SYNTACTIC AND SEMANTIC ANALYSIS OF COGNATE WORD COMBINATIONS IN THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

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This article describes the derivational potential of root word combinations belonging to the noun, adjective and verb groups in the English and Uzbek languages and their grammatical functional features on the basis of comparative-typological, comparative and distributive methods at the lexical and syntactic levels of the language. Structural models of derivation of verbs, nouns and adjectives in the English and Uzbek languages and their features are considered based on component analysis, as well as morphological factors that ensure the completeness of derivation, their distinctive and similar features in both languages, the role and importance in the formation of verbal compounds is analyzed in detail. The article also identifies the factors that ensure the transposition of root verbs, nouns and adjectives in English and Uzbek, and describes their structural-functional and contextual-semantic analysis at the required level.

Until today’s period of development of linguistics, many problematic processes related to the language system have been studied and researched. This situation can be observed both in the context of world linguistics and in the context of Uzbek linguistics. Linguistics, like all sciences, is constantly evolving. Due to this, it is natural that there are still problematic processes in this sphere today. The fact that the phenomenon of derivation less researched in the context of root words can be related to such problems, because in both English and Uzbek linguistics the problem of derivation of...
root words is not studied at the required level.

Any new word that exists in a language takes its initial form from speech, and thus the speech dependence of the word formed ends, because the next life of a derived word goes on in a language. That is, the derived word takes its place in the paradigm of its own analogical forms after being tested in social speech activity for a certain period of time. Only derivatives that have fully passed such tests will receive the status of a language unit and, like their other paradigms, will begin to function as a means of enriching the language with new constructions.

It is well known that the derivational sequence of linguistic units cannot be fully understood only on the basis of grammatical research, because word formation in its extralinguistic basis is a product of speech activity.

Since related words are considered not as a finished product of the language, but as a product of speech, since they are artificial words, in speech they are activated only in the form in which they are adapted for communication. In some places, depending on the need for speech, we can also observe cases where two or more related words are involved in the process of communication or in context.

In this article, the works of English and Uzbek writers are selected as a source, as well as the degree of influence of the speech situation of both languages on the choice of words is studied and scientifically substantiated on the examples taken for analysis.

As a result of syntactic-semantic analysis of root word combinations in the English language, on the basis of a detailed analysis, it was shown that root words can be combined with other words in speech, forming various models.

**Key words:** derivation, conversion, transposition, transformation, derivative operator, structural-semantic model.
INTRODUCTION

World linguistics today is characterized by a focus on the study of the real function of a language, it is linguocultural and communicative-syntactic aspects. The study of a language from a pragmalinguistic point of view further enhances its need for a deep and thorough knowledge and study of all the boundaries we know. This is because the study of the existence and functional-semantic laws of a language in this way is important in understanding the methods and means of the phenomenon of enrichment of the vocabulary of a language, which are very relevant today, and their potential problems and finding solutions to such problems.

Of particular importance in world linguistics is the study of a language and society, language and thinking, language and consciousness, language and culture, and the enrichment of a language vocabulary, which have long been the main problems of pragmalinguistics and linguoculturology. In linguistics, the specific signs of implicit and explicit influences on the creation or assimilation of new words in a particular region; their similarities and differences are analyzed in detail on the basis of comparative-typological methods. Due to the fact that the linguistic aspects of natural languages, such as lexical-semantic, syntactic, morphological and linguopragmatic, differ to some extent, the comparative study of several languages not only illuminates its peculiarities, but also ensures the continuity of the research in the world linguistics.

In Uzbek linguistics, a number of recent studies have been conducted on the scientific study of derivation processes in a language, in which the phenomenon of derivation in world languages, its types and level of coverage are syntactically and semantically comprehensive, based on rich linguistic material. In particular, in the example of the English and Uzbek languages, transposition processes, which are one of the derivation types of words, have been studied to some extent. However, the specific aspects of the transposition phenomenon in each language have not yet been the subject of a separate study. Encouraging research and improving innovation activities, identified as a priority in the state program of the “Strategy of Actions for the further development of the Republic of Uzbekistan”, requires in-depth and innovative research in the field of linguistics. In the process of learning a foreign language, along with the structural-semantic aspects of words, it is important to correctly interpret the features of their derivation potential. In this regard, a comparative study of the process of derivation of cognate words in English and Uzbek is relevant.

THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY is to identify similarities and differences in the functional and semantic properties of related words in English and Uzbek by comparing the processes of derivational transposition.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

to determine the morphological factors that ensure the completeness of the derivation of verb, noun and adjective phrases, which are related in origin in the
English and Uzbek languages, and to determine their similarities and differences;
– to analyze the structural-functional and contextual-semantic factors providing transposition of related verbs, nouns and adjectives in the English and Uzbek languages, identification of similarities and differences;
– to determine the structure of related lexical units of verbs, nouns and adjectives in the works of English and Uzbek writers and their derivation potential on the basis of existing word formation and morpheme dictionaries, as well as the impact of speech in both languages on a word choice;
– to show the isomorphic and allomorphic features of the semantic components of root nouns, adjectives and verb combinations of both languages.

**RESEARCH METHODS**

In the research process comparative, distributive analysis, substitution, component analysis, comparative-typological analysis methods were used.

**DATA ANALYSIS**

Many linguists have made a worthy contribution to the study of the factors that ensure the completeness of derivation in the English lexical system in world linguistics. E. Kurilovich, Z. Harris and others conducted research on derivation, conversion and transposition in English. M.N. Lapshina in her doctoral dissertation, explored the cognitive aspect of semantic derivation in English material. L.A. Telegin explored almost all speech units in English through non-affix derivation in his doctoral dissertation on his non-affix transposition and its effect on the process of modern English derivation.

In Uzbek linguistics, the scientific work on derivatology has been carried out to a certain extent, as a result of which about ten dissertations have been defended, scientific articles have been written. Although the concept of lexical derivation has long taken its place in linguistics, its interpretation in terms of formal-structural analysis within the framework of one syllable requires scientific innovations and is very relevant at the present stage of the development of linguistics. Lexical derivation always refers to a secondary nomination. In this process, in turn, there is a semantic ambiguity in the pattern of the root and derived structure, which is the basis for derivation, because lexical derivation is centrifugal by nature.

Indeed, the derivative properties of derivative structures play an important role not only in the context of the relationship between the elements of the language system, but also at the level of interpretation of the transfer of system elements to speech.

Derivation, of course, occurs on the basis of an element, such element or sign is called an operator in derivatology. A derivation event cannot occur without an operator, because the operator is the main means of their formation, both in lexical derivation and in syntactic derivation. Therefore, the operator in derivatology is interpreted as the absolute dominant element of derivation [Xrakovskiy V.S., 1972; 599].
In the course of our research, we have witnessed that derivatology issues are still observed at all levels of linguistics. In particular, derivatology issues are more actively explored at the syntactic level than at other levels of a language.

1. It should be noted that the founder of derivatology in world linguistics L.N. Murzin studied the construction of syntactic units under the term syntactic derivation [Murzin L.N., 1984].

2. In his monograph devoted to the problems of the word-formation syntax of the Uzbek language, N. Turniyozov mentions the structure of words and sentence structure, their decomposition as a word-formation construction. "Any type of derivatology problem is inextricably linked to the real use of language system units in speech. In particular, the principles of the phenomenon of syntactic derivation are of great importance in this respect, because the interaction of words in the process of speech requires the main means of communication between people" [Turniyozov N.K., Turniyozov B., Turniyozova Sh., 2011; 3]. B. Turniyozov interprets in traditional linguistics the type of compound sentences called "connected without a connector", "equal component", as a syntactic derivative: "It should be noted that the concept of fundamental structure is very important in the study of derived properties of CSD (complex syntactic devices), because it is the basis for the formation of syntactic structure. As the syntactic inference of the basic structure from the initial structure to the derivative and from the derivative to the derivative structures, the speaker's relationship with linguistic phenomena also improves" [Turniyozov N.K., Turniyozov B., Turniyozova Sh., 2011; 107].

