' and 'most famous pupil of Plato'. Since this approach doesn't address the problem of the cognitive significance of 'Aristotle' soon after his birth, it is often combined with **context-sensitive** descriptivism. On this view the semantic value of a name, while it is always that of some description, differs from context to context (even when the name is being used to speak about the same individual). So Aristotle's mother might have used the name 'Aristotle' with a different semantic value (corresponding to a different (cluster-)description)

to a present-day Aristotle scholar. Frege [6] and Russell seem to have held the context-sensitive view. Wittgenstein is often cited as a proponent of the cluster view, but attention to the text reveals that he is advocating context-sensitivity.

Metalinguistic descriptivism says that a proper name *N* has the semantic value of the definite description ‘the individual called *N*’. This suggestion has the advantage that the name's descriptive content is known to all speakers of the language, but has the disadvantage that, in most cases, the description is not proper (for example, there is more than one individual called ‘Alice’). Furthermore, it may not provide a satisfactory answer to Frege's puzzle, as Frege himself denied that the cognitive significance of a sentence like (4) was metalinguistic.

Tyler Burge [39] finds support for the metalinguistic view in non-argumental occurrences of names, which often take on a metalinguistic interpretation, as in (5) (though this interpretation is not inevitable, cf. (6):

5. There are relatively few Alfreds in Princeton.
6. There are relatively few Picassos at the Met.

Burge overcomes the problem of the impropriety of the metalinguistic description by treating names used as arguments as complex demonstratives, so he is properly speaking a “demonstrativist.”

Metalinguistic descriptivism is commonly presented in a package with the view that proper nominals are metalinguistic predicates (so the nominal ‘Alfred’ is a predicate true of individuals that are so called). The latter view accounts for (5) on its metalinguistic interpretation, and provides a compositional analysis of proper names consisting of ‘the’ followed by a proper nominal as metalinguistic definite descriptions. An unvoiced definite article must be posited for proper names that do not carry one overtly, so that all proper names, under analysis, resemble those of Modern Greek (a less remarked-upon fact about Modern Greek is that the definite article also shows up between demonstrative and nominal in complex demonstratives).

Compositional metalinguistic analyses of names have recently been defended by linguists and philosophers [33,217-222]. Nevertheless, considerable obstacles

remain for such analyses and for the general treatment of proper nominals as metalinguistic predicates. Most straightforwardly, it is not strictly speaking true to say that the Raritan River is called Raritan (it is called *the* Raritan), or that the Bronx is named Bronx [30, 333]. Nor is a Bronx resident a resident called Bronx, but rather one who resides in the Bronx. Even worse difficulties crop up for views that attempt to analyze the meaning of a nominal like ‘George Washington Bridge’ as the intersection of the meanings of its component nouns [31, 556].

The metalinguistic interpretation of non-argumental occurrences of names does not, in the end, support metalinguistic descriptivism. As Fara herself points out, *any* word can take on a metalinguistic interpretation in the right context (she gives the example below in Fara to appear):

7. I gave my cat the name ‘Hominid’ and you gave your dog the same name; between us we have two Hominids.

But if every word can also be used as a predicate with a metalinguistic interpretation, then the parsimonious approach would be to explain this as semantic polysemy or by a general coercion mechanism (much like the mechanism of deferred interpretation Fara discusses) that can derive a metalinguistic interpretation of any word used as a predicate. In the absence of such a mechanism, one would need to stipulate an additional metalinguistic interpretation for ‘hominid’ (along with every other word). However, with such a mechanism in place, it is no more parsimonious to begin with the predicate interpretation of names and derive the argumental interpretation compositionally, than it is to begin with the argumental interpretation and derive the predicate interpretation using the aforementioned mechanism.

There are three well-known arguments against description and sense theories of names (the latter on the interpretation of sense as intension).

Kripke's **modal** argument [39] contends that names and definite descriptions differ in their “modal profiles” [21]. Names are rigid designators which is to say that their intension is constant across metaphysically possible worlds (where defined). Definite descriptions like ‘the teacher of Alexander’, on the other hand,

have non-constant intensions. Kripke backs up this taxonomy with intuitions about ‘might have’ modal sentences (taken in the “ontic” or “metaphysical” rather than the epistemic sense). For instance, while the first sentence sounds true on this reading, the second sounds false:

8. Aristotle might not have been the teacher of Alexander
9. Aristotle might not have been Aristotle

Kripke's **epistemic** argument [39] is closely related, but trades on epistemic, rather than metaphysical, modality. His argument is not that names are rigid in epistemic contexts. That would be a hard sell, as (10) is true on its epistemic reading :

10. The Morning Star might have turned out not to have been the Evening Star
Instead, he argues that no definite description *D* has the same semantic value as the name ‘Aristotle’ (say), because otherwise the sentence (10) would be analytic, and so knowable *a priori*. (Kripke argues that even the sentence ‘Aristotle is the individual called “Aristotle”’—supplied by the metalinguistic description theory—is not knowable *a priori*.)

The **semantic** argument, due to Donnellan [31,556] and Kripke, and related to the externalist arguments of Putnam and Burge , drives a wedge between Frege's two semantic levels of sense and reference. Sense, for Frege, constitutes the semantic contribution of an expression to the thought (proposition) expressed (and hopefully communicated) on an occasion of utterance. It comprises the cognitive significance of a term for a group of communicating agents. However, the argument goes, a sense understood in this way might not determine the correct reference. For instance, in a certain group the cognitive significance carried by the name ‘Peano’ might be the same as that of the description ‘the discoverer of the Peano axioms’ (the assumption is that the members of the group believe no more and no less than this about Peano), yet as it turns out Dedekind, not Peano, discovered the (misnamed) axioms. The problem is that the intension of ‘the discoverer of the Peano axioms’ maps the actual world onto Dedekind, and so is a presentation of the referent Dedekind, rather than a presentation of the referent of

‘Peano’. Thus the “sense” that captures the cognitive significance of ‘Peano’ (in a certain group) does not also determine the reference of ‘Peano’.

Kripke and Donnellan [36,366] also point out that the cognitive significance of a name for a group might not amount to an intension (a function from worlds to extensions) at all. Kripke gives the example of the name ‘Feynman’ to which the members of a certain group attach the indefinite description ‘a physicist’, which is insufficient, due to the popularity of the profession, to single anyone out, let alone Feynman himself. (The members of the group presumably also attach the metalinguistic information ‘is called “Feynman”’, but this will still be insufficient if there is more than one so-named physicist.) This point is relevant to the Description Theory, as it would appear that in this case the semantic/cognitive value of the name ‘Feynman’ corresponds to that of either an indefinite description (‘a physicist’) or else an improper definite description (‘the physicist’).

As Ben Caplan [39] points out these same arguments apply to Millians who attempt to account for Fregean intuitions of cognitive significance and substitution failure by suggesting that uses of names in context additionally assert or suggest some descriptive content.

Kripke and Donnellan [35, 19] offer an externalist alternative to the theory that cognitive significance determines reference. Donnellan argues that an “omniscient being who sees the whole history of the affair” is in better shape to determine the referent of a particular name than one who limits themselves to the (possibly distorted or attenuated) descriptive content associated with the name by a group of agents. Kripke suggests that the reference of a name is established by a dubbing ceremony (or “baptism”) at which the dubee is indicated by a demonstration or uniquely referring description. All uses of the name that derive from this source (uses deriving from the baptism itself, or acquired from someone who was present at the baptism, or from someone who acquired it from someone who was present at the baptism, etc.) refer to the original dubee, even if the speaker associates the name with a description that is untrue of that dubee.

Evans [10] offers the case of ‘Madagascar’ as a counterexample to Kripke's externalist theory. That name originally referred to a portion of mainland Africa, but its reference subsequently shifted to the island off the coast, as a result of a miscommunication propagated by Marco Polo. Despite the fact that there is a continuous “chain” of derived uses of the name ‘Madagascar’ going back to the baptism of the mainland, the name as used now refers to an island.

Kripke includes the following caveat in his account of the reference-passing links in a causal-historical chain:

When the name is ‘passed from link to link’, the receiver of the name must, I think, intend when he learns it to use it with the same reference as the man from whom he heard it. If I hear the name ‘Napoleon’ and decide it would be a nice name for my pet aardvark, I do not satisfy this condition. [39]

Kripke's condition distinguishes reference-passing from what we might call “vehicle-passing” or etymological relation. It is the latter that Leigh Fermor chronicles in the following passage:

The Roman imperial mantle on Greek shoulders has led to a splendid confusion; for the word ‘Rum’, on Oriental tongues, referred not only to the Christian Byzantines – they are so styled in the Koran – but, for a century or two, to their conquered territory in Asia Minor; it designated the empire of the Seldjuk Turks in Anatolia with its capital at Konia (Iconium), reigned over by the ‘Sultans of Rum’. To tangle matters still further the word Romania was often used in the West, especially during the crusades, to specify the parts of the Eastern Empire which lay in Europe; the Turks extended ‘Rum’ into ‘Rumeli’, (‘land of the Rumis’) to cover the same area. One still finds the confusing word ‘Rumelia’ on old maps. (In Greece, Rumeli now specifically applies to the great mountainous stretch of continental Greece running from the Adriatic to the Aegean, north of the Gulf of Corinth and south of Epirus and Thessaly.)

When the Turks applied the word ‘Rum’ to their conquered territory, they were influenced in their choice by a previous use of the same word to refer to the Byzantine Empire, but they did not intend to use the word in exactly the same way.

Though not as dramatic as calling one's pet aardvark 'Napoleon', this is a case in which the intentional condition is not satisfied. It is conceivable that all true cases of a vehicle changing its reference are purposeful, and hence break the causal-historical chain by violating this condition.

Kripke himself admits [39] that his rough account provides something less than an airtight theory. Even if the determinants of a name's reference are more complex than Kripke's simplified tale would allow, they do seem to remain in the purview of the "being who sees the whole history of the affair." and do not correspond to the description summing up the cognitive significance of the name for its users.

Causal descriptivism [33, 217-222] considers a token of a name *t* to have the semantic value of the definite description 'the individual dubbed in the ceremony connected by a causal-historical chain to *t*'. While this view illustrates the peculiar resilience of descriptivism, its detractors claim that such a description will not capture the cognitive significance of the name-token (especially among those unacquainted with the causal-historical account of reference).

