

Phraseology Topics for Discussion

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ABSTRACT

Phrase logical fusions are specific for every language and do not lend themselves to literal translation into other languages. Semantic stylistic features contracting set expressions into units of fixed context are simile, contrast, metaphor and synonymy. Phrase logical unities are much more numerous. They are clearly motivated. The emotional quality is based upon the image created by the whole as in to stick (to stand) to one's guns, i. e. refuse to change one's statements or opinions in the face of opposition', implying courage and integrity.

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Phrase logical unit is a non-motivated word-group that cannot be freely made up in speech but is reproduced as a ready-made unit. Reproducibility is regular use of Phrase logical units in speech as single unchangeable collocations. Idiomaticity is the quality of Phrase logical unit, when the meaning of the whole is not deducible from the sum of the meanings of the parts. Stability of a Phrase logical unit implies that it exists as a ready-made linguistic unit which does not allow of any variability of its lexical components of grammatical structure. In lexicology there is great ambiguity of the terms phraseology and idioms. Opinions differ as to how phraseology should be defined, classified, described and analyzed. The word "phraseology" has very different meanings in this country and in Great Britain or the United States. In linguistic literature the term is used for the expressions where the meaning of one element is dependent on the other, irrespective of the structure and properties of the unit (V. V. Vinogradov); with other authors it denotes only such set expressions which do not possess expressiveness or emotional coloring (A. I. Smirnitsky), and also vice versa: only those that are imaginative, expressive and emotional (I. V. Arnold). N. N. Amosova calls such expressions fixed context units, i. e. units in which it is impossible to substitute any of the components without changing the meaning not only of the whole unit but also of the elements that remain intact. O. S. Ahmanova insists on the semantic integrity of such phrases prevailing over the structural separateness of their elements. A. V. Koonin lays stress on the structural separateness of the elements in a Phrase logical unit, on the change of meaning in the whole as compared with its elements taken separately and on a certain minimum stability. In English and American linguistics no special branch of study exists, and the term "phraseology" has a stylistic meaning, according to Webster's dictionary 'mode of expression, peculiarities of diction, i. e. choice and arrangement of words and phrases characteristic of some author or some literary work'. Difference in terminology ("set phrases", "idioms", "word-equivalents") reflects certain differences in the main criteria used to distinguish types of Phrase logical units and free word-groups. The term "set phrase" implies that the basic criterion of differentiation is stability of the lexical components and grammatical structure of word-groups. The term "idiom" generally implies that the essential feature of the linguistic units is idiomaticity or lack of motivation. The term "word-equivalent" stresses not only semantic but also functional inseparability of certain word groups, their aptness to function in speech as single words. The essential features of Phrase logical units are: a) lack of semantic motivation; b) lexical and grammatical stability. As far as semantic motivation is concerned Phrase logical units are extremely varied from motivated (by simple addition of denotation

meaning) like a *sight for sore eyes* and *to know the ropes*, to partially motivated (when one of the words is used in a not direct meaning) or to demotivated (completely no motivated) like *tit for tat*, *red-tape*. Lexical and grammatical stability of Phrase logical units is displayed in the fact that no substitution of any elements whatever is possible in the following stereotyped (unchangeable) set expressions, which differ in many other respects; *all the world and his wife*, *red tape*, *calf love*, *heads or tails*, *first night*, *to gild the pill*, *to hope for the best*, *busy as a bee*, *fair and square*, *stuff and nonsense* **time** and *again*, *to andfro*.