Taking into account the results of the analysis, it can be said that in linguistics, a structural semantic model is basically understood as a word combination as the nuclear structure of a syntagm [Fillmore Ch., 1969; 257]. Its components are linked by syntactic relationships that are clearly defined in the context. A component is an element that performs the function of one of the syntactic functions in a phrase model [Yusupov U.K. Teoreticheskie osnovi sopostavitelnnoy lingvistiki. 2007; 125].


– I heard Alexander’s relieved laugh at the other end.

In the verb phrase laughed at Scotty, the phrase at Scotty becomes a complement to the main component at laugh. This means that the structural model of the verb phrase V + Prp + X (where V-verb + preposition + any word) consists of two components, i.e. to laugh head and at Scotty connection. Their structural connection gives the following semantic-structural model of the phrase. V + Prp + X.

In the phrase need it for something, we take the word need as the main component
of the verb predicate function, *it* – is related, *for something* – is an auxiliary compound and complement to the verb, and it is expressed as an adverbial modifier of aim, a component related to the syntactic function.

It can be concluded from the following that the structural model of the second verb phrase can consist of three components and it forms the following semantic-structural model in the surface structure: $V + Y + Prp + X$ (where $V$-verb + $Y$-direct object + preposition + $X$-any word). “The choice of preposition and, in this case, the expression of the syntactic relationship between the components of the phrase depends mainly on the morphological relationship of the main element. This is confirmed by the homonymous expression of the syntactic relationship, i.e., this condition is observed when one preposition is replaced by another or omitted altogether.

In the types of noun phrases Laugh at the other end, the need for clear decision, combinations with preposition at the other end, for clear decision, laugh, the need becomes an attribute of the headwords from syntactic position. From this it can be said that the structural model of the noun phrase consisting of a component represented by two root words looks like this: $N + Prp + X$ (where $N$-noun + preposition + $X$-any word).

However, it should be noted that neither the preposition nor $X$ (any element in particular) constitutes a separate component in this structure, only together they present the component of the structural-semantic model that represents this or that syntactic relationship [Bolinger Dwight. Aspects of Language., 1981; 368].

If we consider that the choice of prepositions in word combinations involving root words in the studied structure depends mainly on the lexical meaning of the main word, then, of course, other verbs and nouns in the same semantic framework will have to match the preposition as root words, and this is common in practice.


Mark took a look at my hitch and said the neck of the ball was too small, etc. [Palmer Ann. I Know How A Butterfly Feels., 2005; 26] – Марк менинг илгагимга назар солиб, коптокнинг бўйни жуда кичик эканлигини айтди.

From the above analysis, it can be seen that root words in the homonymous form are connected with each pronoun *her* by the preposition *at*, forming the verb $V + at + X$ and the noun $N + at + X$ models, which correspond to each other with the structure and model. The only difference between them is the $V$-verb and the $N$-noun. A similar situation can be seen in the following examples.

I really **feel for** people who suffer from depression. – Мен рухий тушкунликдан азият чекадиган одамларни жуда яхши ҳис этаман.

Even the three-month romance with Eric that ended so easily seemed to be “The End” for me for my almost desperate wanting a life mate, which gave me the **feeling**

To feel-feeling are root words that in this context are connected to the objective pronouns through the preposition for and create structurally similar models in the context. For example: V + for + X - felt for him; N + for + X - feeling for me.

From analysis we can see that the models of cognate verbs and noun phrases, the cores of which are connected with the same preposition, are called compatible models in our article.

When translating structural examples made of English root words into Uzbek, it became clear that Uzbek examples do not always fully correspond to one or another group of English models, as different prepositions correspond to Uzbek forms of relations.


He glanced up the street towards the hill [E.Voynich. The Gadfly., 2013; 373]. (У тепалик томонга чўзилиб кетган кўчага қаради).

– She noticed that the hand he waved was covered with fresh abrasions in the process of healing and glanced at the hand [Abrahams P. The Path of Thunder., 1956; 275] (Қиз кўтарган кўли энди битиб келаётган яра–чақалар билан қоплантанини кўрди, иккинчи кўлига қараган эди у ҳам шунақа экидан).

– And with each glance of their he felt the igers of his own class cheching at him to hold him down [E.Voynich. The Gadfly., 2013; 373]. (Шунинг учун қизлар унга ҳар нигоҳ ташлаганда, ўз муҳитининг чайир панжалари уни маҳкам ушлаб, тобора пастга тортаганини ҳис қиларди).