On Russell's theory of definite descriptions, they are quantifiers, and as such can in principle take wide or narrow scope with respect to sentential operators. As Dummett points out, this means that all Kripke's modal argument shows is that names (considered as descriptions) obligatorily take wide scope with respect to metaphysical modal operators. A representation of on which the names (each interpreted as the description 'the teacher of Alexander') take wide scope (giving a reading that is false) appears below:

12. There is a problem with this approach, however. Since names must sometimes take narrow scope in attitude contexts (in order to account for Fregean intuitions), a sentence where the name appears (on the surface) below an attitude verb which is itself in the scope of a metaphysical modal would place conflicting requirements on the putative scope of a name:

13. Homer might have believed that the Morning Star is the Evening Star

On the favoured reading (on which the proposition Homer might have believed is non-trivial), (13) provides a counterexample to the proposed rule that names take scope over metaphysical modals (there might, of course, be a more complex rule in play that can explain both judgments—viz. that names take scope over metaphysical modals unless doing so will cause them to scope over an attitude verb).

Kripke's modal argument claims that names differ from definite descriptions in that they are rigid designators. However, certain definite descriptions designate rigidly too. For instance, the extension of 'the even prime' is 2 at every possible world. A popular descriptivist response to the modal argument is then to semantically equate names with *rigid* definite descriptions. Indeed, we can inoculate existing description theories against the modal argument by the process of *rigidification*. Two ways to rigidify a non-rigid definite description have been explored. One is to prefix it with a term-forming *dthat* operator. Another is to apply the "actually" operator to the nominal restrictor of the description. These procedures are described below [12, 1016].

The "actually" operator in modal logic is supposed to mirror the behavior of the English adverb 'actually' and adjective 'actual' in the examples below:

14. I thought your yacht was longer than it actually is.

15. The actual teacher of Alexander might not have taught Alexander.

Models for the interpretation of modal logic consist of a pointed set (i.e., a set with a designated member) of possible worlds, an accessibility relation, and a valuation function. The designated world, also known as the actual world, is required to define truth in such structures (as opposed to global truth or satisfiability). Actualist modal logics include an operator (the "actually" operator) that shifts the point of evaluation of the formula in its scope back to the actual world. It follows that while the intension of the description 'the number of planets' picks out a different number at certain different possible worlds, the intension of 'the (number of planets)' picks out 8 at every world (making it rigid). This is because the predicate '(number of planets)' is true, at a world w , of whatever the

predicate ‘number of planets’ is true of at the actual world. In general, adding the ‘actually’ operator takes a possibly nonrigid definite description ‘the F ’ and turns it into a description ‘the (F)’ whose intension rigidly picks out the object that is F in the actual world.

Rigidification comes at a cost. Prior to rigidification, we could distinguish the descriptivist intensions of the names ‘the Morning Star’ and ‘the Evening Star’. However, once they are rigidified (for instance to ‘the (heavenly body seen in the morning)’ and ‘the (heavenly body seen in the evening)’) their intensions coincide (as the constant function that picks out Venus relative to every possible world). Thus we can no longer distinguish their cognitive values on an intensionalist sense theory. Those who adopt actualist rigidification therefore tend to be Russellians, and equate the semantic/cognitive value of a name not with its intension, but with a structured function (the contribution a Russellian definite description makes to a structured proposition). With this technology, theorists can distinguish the values of the two descriptions above, since they are structures with different components notion of intensional isomorphism.

Explaining rigidification by the *dthat* term-forming operator requires some further setup, provided in the following section.

Before moving on, note that certain non-rigid definite descriptions, such as ‘the man in the corner’, pattern with names rather than with the “role-type” definite descriptions in examples like [7]. In other words, the modal argument does not distinguish ordinary names from a broad class of “particularized” definite descriptions. Moreover, certain special names, such as ‘Miss America’, behave in much the same way as role-type descriptions.

On Kaplan's [39] semantics of indexical expressions, the *character* of an expression is distinguished from its content relative to a context. Indexicals, like the pronoun ‘I’, receive a different content (they are used to refer to different individuals) in different contexts. Kaplan nevertheless thought something remained constant in different contexts—the linguistic meaning of ‘I’. He proposed to identify this meaning with a function from contexts to contents (what he called the

“character” of ‘I’). In the case of the first-person pronoun, this function maps a context c onto the speaker in c . The character of ‘I’ thus corresponds to the linguistic rule that ‘I’ picks out the speaker of the context.

As Kaplan [39] emphasizes, character has affinities with Frege's notion of sense. It corresponds to a level of linguistic meaning distinct from reference. It also captures (at a certain level) the cognitive significance of an indexical expression for those competent in the language. As with Frege's notion, there is a connection between character and definite descriptions. Kaplan introduced a term-forming expression, *that*, which combines with a definite description. The *character* of this complex term corresponds to the *intension* of the embedded definite description (i.e., the function that maps any world w onto the unique object that satisfies the descriptive content in w). That is to say, the character of the term ‘*that*(the F)’ is the function that maps any context c onto the constant function from worlds to the object that is F in c . For example, ‘*that*(the speaker)’ (simplifying somewhat) has the same character as ‘I’. Adding the operator thus *rigidifies* the description by projecting its descriptive content onto the level of character.

A name, considered as a generic syntactic type (see Syntax above), refers to different individuals depending on the context. We might therefore treat the generic name ‘Alice’ as having a character equivalent to ‘*that*(the individual called “Alice”)’. The cognitive significance ascribed to a generic name, on this account (corresponding to its character), is the same as that ascribed by metalinguistic descriptivists (on their account, corresponding to its intension). Indeed, this account is simply a rigidified version of metalinguistic descriptivism [21].

On the other hand, if names are individuated, as Kripke and Kaplan would have it, by naming ceremony, a different view of the character of names applies. Just as the reference of ‘I’ depends on who is speaking, the reference of ‘Alice-1’ (a particular name of the generic form ‘Alice’) depends on the individual dubbed in an earlier naming ceremony. We might treat the character of ‘Alice-1’ as follows:

16. The individual dubbed in the ceremony that is the source (in c) of ‘Alice-1’

Once again, this is a rigidified version of an existing description theory, viz. causal descriptivism. Other versions of descriptivism that we have seen so far could also be rigidified using the *that* operator. The context-sensitive theory, on which the nominal predicate is itself provided by context is an interesting (and extremely powerful) variant.

A general problem that the “character-descriptivist” accounts above must face is Frege's puzzle of the failure of coreferring names to intersubstitute *salva veritate* in propositional attitude contexts. Propositional attitude reports containing names that differ in character but not content, on the standard semantics provided by Kaplan, will themselves not differ in content (and thus truth-value). In order to parlay a difference in character into a difference in truth-value, propositional attitude verbs would need to operate on character rather than content. **Two-dimensional semantics** [39] instead identifies two different kinds of intension, one of which is closely related to character (it is a function from contexts or epistemically possible states to extensions) and serves as the object of attitudes. Kaplan himself rules out contextual variation (i.e., a non-constant character) in names. As he writes :

Those who suggest that proper names are merely one species of indexical depreciate the power and the mystery of the causal chain theory.

According to him, Kripke's theory of how names refer is “pre-semantic.” Unlike the character of ‘I’, which captures its linguistic meaning, the suggested non-constant character for ‘Alice-1’ would encapsulate a pre-semantic fact, one that doesn't belong in the language-user's repertoire.

While the causal-historical theory implies that the reference of a name is determined by facts about the context, this context-dependence should not necessarily be encoded in its character (linguistic meaning). The covariation of reference with alternative facts about the context could, however, correspond to our *imperfect knowledge* of the settled (pre-semantic) facts that determine meaning. That is to say, while the character-like function from contexts to individuals in (14) is not (on this view) the linguistic meaning of ‘Alice-1’, it

might nevertheless correspond to its cognitive significance for language-users with a less than perfect grasp of the pre-semantic facts. This means that the function will still fulfill one of the key roles of sense. Stalnaker pursues a solution to Frege's puzzle along these lines.

Kripkeans and Fregeans alike assume that a name determines a (perhaps partial) function from worlds to entities (for Kripke this function is constant). Millianism and the intensional interpretation of Frege's view both entail this thesis ("functionalism") about names. Russellian descriptivism also entails it, for a Russellian description (if proper) has a unique witness at certain worlds (including the actual one). However, the thesis is not true of all uses of names, as we can see from the following case, due to Josh Dever . Suppose Sherlock Holmes gives an interim account of a case that begins as follows:

17. The murder was committed by two individuals, call them *X* and *Y*. First note that, since there is no sign of a struggle, both *X* and *Y* were known to the victim.

'*X*' and '*Y*' are names. It is possible, as recognized by Kripke , to introduce a name in the course of a conversation. Kripke only considered names that were introduced using a definite description (for instance, Evans' example of the introduction of '*Julius*' to refer to the inventor of the zip), and so had a determinate reference (and intension). In (18), '*X*' and '*Y*' are interchangeable names for the pair of murderers. If the murder was in fact committed by Louise and Auguste Lumiere, then we might propose that the conjoined noun phrase '*X* and *Y*' refers to them. However, there seems to be no consideration in favour of treating '*X*' as referring to Louise rather than Auguste or vice versa.

In fact, Dever's case is more complex than it needs to be. A simple case of a name introduced by an *indefinite* noun phrase makes the same point.

18. A man, call him '*Ernest*', was walking in the park at 3pm today. Ernest sat down on this bench.

Some would argue that the use of '*Ernest*' in the second sentence in (18) is referential, referring to the individual the speaker of had in mind. However, it is

possible that one who utters (18) has no-one in mind (consider Holmes concluding (18) on the basis of statistical patterns of pedestrian traffic in the park). It is also plausible that (18) is true even if the speaker is wrong about the person they had in mind, so long as there was another man who acted in the manner described. On such an understanding of (18), the occurrence of ‘Ernest’ is interpreted, not referentially, but as an existentially bound variable. It follows that there is no function from worlds to individuals that corresponds to this use of the name (if there were, it would single out a determinate individual at the actual world, and we have just seen that this leads to the wrong interpretation). Note that appeal to Kaplan's notion of character is not availing in this instance, since character is itself functional. If the character determines a functional content (an intension) at a context c , then it will determine a referent at c (the result of applying the intension to the world coordinate of c).

One view of names that is able to account for examples like (18) treats them as *anaphoric* expressions, similar to pronouns. The anaphoric view is compatible with descriptivism (for instance, Geurts [21] is a proponent of both views), so long as definite descriptions are understood as anaphors. An early proponent of the anaphoric view is Fred Sommers. Sommers thinks of Kripke's dubbing ceremony as “an act that introduces a *special duty* pronoun”. Burge, who is, as remarked above, a demonstrativist, represents the semantic value of a demonstrative (and so an argumental occurrence of a name) with a variable. When this variable remains free, it is given a value by the speaker's act of demonstration (modeled by a variable assignment). However, Burge also anticipates cases in which the variable is bound by a preceding quantifier (including an example like (18), in which the quantifier is existential). In such cases, the demonstrative (or argumental name) is interpreted as “a pronominal place marker” —i.e., an anaphor.