In a free phrase the semantic correlative ties are fundamentally different. The information is additive and each element has a much greater semantic independence each component may be substituted without affecting the meaning of the other: *cut bread*, *cut cheese*, *eat bread*. Information is additive in the sense that the amount of information we had on receiving the first signal, i. e. having heard or read the word *cut*, is increased, the listener obtains further details and learns what is cut. The reference of *cut* is unchanged Every notional word can form additional syntactic ties with other words outside the expression. In a set expression information furnished by each element is not additive: actually it does not exist before we get the whole. No substitution for either *cut* or *figure* can be made without completely ruining the following: *had an uneasy fear that he might cut a poor figure beside all these clever Russian officers* (Shaw). *He was not managing to cut much of a figure* (Murdoch) The only substitution admissible for the expression *cut a poor figure* concerns the adjective. Semantic approach stresses the importance of idiomaticity, functional syntactic inseparability, contextual- stability of context combined with idiomaticity. In his classification of V. V. Vinogradov developed some points first advanced by the Swiss linguist Charles Bally The classification is based upon the motivation of the unit, i. e. the relationship existing between the meaning of the whole and the meaning of its component parts. The degree of motivation is correlated with the rigidity, indivisibility and semantic unity of the expression, i. e. with the possibility of changing the form or the order of components, and of substituting the whole by a single word. According to the type of motivation three types of Phrase logical units are suggested, Phrase logical combinations, Phrase logical unities, and Phrase logical fusions. The Phrase logical Collocations (Combinations), are partially motivated, they contain one component used in its direct meaning while the other is used figuratively: *meet the demand*, *meet the necessity*, *meet the requirements*. Phrase logical unities are much more numerous. They are clearly motivated. The emotional quality is based upon the image created by the whole as in *to stick (to stand) to one's guns*, i. e. refuse to change one's statements or opinions in the face of opposition', implying courage and integrity. The example reveals another characteristic of the type, the possibility of synonymic substitution, which can be only very limited, e. g. *to know the way the wind is blowing*. Phrase logical fusions, completely no motivated word-groups, (e. g. *tit for tat*), represent as their name suggests the highest stage of blending together. The meaning of components is completely absorbed by the meaning of the whole, by its expressiveness and emotional properties.

Phrase logical fusions are specific for every language and do not lend themselves to literal translation into other languages. Semantic stylistic features contracting set expressions into units of fixed context are simile, contrast, metaphor and synonymy. For example: *as like as two peas*, *as old as the hills and older than the hills* (simile); *from beginning to end*, *for love or money*, *more or less*, *sooner or later* (contrast); *a lame duck*, *a pack of lies*, *arms race*, *to swallow the pill*, *in a nutshell* (metaphor); *by leaps and bounds*, *proud and haughty* (synonymy). A few more combinations of different features in the same phrase are: *as good as gold*, *as pleased as Punch*, *as fit as a fiddle* (alliteration, simile); substituting the whole by a single word. According to the type of motivation three types of Phrase logical units are suggested, Phrase logical combinations, Phrase logical unities, and Phrase logical fusions. The Phrase logical Collocations (Combinations), are partially motivated, they contain one component used in its direct meaning while the other is used figuratively: *meet the demand*, *meet the necessity*, *meet the requirements*.

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time is de motivated, because the word nick is obsolete? Both presumes and idioms may be movable (changeable) or immovable. A. V. Koonin's classification is based on the functions the units fulfil in speech. They may be nominating (a bull in a china shop), interjectional (a pretty kettle of fish), communicative (familiarity breeds contempt), or nominating-communicative (pull somebody's leg). Further classification into subclasses depends on whether the units are changeable or unchangeable, whether the meaning of the one element remains free, and, more generally, on the interdependence between the meaning of the elements and the meaning of the set expression.

1. Formal classification distinguishes set expressions that are nominal phrases: the root of the trouble; verbal phrases: put one's best foot forward; adjectival phrases: as good as gold; red as a cherry; adverbial phrases, from head to foot; prepositional phrases: in the course of; conjunctive phrases: as long as, on the other hand, interjectional phrases: Well, I never! A stereotyped sentence also introduced into speech as a ready-made formula may be illustrated by never say die! 'Never give up hope', take your time 'do not hurry'. This classification takes into consideration not only the type of component parts but also the functioning of the whole, thus, tooth and nail is not a nominal but an adverbial unit, because it serves to modify a verb (e. g. fight tooth and nail) Within each of these classes a further subdivision is as follows:

a) Set expressions functioning like nouns:

N+N: maiden name 'the surname of a woman before she was married'; brains trust 'a committee of experts' N's+N: cat's paw 'one who is used for the convenience of a cleverer and stronger person' (the expression comes from a fable in which a monkey wanting to eat some chestnuts that were on a hot stove, but not wishing to burn himself while getting them, seized a cat and holding its paw in his own used it to knock the chestnuts to the ground)Ns'+N: ladies' man 'one who makes special effort to charm or please women'. N+prp+N: the arm of the law, skeleton in the cupboard. N+A: blight errant (the phrase is today applied to any chivalrous man ready to help and protect oppressed and helpless people). N+and+N: lord and master 'husband'; all the world and his wife. A+N: high tea 'an evening meal which combines meat or some similar extra dish with the usual tea'. N+ subordinate clause: ships that pass in the night 'chance acquaintances'.

b) Set expressions functioning like verbs: V+N: take advantage V+and+V: pick and choose V+(one's)+N+(prp): snap one's fingers at V+one+N: give one the bird 'to fire sb' V+subordinate clause: see how the land lies 'to discover the state of affairs'.

c) Set expressions functioning like adjectives: A+and+A: high and mighty (as)+A+as+N: as old as the hills, as mad as a hatter Set expressions functioning like adverbs: N+N: tooth and nail prp+N: by heart, of course adv+prp+N: once in a blue moon prp+N+or+N: by hook or by crook cj+clause: before one can say Jack Robinson e) Set expressions functioning like prepositions: prp+N+prp: in consequence of

f) Set expressions functioning like interjections: These are often structured as imperative sentences: Bless (one's) soul! God bless me! Hang it (all)! Phrase logical units can be classified according to the ways they are formed, according to the degree of the motivation of their meaning, according to their structure and according to their part-of-speech meaning. A. V. Koonin classified Phrase logical units according to the way they are formed. He pointed out primary and secondary ways of forming Phrase logical units. Primary ways of forming Phrase logical units are those when a unit is formed on the basis of a free word-group:

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

b) a large group of Phrase logical units was formed from free word groups by transforming their meaning, e. g. «granny farm» - «пансионат для престарелых», «Troy on horse» «компьютерная программа, преднамеренно составленная для повреждения компьютера»;

c) Phrase logical units can be formed by means of alliteration, e. g. «as a sack» - «несчастный случай», «culture vulture» - «человек, интересующийся искусством», «fudge and nudge» -

«УКЛОНЧИВОСТЬ».

- d) They can be formed by means of expressiveness, especially it is characteristic for forming interjections, e. g. «My aunt! », « Hear, hear! »etc.
- e) they can be formed by means of distorting a word group, e. g. «odds and ends» was formed from «odd ends»,
- f) they can be formed by using archaisms, e. g. «in brown study» means «ingloomy meditation» where both components preserve their archaic meanings,
- g) they can be formed by using a sentence in a different sphere of life, e. g. «that cock won't fight» can be used as a free word-group when it issued in sports (cock fighting), it becomes a Phrase logical unit when it is used in everyday life, because it is used metaphorically,
- h) they can be formed when we use some unreal image, e. g. «to have butterflies in the stomach»«испытывать волнение», «to have green fingers» - «преуспевать как садовод-любитель» etc.
- i) they can be formed by using expressions of writers or politicians in everyday life, e. g. «corridors of power» (Snow), «American dream» (Alby) «locust years» (Churchil), «the winds of change» (Me Millan).

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

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

Phonetic borrowings among Phrase logical units refer to the bookish style and are not used very often. Phrase logical units can be classified according to the degree of motivation of their meaning. This classification was suggested by acad. V. V. Vinogradov for Russian Phrase logical units. He pointed out three types of Phrase logical units:

- a) fusions where the degree of motivation is very low, we cannot guess the meaning of the whole from the meanings of its components, they are highly idiomatic and cannot be translated word for word into other languages, e. g. on Shank's mare - (on foot), at sixes and sevens - (in a mess) etc;
- b) unities where the meaning of the whole can be guessed from the meanings of its components, but it is transferred (metaphorical or metonymical), e. g. to play the first fiddle (to be a leader in something), old salt (experienced sailor) etc;
- c) collocations where words are combined in their original meaning but

Their combinations are different in different languages, e. g. cash and carry - (self-service shop), in a big way (in great degree) etc.