In these examples, the prepositions at, up, when they are used with the root words to glance – glance are represented by the suffix -га in Uzbek, the first pair of examples is a group of matching models and the second is a group of incompatible structural models.

Example: 1. His love was more ardent than ever, for he loved her for what she was [Jack London. The Adventurer, The Author, The Man: Collected Memoirs, Autobiographical Novels & Essays. 2017; 65]. (Йигитнинг муҳаббати тобора тераплаша ва кучча борди, чунки у Руфни шу туришича севарди).


From the given examples it can be seen that the preposition for, which comes with root words, is expressed in Uzbek with the help of the suffix -ча, the suffix -ни, –дан қатъий назар and the auxiliaries. For this reason, we do not group the Uzbek versions of the English examples, but only the study of methods for modifying the semantic-structural models of English phrases into Uzbek.

1. If the verbs and the nouns that correspond to them in meaning come with the same prepositions, then the meanings of the corresponding models may be the same in general. By meaning we mean the unit of lexical-grammatical meaning that forms the components of the model studied in the work [Lapshina M.N.,1996; 335].

Examples: – She sank in bounced-up on the spring mattress and smiled rapturously with closed eyes and open mouth. – У пружинали матрасга ўзини ташлади ва ним табассум билан кўзларини юмиб жилмайиб қўйди [Jack London. The Jack London Library., 2018; 141].

But a smile with the mouth closed and the eyes wrinkled a little at the corner can be… – Аммо ёпиқ оғиз билан кулганда кўзининг четида ажинлар бўлиши мумкин.

The meanings of the verb phrase smiled with closed eyes and open mouth and the noun phrases a smile with the mouth closed can be given in the general sense of laughter. Verb phrase smiled with closed eyes can be easily transformed into a noun phrase smiled with closed eyes and open mouth. Naturally, the noun phrase a smile with the mouth closed and eyes wrinkled can be a transformation into the verb phrase Smiled with closed eyes and open mouth. Analyzing the meaning and form of a phrase in English, D.S. Wars says, "Two phrases that can be transformed to each other are compatible in form and meaning" [Uors D.S., 1962; 98-114]. The compatibility of the meanings of the phrases being compared here is also checked by the syntactic relationships of their components at the phrase level. It is well known that in normative grammar the syntactic relations of the components of a verb phrase can be either an object or an adverbial, while the relation of the components of a noun phrase can only be attributive.


Pyle…passed through the Banting room without a look at left or right. [Greene G. The Queit American., 1976] – Пайл ... чап томонга ҳам, ўнгта ҳам қарамасдан ювиниш хонасидан ўтиб кетди.

The syntactic relation of the components in the combination of root words in these examples is attributive, as the prepositions at face, to left or right serve as
determinants of the noun.

Look at Carry’s face noun phrase in the process of transformation into a verb phrase looked at … face, the attributive relations change to the object relations, because here at face, looked becomes a complement to the verb.

2. In this way, the following words of V. Yartseva are once again confirmed: "management includes the syntactic relation of the verb and its complement, as well as attribute groups" [Yartseva V.N., 1968]. During the transformation noun phrase a look to left or right into a verb phrase looked to left or right, the attributive relation changes to the adverbial relation because to left or right looked is adverbial modifier to the verb.

Specific examples show that the proximity of an action to a semantic noun relative to a verb and the relative contextual relationship of both syntactic meanings and equivalent syntactic meanings of noun phrases to verb conjunctions.

3. We encounter similar facts when comparing different structural models involving related words, i.e. three-element phrases: N + Prp + X – a worry at present: Milocs was a lesson worry at present there will be a transformation into a four-element verb phrase: V + Y + Prp + X – worried him at present, the attributive relation changes to the adverbial relation [Yartseva V.N., 1968]. Worried at moments verb phrase in this only one thing worried her at moments the noun phrase and the adverbial relation change into the attributive relation. From this it can be said that the verb phrase, regardless of the number of elements in it, is transformed into the equestrian phrase because of the similarity of their semantic-syntactic meanings, and vice versa.