1.2. The classification of proper nouns in English.

Proper nouns (also called proper names) are the names of unique entities. For example, "Janet", "Jupiter" and "Germany" are proper nouns [39]. Proper nouns are usually capitalized in English and most other languages that use the Latin

alphabet and this is one easy way to recognize them. However, in German nouns of all types are capitalized. The convention of capitalizing all nouns was previously used in English, but has long fallen into disuse. All other nouns are called common nouns. For example, "girl", "planet", and "country" are common nouns. Sometimes the same word can function as both a common noun and a proper noun, where one such entity is special. For example: "There can be many gods, but there is only one God." This is somewhat magnified in Hebrew where EL means god (as in a god), God (as in the God), and El (the name of a particular Canaanite god). The common meaning of the word or words constituting a proper noun may be unrelated to the object to which the proper noun refers. For example, someone might be named "Tiger Smith" despite being neither a tiger nor a smith. For this reason, proper nouns are usually not translated between languages, although they may be transliterated. For example, the German surname Knud^udel becomes Knodel or Knoedel in English (not the literal Dumpling). However, the translation of place names and the names of monarchs, popes, and non-contemporary authors is common and sometimes universal. For instance, the Portuguese word Lisboa becomes Lisbon in English; the English London becomes Londres in French; and the Greek Aristotelēs becomes Aristotle in English.

Chapter II. Linguistic peculiarities of proper nouns proverbs and sayings

It is generally agreed among linguists that PNs are a universal linguistic category. Their status and function is a theoretical issue debated by many scholars, whose views are discussed in Carroll , Coates and Van Langendonck . The topic is complex and controversial, and the account given will be brief and schematic; this means that some aspects will not be considered.

PNs constitute a system organized according to criteria varying across cultures, and provide an interpretation of the society of which they are the expression. They are linguistic items fulfilling a referential function, i. e. they refer to single entities existing in the real world. Like deictics, they enable primary identification of their referents; but, unlike deictics, they are not dependent on the immediate situational context [39]. Like nouns, PNs constitute an open class of words and, hence, are lexical rather than grammatical; but, unlike nouns, they lack lexical meaning.

Let us now survey the main linguistic features of PNs in English. Their first feature is the initial-capitalization in writing, whose function is to distinguish a PN from a common noun, e.g. *Rosemary* vs. *rosemary*. They are subject to some word formation processes: for example, hypocorisms can be formed from full first names, employing various mechanisms, as illustrated in (1):

(1) FULL FORM HYPOCORISM

John	Johnny	(suffixation)
Joseph	Joe	(shortening)
Richard	Dick	(shortening and phonological modification)

With regard to grammar, names raise various issues. One issue concerns the internal structure of names: they can be mono- or polylexemic, sometimes incorporating the article (e.g. *London*, *John Smith*, *The Dead Sea*); personal names can be preceded by a title (e.g. *Mr Smith*, *Aunt Mary*), whose status is rather controversial.

A major issue is represented by the different uses of names [21]. In their primary use as referring expressions, PNs can occupy the NP slot, as in (2a–b), but can also function as vocatives, as in (2c), and occur in close appositional structures, as in (2d):

- (2) (a) He loves Mary.
- (b) They live in Oxford.
- (c) I read that, Walter.
- (d) The poet Tennyson died early.

In secondary uses, names can take on the semantic value 'entity called X', and have a plural form, as in (3):

- (3) There are few Alfreds in the class.

They can occur with determiners: the article *the* or *a/an*, as in (4 a–b); quantifiers, as in (4c); possessives, as in (4d); demonstratives, as in (4e):

- (4) (a) I haven't been in touch with the Joneses for ages.
- (b) I've never met an Ophelia.
- (c) I know three Ann Smiths.
- (d) My Jennifer has won the school prize again.
- (e) Who's this Penelope who's been sending you emails?

They can be modified by adjectives, restrictive relative clauses or PPs, as in (5), (6), (7), respectively:

- (5) He's the famous George.
- (6) This is the Paris I prefer to forget.
- (7) The London of my childhood was different.

To account for these data, analysts distinguish between the grammatical category 'proper name' having the syntactic status of NP, assigned to the names in (2), and the category 'proper noun', having the status of common noun, assigned to the names in (3).

Let us now consider the semantics of PNs, an issue much discussed from Mill onwards. They are diachronically motivated, and a meaningful etymon is found in most cases: e.g. family names derive from elements of common vocabulary referring to parentage (*son of Richard* > *Richardson*), or occupation (*miller* > *Miller*). But they are synchronically opaque; as stated by Lyons, "it is widely, though not universally, accepted that proper names do not have sense".

Provided that they are elements fulfilling a referential function, how the relation between PN and referent is established can be explained pragmatically. A PN is assigned to a given referent by some social convention, and encyclopaedic information is associated with it in long-term memory. In particular, personal names may be attributed to more than one referent, yet, in discourse the encoder refers to a specific referent, situated in a given time and space. In order to understand which referent the encoder is referring to, the decoder must possess a competence of the name system as well as the chunks of encyclopaedic knowledge associated with a name to establish a link between PN and referent. Only when the decoder retrieves associated information from his/her knowledge, the 'virtual' referent is actualized, and the PN becomes a 'rigid designator'. Let us now consider (8):

(8) He saw Philip on the street corner.

The decoder recognizes *Philip* as a PN, but does not possess the chunk necessary to pair PN and referent. Yet, names can arouse expectations based on encyclopaedic knowledge; so *Philip* is expected to be the first name of a male human being'. Hence the decoder interprets the name as 'male human being', but it might refer to a dog.

In short, PNs constitute a class of linguistic items sharing features with both nouns and deictics. Formally, PNs share some grammatical features with common nouns, but differ from them in various respects. Both PNs and deictics lack lexical meaning and have a referential function; but, while the interpretation of deictics depends on the situational context, the interpretation of PNs depends on the

linguistic context and encyclopaedic knowledge. In interpreting the PN, the decoder first has to recognize whether its use is referential or figurative, relying on the linguistic context²; then, s/he will activate encyclopaedic knowledge or recur to her/his lexical competence, if the item is lexicalized [25, 608]. Finally, PNs refer to a 'fixed' referent, while deictics to a referent that can vary according to the situational context.

Another use of names is central to understand the phenomenon under discussion. PNs, in particular personal names, more rarely place names, are used figuratively as metaphors, similes, hyperboles and antonomastics, either in a creative way (e.g. *He is a new Hemingway*) or as lexicalized items. In these uses, PNs have a descriptive function: they indicate some salient attribute or property of the referent of the name. They function as nouns, taking on both a denotational and a connotational meaning originated in a selection of salient bits of information extracted from encyclopaedic knowledge about a referent. Consider the examples in (9):

- (9) (a) She is playing Pollyanna.
(b) The war is becoming a Vietnam.

In (9a), *Pollyanna*, referring to the chief character in the novel *Pollyanna* by E. Porter, denotes a person constantly or excessively optimistic. In (9b), *Vietnam*, referring to the country where US troops intervened, takes on the meaning 'disastrous military intervention'.

The metaphorical use of PNs reflects cultural specificities that can pose problems in translation. As we shall see in the next sections, names show their more complex properties and their culture-specific features in phraseology. Since it abounds in cultural information, Russian scholars argue that linguo-cultural analysis is best suited for this area of language.

2.1. The role of proper nouns in proverbs and sayings.

As we know English proverbs are very rich and we can notice them by their semantic, syntactic, grammatical categories of proverbs [21]. As we know in grammar we can learn grammatical categories, parts of speech and their functions in sentences. From ancient time the Proverbs and sayings help us to learn English, because by these proverbs we can introduce with the history of country, their life, traditions, habits and culture, by the way they are good example of English culture and language. In old times people were learning Latin by using proverbs. Proverbs - are useful material to show, how one thought could be understood in several different ways and we can differentiate the meaning of proverbs. They make speech alive and interesting. English proverbs and have exclusive meaning, every proverb could be used in different situations, they could be understood mostly by English speaking part of the world, but not by any other people, because if foreigner translate them into his native language he will get something strange. A very little part of English proverbs and sayings can be translated and understood by words. In most cases English proverbs have the same meaning as proverbs in other languages. By translation them we can get similarities and differences of proverbs.

Here I want notice some differences of proverbs:

1. As you sow, so shall you reap

Как посеешь, так и пожнешь,

Что посеешь, то и пожнешь

2. Good clothes open all doors.

По одежде встречают.

Хорошая одежда открывает все двери.

Love is stronger than death

Любовь сильнее смерти.

As we mentioned the study of proverbs is called paremiology (from Greek παροιμία - paroimia, "proverb") and the great linguist can be dated back as far as Aristotle. According to Kindstrand & Russo, they were the great scientists who devoted his life to proverb and they said: "the definition of a proverb has caused scholars from many disciplines much chagrin over the centuries. Many attempts at definition have been made from Aristotle to the present time, ranging from philosophical considerations to cut-and-dry lexicographical definitions". That is why from the life of Aristotle in society the people use their own proverbs or sayings. Another theorist who has mentioned some characteristics of proverbs is Trench. By the opinion of Trench he states that three things go to the constituting of a proverb, they are: shortness, sense, and salt. These characteristics are elaborated on briefly. Here is we can illustrate our opinions with facts [39].

1. Shortness (Brevity): According to Trench "a proverb must have shortness; it must be succinct, utterable in a breath". He points out that "it is, indeed, quite certain that a good proverb will be short-as is compatible with full and forcible conveying of that which it intends. He mentioned brevity, "the soul of wit", will be eminently the soul of a proverb's wit. Oftentimes it will consist of two, three, or four, and these sometimes monosyllabic words". This characteristic is obvious in proverbs such as extremes meet; forewarned, forearmed and a thousand more. Furthermore he mentions that:

Shortness is only a relative term, and it would perhaps be more accurate to say that a proverb must be concise-cut down, that is, to the fewest possible words; condensed, quintessential wisdom but that, if only it fulfill this condition of being as short as possible, it need not be absolutely very short, there are sufficient examples to prove this. But I think that by shortness the meaning of proverbs cut down. As we know the proverbs have short form, but the meaning is wider than shortness.

2. Sense: Trench states that the sense is sometimes sacrificed to alliteration. But especially by the sense we can feel the inner world of the given proverbs. For

example: “Live and learn”, “First think then say” i.e. especially by the abstract nouns there can be sensitiveness.