Prof. A. I. Smirnitsky worked out structural classification of Phrase logical units, comparing them with words. He points out one-top units which he compares with derived words because derived words have

only one root morpheme. He points out two-top units which he compares with compound words because in compound words we usually have two root morphemes. Among one-top units he points out three structural types;

a) units of the type «to give up» (verb + postposition type), e. g. tart up, to back up, to drop out, to nose out, to buy into, to sandwich in etc. ;

b) Units of the type «to be tired». Some of these units remind the Passive Voice in their structure but they have different prepositions with them, while in the Passive Voice we can have only prepositions «by» or «with», e. g. to be tired of, to be interested in, to be surprised at etc. There are also units in this type which remind free word-groups of the type «to be young», e. g. to be akin to, to be aware of etc. The difference between them is that the adjective «young» can be used as an attribute and as a predicative in a sentence, while the nominal component in such units can act only as a predicative. In these units the verb is the grammar centre and the second component is the semantic centre;

c) Prepositional- nominal Phrase logical units. These units are equivalents of unchangeable words: prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, that is why they have no grammar centre, their semantic center is the nominal part, e. g. on the doorstep (quite near), on the nose (exactly), in the course of, on the stroke of, in time, on the point of etc. In the course of time such units can become words, e. g. tomorrow, instead etc. Among two-top units A. I. Smirnitsky points out the following structural types:

a) Attributive-nominal such as: a month of Sundays, grey matter, a millstone round one's neck and many others. Units of this type are noun equivalents and can be partly or perfectly idiomatic. In partly idiomatic units (phrases) sometimes the first component is idiomatic, e. g. highroad, in other cases the second component is idiomatic, e. g. first night. In many cases both components are idiomatic, e. g. red tape, blind alley, bed of nail, shot in the arm and many others.

b) Verb-nominal Phrase logical units, e. g. to read between the lines, to speak BBC, to sweep under the carpet etc. The grammar center of such units is the verb; the semantic center in many cases is the nominal component. g. to fall in love. In some units the verb is both the grammar and the semantic center, e. g. not to know the ropes. These units can be perfectly idiomatic as well, e. g. to burn one's boats, to vote with one's feet, to take to the cleaners' etc. Very close to such units are word-groups of the type to have a glance, to have a smoke. These units are not idiomatic and are treated in grammar as a special syntactical combination, a kind of aspect. Phrase logical repetitions, such as: now or never, part and parcel country and western etc. Such units can be built on antonyms; e. g. ups and downs, back and forth; often they are formed by means of alliteration, e. cakes and ale, as busy as a bee. Components in repetitions are joined by means of conjunctions. These units are equivalents of adverbs or adjectives and have no grammar center. They can also be partly or perfectly idiomatic. g. cool as a cucumber (partly), bread and butter (perfectly). Phrase logical units the same as compound words can have more than two tops (stems in compound words), e. g. to take a back seat, a peg to hang aching on, lock, stock and barrel, to be a shadow of one's own self, atone's own sweet will. Phrase logical units can be classified as parts of speech. This classification was suggested by I. V. Arnold. Here we have the following groups:

a) nounphraseologisms denoting an object, a person, a living being, e. g. bullet train, latchkey child, redbrick university, Green Berets,

b) verbphraseologisms denoting an action, a state, a feeling, e. g. to break the log-jam, to get on somebody's coattails, to be on the beam, tonose out, to make headlines,

c) adjectivephraseologisms denoting a quality, e. g. loose as a goose, dull as lead,

d) adverb Phrase logical units, such as: with a bump, in the soup, like dream, like a dog with two tails,

e) preposition Phrase logical units, e. g. in the course of, on the stroke of,

f) interjection Phrase logical units, e. g. «Catch me! », «Well, I never! » etc. In I. V. Arnold's classification there are also sentence equivalents, proverbs, sayings and quotations, e. g. «The sky is the limit», «What makes him tick», » I am easy». Proverbs are usually metaphorical, e. g. «Too many cooks spoil the broth», while sayings are as a rule non-metaphorical, e. g. «Where there is a will there is a way».

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based upon the image created by the whole as in *to stick (to stand) to one's guns*, i. e. refuse to change one's statements or opinions in the face of opposition', implying courage and integrity. The example reveals another characteristic of the type, the possibility of synonymic substitution, which can be only very limited, e. g. *to know the way the wind is blowing*.

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