Thus, the above cases can be called compatible models.

Also, functionally-semantically compatible models are contextual-semantic compatibility of models of verb, equestrian phrases that have the same prepositions and can be transformed into each other without changing this preposition [Kurilovich E., 1962].

Let us now examine the syntactic relationship of the components of the contextually-semantically compatible models, expressed by this or that preposition. We analyze the current situation in detail as the prepositions used in the context decrease.

The relationship between the contextual equivalent and the cognate words that appear in the models.

As mentioned above, the preposition at can be used with the following
conjunctions in matching models:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>№</th>
<th>Root words in the models</th>
<th>The usage of the preposition AT with verb and noun</th>
<th>Application frequency in %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>V-look</td>
<td>795</td>
<td>68.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N-look</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>V-stare</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N-stare</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>V-smile</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N-smile</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>V-glance</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N-glance</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>V-wonder</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N-wonder</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>V-worry</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>N-worry</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Жами:</td>
<td>1162</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Approaching the material presented in this table, it can be said that functionally equivalent models that are compatible with each other are more commonly used with cognate words meaning “look” and “smile”.

Let's look at the following examples: – Tembi looked at the window [Doris Lessing. African Stories., 1981; 145] – The secretary glanced at the Treasurer and shrugged [Slesar Henry. Succes Machine., 2011; 104] – If my look at these towers told him he was mad he was right. Albert’s unsmiling eyes were steady after a quick glance at his theme [Malamud Bernard. A New Life., 2004; 168] – Темби деразаға керәди, котиба хазиналәңгә назар ташлали ва елкәсини кисиб қўйди. Агарда у миңәләрға керәтилган менинг нигоҳим унга аҳмоқоналигини айтган бўлса, у ҳак бўлган. Албертнинг жиддий қўзлари унинг сиймосига керәтилган ўтқир нигоҳидан кейин қотиб қолди.

In these sentences the verb phrases look at the window; glanced at the Treasurer were shown with noun phrases my look at tower; glance at his theme.

48
The meaning of these phrases can be expressed as follows: "look" and "object of look". In the prepositional phrases shown above, at with window and at the Treasurer are the prepositional complements to the verbs looked and glanced. We can see similar relational noun phrases as a result of transformation: (my) look at towers – looked at towers, a glance at (his) theme (Albert) glanced at his theme. In the transformation of the given noun phrases into verb phrases, at towers the relation of the subordinate element to the main (in this example looked, glanced) word is a determinant, because at towers, at (his) theme combinations become the object of action for verbs to look, to glance.

The analysis of specific examples shows that the preposition at when used with root words meaning “look and laugh” always represents a syntactic relationship that complements the object in verb groups and an attributive syntactic relationship in noun groups. They are in relation to mutually variable options. Their structural-functional models can be as follows:

\[
V + \text{Prp} + X \rightarrow N + \text{Prp} + X
\]

The preposition at is rarely used in contextual equivalent models with the words to worry, to wander. For example:

– I wandered at her. ….and once more he wandered at the change in her. – Мен унга хайротомуз қарадим: ... ва яна бир бор у ундағи ўзгаришга хайротомуз қаради [Jack London. Martin Eden. 1994; 142].
– Pledger pressed his hand against Sarah’s belly, laughing in wonder at the kick and stirrings from inside. – Пледжер ўзининг кўлларини Саранинг қорнинг босди, ичкидаги қимирлаш ва тепкига хайратомуз кулди [Aleksandr Saxton. The Great Midland. 1997; 21].

These phrases are: “These events represent the psychological process and object that emerges in the discourse. In this case, at her, at the change compounds indicate the occurrence of the action expressed by the verb to wander in verb compounds. If so, the preposition at with single-stem words to wander–wander represents an object and modifies it. Single-stem words to worry–worry are also sometimes preceded by a noun, but in this case it is the syntactic relation–adverbial relation of the components of the word combinations” [Thompson A.J. and Martinet A.V. A Practical English Grammar for Foreign Students., 1972].