3. Salt: Trench asserts that "a proverb must have salt, that is, besides its good sense it must in its manner and outward. Contrary to some isolated opinions, proverbs have not lost their usefulness in modern society. As we know without salt we cannot eat any food. It will not be delicious for us. The proverbs are also like this. They serve people well during the oral speech or during the communication and the written word, coming to mind almost automatically as prefabricated verbal units. While the frequency of their employment might well vary among people and contexts, proverbs are a significant rhetorical force in various modes of communication, from friendly chats, powerful political speeches, and religious sermons to lyrical poetry, best-seller novels, and the influential mass media. Proverbs are in fact everywhere, and it is exactly their ubiquity that has led scholars from many disciplines to study them from classical times to the modern age. There is no doubt that the playful alteration of the proverb “If the shoe fits, wear it” to “If the proverb fits, use it” says it all! Form being pointed and pungent, having a sting in it, a barb which shall not suffer it to drop lightly from the memory proverbs."

During the study grammatical structure of proverbs we can differentiate the semantic, syntactic, morphologic sides of the proverbs. It has occurred to me that a comprehensive listing of all IH grammatical and lexical traits identified in the afforested works would be of value to the scholarly community. This is especially necessary because my approach has been to proceed through the selected IH composition verse-by-verse in systematic fashion, as opposed to methodically presenting the material feature by- feature. Thus, for example, a specific syntactic feature may be treated near the beginning of a particular article or monograph, because said feature appears near the beginning of the composition treated; while conversely a phonological feature may be discussed toward the end of the article or book, because said feature occurs toward the end of the composition being studied. In the situation just posited, this would run counter to the normal approach to

grammar, which begins with phonology, proceeds to morphology, and then includes with syntax.

A proverb is usually recognized by the fixed, often short form and is therefore quite easy to memories. Many proverbs also contain metaphors. Proverbs often have multiple meanings and are therefore dependent on context and should be analyzed in whatever context they are found. Other proverbial features concern style. We can define certain stylistic features that are applicable on proverbs. These include phonic markers such as alliteration, rhyme and meter, e.g. Practice makes perfect; A little pot is soon hot, semantic markers such as parallelism, irony, paradox, e.g. Easy come, easy go; The longest way around is the shortest way home, and lexical markers like archaic words. The traditional function of proverbs is didactic, as they contain “wisdom, truth, morals and traditional views” [20]. Proverbs are basically conversational, but occur commonly in both spoken and written communication, e.g. lectures, newspapers, speeches, books, fables and poetry. Proverbs are used in a wide range of situations and according to there are no limits to the use of the proverb. They can be used to: “strengthen our arguments, express certain generalizations, influence or manipulate other people, rationalize our own shortcomings, question certain behavioral patterns satirize social ills, poke fun at ridiculous situations” “advise, console, inspire, comment on events, interpret behavior and [21]foster attitudes, such as optimism, pessimism and humility”

Proverbs are learned easily and repeated with great regularity. Because they are brief (a line or two), their power as a teacher is often overlooked. By the proverbs we can inform about this or that peoples life, language, traditions and culture. These proverbs survive so that each generation learns what a culture deems significant. As Sellers tells you, "proverbs reunite the listener with his or her ancestors". Samovar also mentions that because all people, regardless of their culture, share common experiences, many of the same proverbs appear throughout the world. For example, in nearly every culture some degree of thrift and hard work is stressed. Hence in Germany the proverb states, " One who does not honor the penny is not worthy of the dollar." But in the United States people are told, "A

penny saved is a penny earned." Because silence is valued in Japan and China, a Japanese proverb says, "The quacking duck is the first to get shot". In addition to numerous universal proverbs, there are also thousands of proverbs that each culture uses to teach lessons that are unique to that particular culture. By these proverbs, phraseological units we can introduce with social life of this or that country, their traditions, habits, superstitions and etc. Here some examples of proverbs: features, metaphor, semantic signs, lexical markers (archaic words), phonic signs (rising tones or falling tones, rhyme, alliteration) or proverbially depends on traditionalism, currency, repetition. Peter Grzybek and his German and Austrian colleagues have recently argued that paremiologists must work empirically to establish what proverbs in standard collections and in oral speech are known to native speakers today. [21] I think we use proverbs during the speech and in literary books as you know by this way the story or speech will be understandable for the reader and listener.

□ **"If you can't beat them, join them"** (If you cannot win against someone, it may be easier to join together with them to be stronger.)

□ **"Birds of a feather flock together"**
(People who are alike tend to stick together.)

□ **"A chain is only as strong as its weakest link"**
(If one member of a group is weak, then the whole group is weak.)

□ **"The best things in life are free"**
(The best things in life are love, friendship, and family. We don't have to pay for those things)

□ **"Don't bite the hand that feeds you"**
(Don't hurt the person or people who take care of you.)

□ **"Familiarity breeds contempt"**
(We begin to hate those we are closest to. This can also refer to objects.)

□ **"It's a man's world"**
(The world seems to revolve around men, and it is difficult for women to become successful in a man's world.)

□ **"One good turn deserves another"**

(If someone does something nice for you, you should do something nice in return.)

□ **"United we stand, divided we fall"**

(We will be more successful if we work together.)

From ancient times to the modern age, many have attempted to solve the problem of properly defining a proverb. In fact, Archer Taylor's study of The Proverb as a whole can be understood as an attempt to define proverbs. But before these scientists our great ancestors also said meaningful proverbs, for example Aristotel, Socrat, Ptolomey and so on. The same is basically true for Neal R. Norrick's valuable book on How Proverbs Mean: Semantic Studies in English Proverbs [10]. There are also valuable shorter essays on this important topic, notably Alan Dundes, «On the Structure of-the Proverb». Especially we use in proverbs certain grammatical or syntactical features, metaphor, semantic signs, lexical markers(archaic words), phonic signs(rising tones or falling tones, rhyme, alliteration) or proverbially depends on traditionalism, currency, repetition .Peter Grzybek and his German and Austrian colleagues have recently argued that paremiologists must work empirically to establish what proverbs in standard collections and in oral speech are known to native speakers today.[21] I think we use proverbs during the speech and in literary books as you know by this way the story or speech will be understandable for the reader and listener.

2.2. A cognitive-pragmatic features of proper nouns in the structure of English phraseology.

In the domain of modern linguistics aspects of cognitive and pragmatic trends of the text prevail. The obligatory element of fairy-tale discourse is proper names (the object of our article) which have semantic, communicative and cognitive charge. By the definition of New Webster's Dictionary, proper names (PN) – are nouns or adjectives, naming a specific person and are written with a capital letter [35, 19]. PN have a special status in the language and do not submit to certain laws which are typical for common names. Onomastics, as a part of lexicology, has been distinguished as an independent science when scientists clearly realized the difference of PN from common names [28, 12-13]. Cognitive orientation of PN, their orientation to the reader, author's intention which are implicated in PN are the subject of the article. Communicative and cognitive approach to PN and their functioning in the text are relevant in today's mainstream linguistics [29. 67-90]. The purpose of this article is studying of the background knowledge, which contain PN in the English fairy-tale discourse and their cognitive orientation to the reader.

O.S. Akhmanova identifies PN as words or phrases which specific purpose is in identifying individual items without regard to their characteristics, i.e. without establishing the correspondences between qualities of subjects [25, 608]. As S.M. Spivak points out, PN are codes of background knowledge, specific types of compressed national and cultural texts that stored in their semantic memory cultural and historical subjects, written in the contemporary social consciousness. Means of nomination and images which are laid up in the basis of the name are ethnically defined, despite the fact that typical nature and anthropological universals in the imagery of the names are common. Names and nicknames in colloquial language are associated with the realities, traditions and religion. Culture and social life are always reflected in PN. Extra linguistic factors significantly have an effect on the quality of the names and their place in the

language as linguistic signs that identify an individual and have a strongly marked national and cultural component. PN as a unit category, are used for highlighting, identification and characterization of a certain reality and at the same time help to activate knowledge about it. PN perform nominative function and function of representing an individual fragments of the world and its conceptualization.

O. V. Superanska points out that PN don't have connotations (conditional intention in other words); they have denotation, because they nominate an individual to differentiate him among others [36, 366]. The meaning of PN is known only to those whom the individual is introduced to. In the language beyond the discourse PN don't have the denotative value. Cognitive orientation of PN is in understanding of the act of nomination from the cognitive position and in finding answers to questions, what sets of concepts and why are verbalized in a particular language, what a particular form of speech is herewith selected [35, 19]. Speech and cognitive development have an effect on each other, and the names, including PN, are the sources of knowledge about objects. Cognition and communication as the main functions of the language, equally determine its specificity and structure. They should be explored at their permanent agreement and interdependence.

Often PN transfer to addressee an information and knowledge about the status and position, which the individual in society takes. The social status of a person - is the position of a person in a social system, rights, duties and as a result - the mutual expectation of a certain behavior. Herewith the individual characteristics of a person occupy a secondary position. An indication of the status of a person is often his name. Nationality, sex, age and marital status of the individual are encoded in the name. Even the right to have a name may be the evidence of a social status. If we investigate PN from the cognitive position in a certain society we can gain knowledge about general and specific model of behavior of people who speak a common language and share a system of appraisal norms of the society, to establish principles of social organization. The expression of social status in PN can have both implicit (connotations, associations) and explicit nature.

PN are more than common names respond to social changes. In PN, regardless of the will of those who give the name, the culture and social life are always reflected. Doing a number of social functions, PN live and develop under the laws of language, while the reasons that stimulate the development of nominal systems are social in origin, i.e. are beyond linguistics. Even the form of the name - a structural component of onomastics [28, 12-13] – in some way is conditioned by social factors.

There are four main ways of PN origin: transformation from common names in PN (onimisation), borrowing of foreign PN, transition of PN from one level to another one (transonimisation) and the artificial creation of occasional names[29, 67-90]].

Unlike PN, common names relate an object to its class, have basic and additional connotations. The proper names are associated with an individual object or multiple objects of the same name, each of which is taken individually. PN mean a separate subject, not associated with the concept, but they can have other connotations. If a side connotation develops into a major one, PN become common names. PN are always specific. If concreteness of an object is not available, the tendency of PN transformation in common names is observed. These processes between proper and common names (CN) form a universal group of names in language systems. They occupy a central place in the vector of common names (CN₁) - PN- CN₂.

CN₁ and CN₂ identify an object, actualize denotative or connotative meaning. Unlike CN, PN point at a single object, name it. An object that calls PN is specific. Over time PN will be converted to CN, the tendency of transformation PN → CN will become up-to-date.

PN, which are formed from common names, can develop their derivational paradigm. Derived from the PN words retain the seme of the name. Compare: англ. *present-day Shakespeare, Conan Doyle's style*; укр. *сучасний Франко, шевченківський стиль*. These derivatives enrich their semantics, indicate the typed characteristics of these individuals.

The emergence of new connotations becomes possible due to influence of extra linguistic factors. For example, when the denotation of PN is known to members of a certain society. In this case, the name returns to the paradigm of CN. Appealing of PN in fiction is presented in so-called expressive names. These names are identical in their shapes to common names that denote the most peculiar features of a character. The name of the character is an important factor in the creation of the work. It updates the author's pragmatic orientation of the text on the reader's complicity. The main aim of PN appeal function is excitation of images and emotions caused by the values contained in the associative and semantic field of PN. Affectability of PN, in its turn, activates the process of its understanding. Thus the contact between an author and a reader is created, ensuring the success of creative communication.

In the literary work the name plays an important role as a landmark in time and space. In the language of fiction a former common meaning of the name can have characterological application; name and surname of the character may be a part of its characteristics. The simplest example is expressive names and surnames [34, 753]. The names of literary characters we can divide into those that characterize them explicitly and implicitly, and as a conclusion we can say that a moment of characteristics is more important than just a nomination in fiction.

Communicative and pragmatic approach to the study of PN foresees the determination of functional and pragmatic properties of PN in English literary discourse, clarifying conceptual basis of compositional and semantic structure and role of PN in its formation. Notional filling of PN is determined by semantic analysis of descriptions and definitions which are contained in the culturological dictionaries.

Proper names of the famous collection by Clive Lewis "The Chronicles of Narnia" cause the research interest, as a store of factual material for linguistic research, and especially for onomastics [29, 12-13]. Naming the character, PN become a thematic word. Thanks to its inseparability from the character, the name is perceived in associative complex with it, get the right not only to indicate the

denoted object, but also serves as its characterological representative. That is, when PN are in the context, it can take any content. Meaningful saturation of PN occurs gradually. It includes all the skills of the character, which author gives to him.

Characters of the series of fantastic tales (“The Chronicles of Narnia”) possess with extraordinary power, capability, creativity which help them to overcome all the trials on the way to the goal. According to thematic basis we can divide tales into magical, domestic and animalistic [39]. Fantastic tales originally had a magical purpose, which over time has been lost. In modern fiction tales mythical fantastic and heroic principles are combined. One of the main functions of fairy tales is cognitive, that is accumulated in PN of characters of a tale which transfer cognitive information and carry the knowledge about national peculiarities of a certain ethnos and way of their life, work, mode of life, natural environment, individual features of narrator and characters.

Conf.: *And in those days there lived in London a girl called Polly Plummer. Plummer* ← англ. *plum* – укр. *ласий шматочок; вигідне замовлення* ← *слива* [39]. The name of the main character of the tale, a little English girl, who needs adventure and communication, contains a clear motivation, however, is quite typical for the British. Comp.: *for Digory was the sort of person who wants to know everything, and when he grew up he became the famous Professor Kirke who comes into other books. Digory* ← англ. *digo* – укр. *гребля, загама*. *Kirke* ← англ. *kirk* – укр. *церква*. From PN of these characters we will learn about true, reliable friend and clever, well-educated person. Comp.: *“That was the secret of secrets,” said the Queen Jadis. Jadis* ← англ. *jadish* – укр. *непристойний, нечесний*. The name of the queen gives the reader a certain idea about this character, prepare to perceive this person as a negative personage [11, 1016].

A specific feature of tales by Clive Lewis “The Chronicles of Narnia” is a combination of a fantastic type of tales with animalistic ones. Animals in these tales act side by side with people and magical creatures, performing good or bad deeds. Tales about animals are genetically the most ancient, associated with

totemic representations. C. Lewis, using the knowledge and experience, accumulated by the English nation, makes animals characters of his tales and instead naming them, he capitalizes common names of the animals, which become their proper names. The process of conversional transfer from common name to proper one takes place. Conf.: *The Lion was pacing to and fro about that empty land and singing his new song. The Lion* ← англ. *lion* – укр. *лев*. *The Jackdaw became so embarrassed that it hid its head under its wings as if it was going to sleep. The Jackdaw* ← англ. *jackdaw* – укр. *галка*. *Come hither to me, you the chief Dwarf, and you the River-god, and you Oak and the Owl, and both the Ravens and the Bull-Elephant. The Owl* ← англ. *owl* – укр. *сова*. *The Raven* ← англ. *raven* – укр. *ворон, крук*. *The Bull-Elephant* ← англ. *bull-elephant* – укр. *Слон* [17, 1824].

Cognitive-pragmatic orientation of this type of PN is for using names of animals according to historical and national perceptions of ethnos. Differentiation of animals into good and bad, clever and outspoken, brave and timid is in line with concept of the British about certain animals. That in its turn allows a reader to find out about the world outlook of a certain nation and helps children to learn more about animals and their characteristic features.

Conf.: *When the Bulldog spoke to him (or, as he thought, first snarled and then growled at him) he held out his shaking hand and gasped “Good Doggie, then, poor old fellow .The Bulldog* ← англ. *bulldog* – укр. *бульдог* (злий сильний собака). *“Well?” said the He-Beaver at last, “what, in the name of Aslan, are these?” The Beaver* ← англ. *beaver* – укр. *бобер*. *A Panther, which had been washing its face, stopped for a moment to say. Panther* ← англ. *panther* – укр. *пантера, леопард*. *“You surely don’t mean,” said the Jackdaw to the Badger, “that you think its a talking animal! It didn’t say any words.” The Badger* ← англ. *badger* – укр. *борсук*. *“I tell you what!” said the Donkey brightly, “perhaps it’s an animal that can’t talk but thinks it can.” The Donkey* ← англ. *donkey* – укр. *Осел* [18, 182-196].

On the material of previously mentioned examples we can see that the conversional transition from common names to proper names and the usage of PN formed in such a way, give to narrator a possibility to realize a cognitive function of PN and introduce to readers of all ages ethnical perceptions about certain phenomena [8].

Cognitive orientation of PN in the English fairy-tale discourse is shown in the information which PN contain, in their structure and semantic fullness that allows the reader to explore the world in the process of decoding PN. Further research will be devoted to poly aspects, poly functionality, poly modality of PN in English fairy-tale discourse.

Chapter III. The problem of translation and teaching proper nouns proverbs and sayings.

Generally speaking, nouns are divided into common and proper names. Proper names refer to a specific referent, that is, these names serve to distinguish a particular individual from others, for instance, Peter, Mike, Alice. Common names, on the other hand, refer to a class of individuals such as man, woman, and boy. It is noteworthy that distinction between these types of nouns gets blurred in some cases. Since it is outside the scope of this paper to present a full account of this issue, the present study tackles only personal names, which fall into the proper noun category [7, 97].

There is no doubt that translating personal names should not be assumed to be an easy issue inasmuch as it can turn out to be very troublesome in practice and needs very sensitive decision-making on the part of the translator within the translation process. A growing body of research shows that different translation procedures are applied in the process of translating personal names.

Albert Peter Vermes asserts that:

"The translation of proper names has often been considered as a simple automatic process of transference from one language into another, due to the view that proper names are mere labels used to identify a person or a thing. Contrary to popular views, the translation of proper names is a non-trivial issue, closely related to the problem of the meaning of the proper name."

Personal names in some cases can reveal some information by themselves [6]. The translator's knowledge of such information can sometimes be very effective in the translation process. In this regard, The Columbia Encyclopedia states that "English surnames developed in the late Middle Ages and, apart from patronymics, have a variety of origins; they come from places from trades, from personal traits, and from the calendar." In this respect, Mike Campbell states that most surnames fall into four categories [5]: a) they are derived from given names

such as Johnson, and Williams; b) they refer to the person's occupation like Clark, and Wright; c) they are derived from the location where the bearer lives; d) surnames can be derived from nicknames such as White, Young.

All languages have particular personal names, some of which are deeply rooted in the culture of the speakers of the specific language; consequently, they can pose unique difficulties in the comprehension of culture-specific texts. It is interesting to note that some personal names have specific connotations, and omitting this implied information results in unacceptable translation. For example, in the Persian culture, Hatam Taaei—the name of a very generous man in Iranian stories—is a symbol of generosity; accordingly, if a translator, who unaware of this fact, encounters this sentence "*My father is Hatam Taaei*" in a conversation of two friends talking about their fathers' characteristics, the translator may erroneously assume that the speaker introduces his or her father's name, not his personality [37, 34].

Bachman specifically points out that the knowledge of cultural references and of the figurative use of language should be considered as a focal element in the translation process. He holds that the readers and listeners need this type of knowledge to make sense of culture-specific names whenever such names occur. In the case of personal names, there is another point relevant to a peculiarity of some languages; translators must consider the fact that the order of first name and surname is not the same in all languages [9, 93-101]. In the Korean, Japanese, and Hungarian languages, for example, surname comes before first name, whereas this order is reversed in English, French, and most other Western languages [38, 230-235].

The rest of this paper is arranged in three sections: first, the definition of proper name, personal name, and various types of personal names; second, the explanation about some procedures of personal name translation; third, the conclusion.

According to *Wikipedia*, the on-line encyclopedia, a proper noun is "a word that serves the purpose of showing what thing it is that we are talking about, but not of telling anything about it."

Merriam Webster's Dictionary defines the proper noun as "a noun that designates a particular being or thing, does not take a limiting modifier, and is usually capitalized in English—called also proper name."

The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary says that a proper noun (or proper name) is "a word that is the name of a person, a place, an institution, etc. and is written with a capital letter"[12.10-16].

A proper noun has these distinctive features in English: 1) It will be capitalized, no matter where it occurs in a sentence. 2) A proper name is a mono-referential name, i.e., it refers to a particular person, thing, or place. 3) It is not regularly preceded by a definite or indefinite article. 4) It is not used with limiting modifiers, like a lot of or any.

Anna Fornalczyk states that anthroponymy, the study of the names of human beings, encompasses personal names and group names. She also considers that anthroponymy, in literary works, involves names of personified animals and fictitious creatures, as well [27, 146-151].

Wikipedia categorizes personal names into human personal names and non-human personal names. *Wikipedia* defines human personal name in the following way [39]:

"A personal name is the proper name identifying individual person, and usually comprises a given name bestowed at birth or at a young age. It is nearly universal for a human to have a name; the rare exceptions occur in the cases of mentally disturbed parents, or feral children growing up in isolation."