Thus, the preposition at shows the adverbial relationship between contextual-syntactic equivalent models or between the components of an object or the phrases being studied. The first of these is distinguished by its frequent use in oral and written speech. The study concludes that contextual–syntactic equivalent models of verb and noun phrases are usually given to the Uzbek language with full or almost complete retention of its meaning. The preposition at is given in Uzbek with the case suffix –га. Here are some examples: – The Gadfly glanced at his left hand [E.Voynich. The Gadfly., 2013; 248] – Сўна унинг чап қўлига каради. … the girls sheded his face
from the sun and looked down and loved him and wandered at his loudly carelessness at their love [E.Voynich. The Gadfly., 2013; 138] (… ўша кизга қуёшдан сақланиш ва ўзининг мухаббатга хаддан ташқари тавбаси қилғанда акнингга ажабланиб, ошқоно кўзлари билан тикилиб ўтириш имконини берар эди).


In examples, the preposition at with the root words to laugh-laughter is expressed in Uzbek with the suffix -дан and the suffix -устидан. In the example given with the suffix -томонга, the relation of the object changes to the case. Example: – “Martin! She turned and looked at him in astonishment [Jack London. Martin Eden., 1994; 198]. Мартин! – қиз бурилди ва ҳайрон бўлиб у томонга қаради.

“Yes your eminence, the day before yesterday I heard him offer to have how taken of if he” – with the glance at the Gаdfly.” – would answer questions he had asked. [E. Voynich. The Gadfly. 2013; 241] (“Шундоқ ҳазратим, илгарги кун эшитсам полковник агар у – “сержант Сўна томонга шошқин бир назар ташлади, – жавоб беришга кўнса, қайишларни олиб ташлашни таклиф қилаётган экан). If the verb enters into an adverbial relationship with the preposition at, then the meaning of this compound is given to the Uzbek language with the case suffix -дан.

Syntactic and semantic analysis of cognate word combinations in English shows that cognate words can combine with other words in speech to form different models. Although verb compounds are different from equine compounds in this case, the difference is not very large. The difference between verb and noun combinations is obvious in their translation into Uzbek.

The preposition of gives the relationship of the following verb and noun groups when used with the root words to smell – smell, to taste – taste, to wander – wander, to want – want in the considered models. Example: the freshman girls smelled of body heat and talcum powder: … they don’t like our smell, the smell of Europeans [E. Voynich. The Gadfly. 2013; 210]. Smelled of heat, smelled of powder verb phrases and the smell of Europeans noun phrase refers to the smell and object that represent this phenomenon.

In the process of transforming the noun phrase The smell of Europeans into the verb smelled of Europeans, Prp + X becomes a complement to the verb to smell, and the relationship of the structural-functional models used with the preposition of is as
follows:

\[ V + \text{Prp} + X \rightarrow N + \text{Prp} + X \]

We can see the same situation in verb phrases; was wandering of it and tasted of salt, in the sentence: – Mordly... was wandering how much of it; He drank it than fetched, it tasted of salt. Or in the transformation of noun phrases: wander of its constructions and the taste of mouth, He wants to look at the mouth wander of its constructions; He tried not to moisten his lips so that taste... of her mouth wouldn’t be lost.

In groups where the preposition corresponds, the verb usually expresses an object relation, and it is often the leading quantity in terms of volume. In our example, one meaning element corresponds to one meaning. When used with the words to wander–wander, to want–want, to taste–taste, in the Uzbek language is given with the case suffix – дан. Here are some examples: 1. He marvelled at the wander of it and the truth [E. Voinich. The Gadfly. 2013; 213] – Мордер ундан лаззатланарди. Яхшии айтингчи, сиз мендан нима истайсиз. 2. Once I was interested myself in what for want of a better term they call news [E.Voinich. The Gadfly., 2013; 256]. – Улар янгиллик деб аталувчи нарсадан нима исташларига бир вақт мен ўзим ҳам кизиқиб колган эдим.

It can be said that the preposition of with the words to smell–smell, to taste–taste is given mainly in the Uzbek language with the case suffix – нинг. Example: But this kiss tasted at soapsuds and the lips...ere labby [E.Voinich. The Gadfly., 2013; 267] – Аммо бу ўпичда совун кўпигининг мазаси бор эди (Сўна).