Based on *Wikipedia*, some humans give individual non-human animals and plants names, usually of endearment. For instance, the names of pets and sporting animals are often the same as human names. Nevertheless, this can be offensive and disrespectful to the person of the same name in some cultures such as the Chinese and the Iranian cultures.

Moreover, *Wikipedia* mentions that an article in the Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences claims that humans are not the only living creatures that use personal names. Researchers from the University of North Carolina, Wilmington, studying bottlenose dolphins in Sarasota Bay, Florida, found that the dolphins had personal names for one another. In this case, the interesting point is that a dolphin chooses its name as an infant.

The World Book Encyclopedia talks about personal name in this way[17, 1824]]:

"Practically everyone since the beginning of history has had a name. Almost all names have meanings. Early people bestowed a name with a definite consciousness of its meaning (...). But today, people give little thought to the meanings. Most people have a given name and family name. Many also have a middle name, and some have a nickname” .

Mike Campbell states that a personal name is a name that belongs to a person. He categorizes personal names in the following way:

- Given name / first name / Christian name / praenomen / middle name
- Family name / surname / last name / nomen / cognomen
- Nickname / agnomen / pet name / diminutive / byname
- Generation name
- Patronym / matronym / filiation

3.1. Ways of translation proper nouns proverbs and sayings.

With this section, we attempt to approach the concept of different types of personal name in order to delimit the object of the study [26, 41-44]. It is important to stress that not all types of personal names exist in all languages. Moreover, the translator must take cognizance of these different categories, since familiarity with them helps in the translation process.

In relation to the translation of personal names, translators should take this point into consideration whether or not it is possible or necessary to show that these classifications are different in the source and target languages [32, 261].

As mentioned previously, Campbell divides personal names into various categories [5]. He defines them as follows:

Number	Type of Personal Name	Definition
1	<u>Given name</u>	A given name is a <u>name</u> that is assumed by a person at or after birth. As opposed to a <u>family name</u> , it is generally not inherited.
2	<u>First name</u> or <u>Christian name</u>	In Europe and North America, where the given name precedes the family name, given names are called first names or forenames.
3	<u>Praenomen</u>	The praenomen (plural praenomina) was the ancient Roman <u>given name</u> . With a <u>nomen</u> and a <u>cognomen</u> it formed a complete <u>Roman name</u> . In Roman documents the praenomen was often abbreviated to one or two letters.
4	<u>Middle name</u>	In the English-speaking world, the middle name is a secondary <u>given name</u> . When the full name is presented, it is placed between the first name and the <u>surname</u> . People can have more than one middle name, though it is unusual to have none. Many people include their middle name as an <u>initial</u> in their <u>usual name</u> , for example George W. Bush. Others prefer their middle name and use it instead of their first name.

5	<u>Family name</u> or last name or surname	It is a name passed from one generation to the next. In many cultures a woman adopts her husband's family name when they are married.
6	<u>Nomen</u>	The nomen (plural nomina) was the Roman gens's (that is clan's) name. In the typical <u>Roman name</u> it was preceded by the <u>praenomen</u> and followed by the <u>cognomen</u>
7	<u>Cognomen</u>	The cognomen (plural cognomina) was one of the three parts of the typical <u>Roman name</u> . It followed the <u>praenomen</u> and <u>nomen</u> . Originally cognomina were <u>nicknames</u> , but by the time of the Roman Empire they were inherited from father to son. Thus the cognomen in combination with the nomen functioned as a <u>surname</u> , breaking families into smaller groups than just the nomen alone.
8	<u>Nickname</u>	A nickname is a substitute for a person's real <u>name</u> . It may be used because it is more familiar, more descriptive, or shorter than the real name. For example, Sue is the nickname of Susan.
9	<u>Agnomen</u>	The agnomen (plural agnomina) formed an additional part of some <u>Roman names</u> , usually following the <u>cognomen</u> . Usually they were <u>nicknames</u> acquired at some point during the lifetime, but, rarely, some agnomina were inherited.
10	<u>Pet name</u>	A pet name of a <u>given name</u> is a short and/or affectionate form. Often they are only used by

		friends and relatives.
11	<u>Diminutive</u>	It is the same as a pet name. They can be formed through various methods in different languages. Two of most typical ways in English are presented here: a) are those that are <u>short forms</u> of the original name, very often from the first syllable or sound of the name. For example, <u>Alex</u> is from <u>Alexander</u> ; b) they can also be obtained by adding a suffix, to the original name or short form of a name. In English, the -y/-ie suffix make diminutives such as, <u>Debbie</u> , <u>Charlie</u> , <u>Johnny</u> , and <u>Abby</u> .
12	Byname	A byname is a secondary <u>name</u> used to further identify a person. They were often <u>nicknames</u> (for example Erik the Red) or <u>patronyms</u> (for example John, son of William). Bynames can be considered <u>surnames</u> when they are inherited from one generation to the next.
13	<u>Generation name</u>	The generation name is used by some <u>Chinese</u> and <u>Korean</u> families. It is a <u>name</u> given to all newborns of the same generation of an extended family.
14	<u>Patronym</u>	A patronym (or patronymic) is a <u>name</u> derived from the name of the father or another paternal ancestor. Some <u>surnames</u> are patronymic in origin, like Peterson = "Peter's son". Some cultures, such as Iceland, use uninherited patronyms instead of surnames.

15	<u>Matronym</u>	A matronym (also matronymic) is a <u>name</u> derived from the name of the mother or another maternal ancestor.
16	<u>Filiation</u>	A filiation attached to a <u>name</u> describes the bearer's paternal descent. The complete <u>Roman name</u> sometimes had a filiation.

.Types of Personal Name [10]

Personal names often constitute a major problem in translation. For translating proper nouns, different models are suggested. In this respect, seven models presented by Hervey and Higgins , Newmark, Theo Hermans, Farzane Farahzad, Anthony Pym, Lincoln Fernandes, and Heikki Särkkä will be defined here [14].

I. Hervey and Higgins present these strategies for translating PNs[11] :

- Exotism: The name should remain unchanged from the SL to the TL. In this method no cultural transposition is occurred .
- Transliteration: The name is shifted to conform to the phonic or graphic rules of the TL.
- Cultural transplantation: The SL name is replaced by the TL name that has the same cultural connotation as the original one.

II. Peter Newmark holds that people's names should, as a rule, not be translated when their names have no connotation in the text. He adds some exceptions such as names of known saints, monarchs, and popes, which are known in the translated form in the TL.

Newmark also recommends that, in communicative translation, a personal name, along with its connotation, should be translated where proper names are treated connotatively. In spite of that, the PNs must be transferred in semantic translation .

In addition, with regard to names that have connotations in the imaginative literature such as in comedies, allegories, fairy tales, and some children's stories, Newmark recommends that they be translated. He adds that the previous rule should be followed unless, like in folk tales, nationality is a significant aspect.

In cases where both nationality and connotation are significant aspects, the most appropriate method, in Newmark's opinion, is first to translate the name to the TL, then to naturalize the translated word into a new proper name provided that the personal name is not yet current among the educated readers of the TL [16].

III. Theo Hermans believes that there are at least four strategies for translation of names [10]. He phrases them,

"They can be copied, i.e. reproduced in the target text exactly as they were in the source text. They can be transcribed, i.e. transliterated or adapted on the level of spelling, phonology, etc. A formally unrelated name can be substituted in the target text for any given name in the source text. And insofar as a name in a source text is enmeshed in the lexicon of that language and acquires 'meaning,' it can be translated".

Hermans contends that some other alternatives are also possible, namely various combinations of the above methods, omitting the source text (ST) proper name in the target text (TT), substitution of a common name in the TT for the PN in the ST, the insertion of the PN in the TT while no PN exists in the ST [10].

IV. Farzanne Farahzad [7] states that transliteration and transcription are used for translation of personal proper names. The latter is the replacement of one letter of the alphabet in the source language (SL) by another letter in the target language (TL). The former occurs when the letter of the target language shows the pronunciation of the PN in the source language.

She expounds that transcription suffers from the following defects:

- There are no established rules for transcription.
- The transcription of personal names varies on the basis of various accents such as American and British.

- The transcription may be influenced by the translator's pronunciation, which may lead to an incorrect transcription.
- The exact transcription of personal names is not always possible; that is, all languages do not have the same consonants or vowels.
- The pronunciation of personal names' transcription is more difficult than that of their translation.

In view of the foregoing reasons, she concludes that transliteration is a better strategy to be used by translators.

V. Anthony Pym [22] proposes that proper names not be translated

He also defines the result of transliteration operations as 'absolute equivalence' in that it results in the exact quantitative equality between input and output. In his view, the most problematic aspect of 'absolute equivalence' is that it is often unacceptable equivalence, unless much language learning is involved. In this regard, Pym contends that alternatives are imperative.

VI. Lincoln Fernandes lists a set of ten procedures in the translation of personal names as follows [8]:

- Rendition: When the in the ST is enmeshed in the TL, the meaning is rendered in the TL. For example, translating the word 'Lady' as 'Mulher,' which means 'woman' in Brazilian Portuguese, reveals that the translator has used a 'superordinate' (woman) instead of a hyponym of woman, a specific word such as 'senhora' or 'dama' (= lady).
- Copy: As a matter of fact, in this case, the name of the ST is exactly replicated in the TT—without any orthographic adjustment. As an illustration, Alice King is reproduced in the Arabic text—which has a different alphabet from English one—with no change.
- Transcription: This a method in which a name is transcribed in the equivalent characters of the TL. In order to keep the readability of the

TT, some other changes such as addition or shift in the position of the letters may occur e.g. Ahoshta Tarkaan is changed to Achosta Tarcaã.

- Re-creation: A newly-created name in the ST is recreated in the TT so that it reproduces the similar effects in the TL such as Mr. Ollivander that is translated to Sr. Olivares.
- Substitution: A TL name replaces the SL name, although they are formally and/or semantically unrelated.
- Deletion: In this type of strategy, the name in the ST is, partially or totally, omitted in the TT.
- Addition: Extra information is added to the SL name so that it can be more understandable and desirable to the target readers. As a matter of fact, this method may also be used to remove ambiguities in the TT.
- Transposition: This is a change of one part of speech for another one without any shift in the meaning. In fact, this a way for translating titles that have transparent role in literature for identifying particular literary works. Because of this reason, this procedure is taken into consideration here.
- Phonological Replacement: In this procedure, the phonological features of the original name are imitated in the TL. In other words, a TL name, which has a similar sound to the SL name, replaces the original name.
- Conventionality: This strategy is defined as the acceptance of a typical translation of a name in the SL. In view of this case, it is interesting to know that conventionality is often used with historical or literary individuals as well as geographical names.

VII. Heikki Särkkä [23] reports that there are four strategies for translating PNs;

- They can be transported completely from the TL to the SL (allowance being made for possible transliteration or transcription, depending on the SL).

- They can be partly transported from the SL and partly translated.
- They can be replaced with more or less different names in the TL.
- They can be dispensed with altogether.

Generally, personal names represent a real challenge for both professional and novice translators; therefore, they merit attention from researchers and scholars in the field of translation studies. Newmark [14] reports that proper names, which include personal names, represent a translation difficulty in different text types .

Being familiar with the culture, translators sometimes can infer some implied information such as gender, nationality, race, class, or religion from personal names. It is clear that translators must be familiar with culture of both the source and target languages, since awareness of these culture-bound names can lead to the most appropriate translation. Based on the foregoing information, it is significant to stress that the influence of culture on translation of personal names is undeniable [11].

Different translation procedures for translating personal names have been presented. In general, it should be noted that translators do not always use the same strategy for translation of all personal names in all kinds of texts. For example, Farahzad [7.] believes that translators should use transcription and transliteration techniques when translating personal names; however, translators of religious texts must use the most common existing equivalent of a personal name in the TL even if these equivalents do not follow the foregoing translation strategies.

Having briefly discussed some of the translation procedures in this respect, the author strongly recommends that whatever strategies translators use, especially in scientific texts, they should mention the original name with the SL alphabets in the footnotes or endnotes in order to facilitate further research for readers in the target language [24, 89-108].

Proverbs and sayings are popular genre of English culture. Translation of sayings and proverbs about Work, Love and Wearing from English into Russian. Definition of proverbs and saying. Difference between proverbs and saying. Methods of their translating.

Lesson Plan : Common or Proper Noun?

Teacher
Name: Meg O'D

Grade: Grade 6

Subject: Special Education

Topic:	Determine whether a noun is common or proper.
Content:	Language Arts
Goals:	Students will be able to recognize the difference between common and proper nouns: will know to capitalize proper only.
Objectives:	Students will be able to recognize and capitalize proper nouns with 90% accuracy.
Materials:	worksheet, pencil, brain for each student
Introduction:	Write school address on the board, without capitalizing the name of school, street, city or state. Tell students we're going to be focusing on nouns today - refer to and restate noun definition. As a whole class, underline nouns. Then ask if anything looks funny?
Development:	Some nouns are special, they're called proper nouns. Uncover proper noun poster with definition: the name of a specific or particular person, place or thing. Proper nouns get capital letters. Do we need any capital letters in our school's address? Are there any names of specific people, places or things? As a class, circle letters that should be capitalized.

Practice:	Now, is every noun a proper noun? No! Some nouns are proper nouns - restate definition - some are common nouns, they aren't names of specific people, places or things. We're going to look at this list of nouns and decide which are common and which are proper. We'll capitalize the proper nouns and we'll leave the common nouns alone.
Accommodations:	G.B. - will only complete first half of page. K.J., M.W., K.H. - will write their own list of common and proper nouns and 3 sentences using each.
Checking For Understanding:	Students will complete an exit slip worksheet with 5 questions about nouns. 1. Common or proper? ice cream 2. Common or proper? disney world 3. Common or proper? dr. cox 4. Capitalize the proper noun: (1) orange, pencil, synder gym, book 5. Capitalize the proper nouns: (2) coke, computer, backpack, classroom, ms. warren, teacher, student
Closure:	Are all nouns proper nouns? What's the definition of a proper noun? What kind of noun gets a capital letter? Nice work!
Evaluation:	Collect and grade worksheets and exit slips.

3.2.The strategies for teaching proper nouns proverbs and sayings.

Lesson Plan

You may save this lesson plan to your hard drive as an html file by selecting "File", then "Save As" from your browser's pull down menu. The file name extension must be .html.

This lesson provided by:

Author: Carrie Patterson

System: Covington County

School: Fleeta School

Lesson Plan ID: 13232

Title: Proper Noun Race

Overview/Annotation: During this lesson, students will review nouns and identify common and proper nouns in context. A short story will be written using both types of nouns. An interactive Internet site will be used to reinforce the lesson.

Content Standard(s): TC2(3-5) 5. Practice safe use of technology systems and applications.

TC2(3-5) 9. Use technology tools to organize, interpret, and display data.

ELA2015(3) 1. Ask and answer questions to demonstrate understanding of a text, referring explicitly to the text as the basis for the answers. [RL.3.1]

ELA2015(3) 24. Write narratives to develop real or imagined experiences or events using effective technique, descriptive details, and clear event sequences. [W.3.3]

ELA2015(3) 28. Conduct short research projects that build knowledge about a topic. [W.3.7]

ELA2015(3) 38. Demonstrate command of the conventions of Standard English capitalization, punctuation, and spelling when writing. [L.3.2]

Local/National SAT 10 Objectives - Language Mechanics

Standards: (Capitalization, Usage, Punctuation) and Language Expression (Sentence Structure)

Podcast(s):

Primary Learning Objective(s): Students will identify proper and common nouns.

Students will write a story incorporating proper and common nouns.

Additional Learning Objective(s):

Approximate Duration of 61 to 90 Minutes

the Lesson:

Materials and Equipment: Overhead projector, newspapers or magazines with proper nouns

Technology Resources Needed: Computers with Internet access

Background/Preparation: Students should have prior knowledge of nouns, have the ability to communicate and discuss results in group activity, legibly write complete sentences in cursive, and experience navigating the Internet.

Procedures/Activities: 1.) Using the overhead projector, write the headings "person," "place," and "thing" at the top. Encourage students to recognize that these headings represent nouns. Ask students to give nouns which would go in each column.

Ask questions:

What is your name?

What city do you live in?

What is the name of your school?

What is the name of your textbook?

2.) Discuss responses and reinforce why some of the nouns listed are proper nouns. Explain to students that they are naming a special or particular person, place, or thing when using a proper noun. Remind students that proper nouns are always capitalized.

3.) Divide class into groups of two or three and give each group a magazine or newspaper. Tell students they are going to play a game called "Proper Noun Race." Clear overhead screen and write the headings again at the top (Person, Place, Thing). Each group should also have a pencil or pen. Tell the class that they will be given five minutes for each group to find and circle proper nouns. After five minutes the group with the most proper nouns circled will win. (Teacher may wish to give candy or some other prize to winning group.) Verify proper nouns by having the group name and tell which heading the proper noun should go under. This group activity can be repeated as long as time permits.

4.) Once students have completed the game, allow them time to visit the website below to reinforce their knowledge of nouns. *This website allows students to practice identifying nouns in a game format. Once students enter the site, they must click on nouns to begin the game.*

5.) After all students have had time to visit the website, have them each write a short story using at least 10 common nouns and 5 proper nouns. Have

student use cursive writing on their final copy to turn in.

Attachments:**Some files will display in a new window. Others will prompt you to download.

Assessment Strategies: Students will be assessed through teacher observation during group activity for understanding of proper nouns. The written assignment will be graded to check for understanding of the use of proper and common nouns.

Extension: Another interactive site students may explore is: [Grammar Blast](#) (Click on "3rd Grade Nouns").

Remediation:

Each area below is a direct link to general teaching strategies/classroom accommodations for students with identified learning and/or behavior problems such as: reading or math performance below grade level; test or classroom assignments/quizzes at a failing level; failure to complete assignments independently; difficulty with short-term memory, abstract concepts, staying on task, or following directions; poor peer interaction or temper tantrums, and other learning or behavior problems.

Internet sources

Proper Names in English Phraseology.

Naming a single entity is one of the basic speech acts, included by Searle in the class of declaratives, alongside declaring war, dismissing and bequeathing. People and places, pets and hurricanes, rock groups and festivities, institutions and commercial products, works of art and shops are given a name. Naming serves to highlight entities that play a role in people's daily life, and to establish and maintain an individuality in society.

Object of analysis of onomastics, proper names (henceforth PNs) have been investigated by philosophers, logicians, anthropologists and psychologists, but only sporadically by linguists: e.g. with different approaches and concerns, Sloat, Molino, Allerton, Marmaridou, Gary-Prieur, Hough, Tse Anderson [39].

From an overview of the literature on this area of language, it emerges that special attention has been paid to theoretical issues, while investigations on specific aspects in individual languages are infrequent. This article is concerned with PNs in English phraseology. If we examine idioms, the dominant subtype of phraseological units, we observe that they involve elements regarded as relevant for various reasons: body parts, because human beings as natural (and cultural) entities are at the centre of language; natural elements, animals, colours, clothing and food, because they are salient aspects of everyday life; references to the Bible, because it is culturally relevant in Anglo-Saxon society. So, we expect to find a number of PNs because of their great importance in human communication, where they are signs of cultural, linguistic, geographical, ethnic and social identity. Their analysis can offer an insight into the interplay between language and culture in phraseology.

This paper aiming to explore the linguistic-cultural aspects and usage of phraseological units containing personal and place names (the major PN subcategories), is organized as follows. Section 2 and 3 outline the linguistic features of PNs and phraseological expressions, respectively. Section 4 provides a list of units belonging to four types (idioms, stereotyped similes, binomials, formulae), drawn from idiom dictionaries. Section 5 looks at what personal and place names are involved in the expressions. Section 6 discusses the results of a search for the collected units in the *British National Corpus* aimed at establishing their frequency and distribution across registers. Section 7 presents the concluding remarks [39].

Methodological recommendation

Foreign language method comprises the study of and the search for adequate answers to questions concerning the aims, the subject matter, and the methods of instructions in foreign languages. These objects are closely interrelated.

The subject-matter and methods of instructions in foreign language. These objects are closely interrelated.

The subject –matter and the methods are conditioned by the aims. For example, in pedagogical institutes different selections of subject matter are used in teaching a foreign language to students of the foreign language faculty-prospective foreign language teachers and to students of all the other faculties whose chief aim is proficiency in reading and understanding special text in the foreign languages, although attention is also paid to speech.

The aims of foreign language teaching are three fold: practical, educational, and cultural.

It practical aims are consequent on the basic function of language, which is, to serve as a means of communication.

The educational aims of foreign language teaching in schools consist in inculcating on the children through instruction in the foreign language the principles of communication.

A widening of philological outlook of children will result from the unconscious and conscious comparison of the foreign with the native language. In the early stages comparing the two languages should be discouraged, seeing that before habits of spontaneous use of the foreign language have been formed it may, and if extensively resorted to inevitably will, promote the interference of the native language and the formation of habits of literal translation from the native into the foreign tongue.

But as pupils gain a better command of the language they will begin to understand that every language has its peculiarities, its specific features often taking the form of turns of expression untranslatable literary into other languages.

Common literary words are chiefly used in writing and in polished speech.

One can always tell a literary word from a colloquial word. The reason for this lies in certain objective features of the literary layer of words. What these objective features are, is difficult to say because as yet no objective criteria have been worked out. But one of them undoubtedly is that literary units stand in opposition to colloquial units. This is especially apparent when pairs of synonyms, literary and colloquial, can be formed which stand in contrasting relation.

Here I'd like to give lesson plan how to teach proper nouns.

The technological map of the lesson		
The stages and the time of delivering the lesson	Type of activities and interaction mode	
	The teacher	The students
The preparation stage (5 minutes)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Brainstorming under the text "Proper nouns in proverbs and sayings" 2. Explain the plan of the lesson. 3. The actuality of the theme. 4. Waiting results 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Prepare their own notes according to the theme.
1.Introduction (15 min)	Gives the copy of the plan of the lesson.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Take the copy of the plan of the lesson. 2. Make notes according to the plan.
2. The main stage (50 min)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To motivate students on the new theme "Proper nouns in proverbs and sayings" 2. Working with plans of the lesson 3. Asks questions. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * What is proverbs? *What is saying? * How can you explain differences between them? 4. Gives correction to the answers of the students. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Prepare notes according to the plan. <u>Individual work</u> 2. Getting the plans clear of the theme. <u>Individual work.</u> 3. Answer the questions of the teacher. <u>Individual work.</u> 4. Give their own sentences according to the tasks. <u>Individual work</u>
3.The final stage (5 min)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Puts down marks for active students 2.Gives the theme of new lesson 	<p>To listen To write</p>
The tasks for independent work (5 min)	Proper nouns in proverbs and sayings	They take the task

Conclusion.

Here I'd like to conclude my qualification paper under the theme "A cognitive-pragmatic features of proper nouns in English proverbs and sayings". The structure of the research work consists of introduction, three chapters, conclusion and bibliography. In the introduction part I gave information about Uzbekistan and language learning, writing research work. Here I put a real task to write qualification graduating paper in future.

In the first chapter I wrote about grammatical characteristics of proper nouns in English. Proper names are distinguished from proper nouns. A proper noun is a word-level unit of the category *noun*, while proper names are noun phrases (syntagms). For instance, the proper name 'Jessica Alba' consists of two proper nouns: 'Jessica' and 'Alba'. Proper names may consist of other parts of speech, too: 'Brooklyn Bridge' contains the common noun 'Bridge' as well as the proper noun 'Brooklyn'. 'The Raritan River' also includes the determiner 'the'. 'The Bronx' combines a determiner and a proper noun. Finally, 'the Golden Gate Bridge' is a proper name with no proper nouns in it at all.

While any string of words (or non-words) can be a proper name, we may (tentatively) locate that liberality in the form of proper nouns. Proper names, by contrast, simply have a large number of paradigms corresponding to the sorts of things named. For instance, official names of persons in most Western cultures consist of (at least) first and last names (themselves proper nouns). Names of bridges have an optional definite determiner and often contain the common noun 'bridge'. Hence we can have bridge names that embed other proper names like 'The George Washington Bridge'. We can also have structurally ambiguous names like 'the New York Public Library'.

In the second chapter I gave some information about linguistic peculiarities of proper nouns proverbs and sayings. It is generally agreed among linguists that PNs are a universal linguistic category. Their status and function is a theoretical issue debated by many scholars, whose views are discussed in Carroll, Coates and Van

Langendonck . The topic is complex and controversial, and the account given will be brief and schematic; this means that some aspects will not be considered.

PNs constitute a system organized according to criteria varying across cultures, and provide an interpretation of the society of which they are the expression. They are linguistic items fulfilling a referential function, i. e. they refer to single entities existing in the real world. Like deictics, they enable primary identification of their referents; but, unlike deictics, they are not dependent on the immediate situational context. Like nouns, PNs constitute an open class of words and, hence, are lexical rather than grammatical; but, unlike nouns, they lack lexical meaning.

In the third chapter I analyzed the problem of translation and teaching proper nouns proverbs and sayings.

Generally speaking, nouns are divided into common and proper names. Proper names refer to a specific referent, that is, these names serve to distinguish a particular individual from others, for instance, Peter, Mike, Alice. Common names, on the other hand, refer to a class of individuals such as man, woman, and boy. It is noteworthy that distinction between these types of nouns gets blurred in some cases. Since it is outside the scope of this paper to present a full account of this issue, the present study tackles only personal names, which fall into the proper noun category.

With this section, we attempt to approach the concept of different types of personal name in order to delimit the object of the study. It is important to stress that not all types of personal names exist in all languages. Moreover, the translator must take cognizance of these different categories, since familiarity with them helps in the translation process.

In relation to the translation of personal names, translators should take this point into consideration whether or not it is possible or necessary to show that these classifications are different in the source and target languages.

At the end of my work I gave some useful internet materials, methodical recommendation in teaching literature. I conclude my theme's results clearly and briefly. At the end of the work I listed used literature in the research.

Bibliography

1. Karimov I.A. "Independent Uzbekistan" Tashkent 2000.
2. Karimov I.A. "Uzbekistan the road of Independence and Progress" Uzbekistan 1992.
3. Karimov I.A. Harmoniously Developed Generation is the basis of progress of Uzbekistan. 1997.
4. Karimov I.A. Decree 18-75. "On measures to further improve foreign language learning system" , Xalq so'zi, December 10, 2012. Bachman, L. F. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language testing*, Oxford. Oxford University Press.
5. Campbell.M. (n.d.). *Personal name*. Accessed 1 March, 2009 from <http://www.behindthename.com/glossary/view/name>.
6. Columbia editors (e.d) (2008). Entry word "Name" in Columbia Encyclopedia [on-line]. Available at www.encyclopedia.com/doc/1E1-name.html.
7. Farahzad, F. (1995). *Tarjome pishrafteh (1)* [Translating advanced English text (1)]. Tehran: University of Payame Nour.
8. Fernandes, L. (2006). *Translation of names in children s fantasy literature: Bringing young reader into play*. [On-line]. Available at <http://www.iatis.org/newvoices/issues/2006/fernandes-paper-2006.pdf>.
9. Fornalczyk, A. (2007). Anthroponym translation in children's literature - early 20th and 21st centuries. *Kalbotyra*, 57, 93-101.
10. Hermans, T. (1988). On translating proper names, with reference to De Witte and Max Havelaar. In M. J. Wintle (ed.) *Modern Dutch Studies. Essays in Honour of Professor Peter King on the Occasion of his Retirement*. London/Atlantic Highlands: The Athlone Press.
11. Hervey, S. and Higgins, I. (1992). *Thinking Translation*. London and New York: Routledge.
12. Hornby, A. S. (2004). Proper noun. *Oxford advanced learner's dictionary of current English* (6th ed., p.1016). China: Oxford University Press.

13. Inc World Book editors, (1996). Name. *The World Book Encyclopedia: In Eighteen Volumes* (vol.14, p.5). The U.S.: World Book.
14. Newmark, P. (1988a). *Approaches to translation*. London: Prentice Hall.
15. Newmark, P. (1988b). *A textbook of translation*. London: Prentice Hall.
16. Newmark, P. (1993). *Paragraphs on translation*. Adelaide/ Clevedon/Philadelphia: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
17. New Webster's Dictionary – Surjeet Publications, Delhi, 1988 – 1824p.
18. Nord, C. (2003). Proper names in translations for children: Alice in wonderland as a case in point. *Meta: Translators' Journal*, 48, 182-196.
19. *Personal name*. The world book encyclopedia (vol. 14, p.5). The United States: Field enterprises educational cooperation.
20. *Proper name*. [on-line]. Available at: [http://en.Wikipedia.org/wiki/Proper name](http://en.Wikipedia.org/wiki/Proper_name).
21. Proper noun [on-line]. Available at: <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/proper+noun>.
22. Pym, A. (2004). *The moving text: localization, translation, and distribution*. Amsterdam/ Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
23. Särkkä, H. (2007). *Translation of proper names in non-fiction texts* [on-line]. Available at [http:// translationjournal.net/journal/ 39 proper. htm](http://translationjournal.net/journal/39_proper.htm).
24. Vermes, A. P. (2003). Proper names in translation: an explanatory attempt. *Across Languages and Cultures*, 4 (1), 89-108.
25. Ахманова О.С. Словарь лингвистических терминов – М.: “Советская энциклопедия”, 1969 – 608с.
26. Брозголь О. Имя собственное в структуре товарного знака// Матеріали міжвузівської студентської наукової конференції. Зіставне вивчення германської і романських мов і літератур. Частина перша – Донецьк: ДонНУ, 2005 – С.41-44.
27. Вуколова В. Особливості перекладу російських експресивних антропонімів засобами англійської мови// Філологічні студії № 1(25). Науковий часопис – Луцьк, 2004 – С.146-151.

28. Галас Б.К. Український ономастичний матеріал у рукописних словниках XIX ст.// Шоста республіканська ономастична конференція. Тези доповідей і повідомлень. I. Теоретична та історична ономастика. Літературна ономастика – Одеса, 1990 – С.12 – 13.
29. Ермолович Д.И. Теория перевода и ономастика// Вестник МГЛУ. Выпуск 488 – М., 2005 – С.67-90.
30. Карасик В. Язык социального статуса – М.: “Гнозис”, 2002 – 333с.
31. Кубрякова Е.С. Язык и знание - Москва: Языки славянской культуры, 2004 - 556с.
32. Кухаренко В.А. Інтерпретація тексту – Вінниця: “Нова книга”, 2004 – 261с.
33. Лазаренко Л.М. Соціокультурний компонент перекладу антропонімічної та топонімічної лексики художнього твору// Вісник Сумського державного університету. Сер. Філологічні науки, 2004. - №3 (62). – С. 217-222.
34. Літературо-знавчий словник-довідник. Друге видання – Київ: “Академія”, 2006 – 753с.
35. Співак С.М. Власна назва в композиційно-смісловій структурі віршованих текстів американської поезії: комунікативно-когнітивний підхід. Автореферат – Київ, 2004 – 19с.
36. Суперанская А.В. Общая теория имени собственного – М.: “Наука”, 1973 – 366с.
37. Швачко С.А. Содержательно-структурные аспекты английских сказок и стихотворений// Методические рекомендации – Сумы: СГПИ, 1988 – 34с.
38. Ярова С.А. Функціонування власних назв у художньому тексті та проблема їх перекладу// Філологічні студії – Луцьк, 2004 – С. 230 – 235.
39. <http://artefact.lib.ru/library/lewis.htm>