In the structure of the corresponding functional-syntactic equivalent models the preposition for is used together with the root words to feel - feeling, to thank - thanks, to hope - hope, to worry - worry, to care - care, to wish - wish, in this case it is used with the verb (more often) and noun (less often) and they can represent the following actions:


2. – She doesn’t care for house work [Santa Montefiore. The House by the Sea., 2011; 305] .... – У уй ишларига аҳамият бермайди. ...and I worried for the three of us...— ва мен учовимиз учун ташвишландим. They could do anything chargin without care for anything [T. Dreiser. Sister Carrie., 1991; 580]... – Улар ҳеч нарса
It can be seen from the above verb phrases that the preposition for together with the X-elements represents the object relationship to the main verb. From this it can be said that the transformation of the noun phrase worry for her to the verb phrase he worried for her also gives the same syntactic relation – objective.

The preposition For is used with root words as follows: to long – longing, to wish – wish.

Example: ... he lays for the richness: I would wish for a city with wide streets. –.... with this his longing for Mr. Mizi returns; ... – a wish for comradeship in work that he’d known in the pit [E. Voynich. The Gadfly., 2013; 167]. Verb and noun phrases, in these examples with the preposition for, signify a desire directed to something or a person.

When the question is given to the related elements (i.e. Prp + X), it becomes clear that in verb phrases for the richness, for a city the words longs, would and wish are used as a complement to the main verbs.

Similar examples can be observed in the process of transformation of a horse phrase into a verb phrase: Longing for Mr Mizi; – Longed for Mr Mizi: and – wish for the comradeship in work; – wished for the comradeship in work.

Structural-semantic models of verb conjugation and noun phrase with the preposition for can be seen as follows:

\[ V + (Y) + Prp + X \]

\[ N + Prp + X \]

The preposition for always represents the object relation to the main verb with the elements X, i.e., the subordinate component is always the prepositional complement to the verb in the verb phrases.

The preposition for in the corresponding models, in Uzbek, mainly is represented by the suffix -га and the auxiliary for – учун with the object. Examples: “Do you know” he added, “I feel sorry for Mr Butter” – Биласизми, – деб илова килди Мартин – сизнинг ўша мистер Батлерингизга раҳмим келяпти; I have never done that to any woman in my life and I have never told a woman a life about my feeling for her. – Умримда ҳеч бир хотинга унга бўлган севгиларим тўғрисида ёлғон гап айтган эмасман. – You still persist, then wishing for a court wartid and asked my consent to it. – Гапнингизнинг мазмунидан ҳали ҳам харбий судга бериш талабиғизда қаттиқ турганга ўхшайсиз ва бунга менинг розилигимни истайсиз, шундайми? [E. Voynich. The Gadfly., 2013; 213]. When the preposition for is used with to care – care, to long – longing often represented in Uzbek by the suffix – ни and in rare cases by the suffix – ning: I can see you don’t care a brass farting for me [E. Voynich. The Gadfly., 2013; 134] – Кўриб туриман, мени ўлгудай ёмон кўрасан. You don’t care as much for me as for that dog [E. Voynich. The Gadfly., 2013; 145] – Сен шу итниิง
The preposition about comes with the words to worry - worry, to feel - feeling, to wander - wander in the corresponding functional-syntactic equivalent models. The preposition about is used with verbs in most cases, in rare cases with nouns. Root words used with this preposition denote an action or a situation in a being that means someone or something. Example: The syntactic relation of the components of the verb phrases feel about him, worry the shots is an objective relation, i.e. the verb as an predicate might feel and did not worry have a prepositional complement expressed by the combination of about him and about the shots.

In the phrases with nominal nouns such as feeling about Mr. Mizi and worry about Antonia it can be seen the same syntactic relationship, i.e.:

\[ V + \text{Prp} + X \]

Therefore, it can be said that functionally-syntactically equivalent models with preposition about always mean an objective relation.

In these phrases, the preposition about can be expressed in Uzbek in most cases with the suffix -га, or in less cases with the words – ҳақида and – тўғрисида.

Examples: How did she feel about this color business? How do all the black people in this country feel about it... – Қани, ирқчилик муаммосига у қандай карар экан? Умумун, бу мамлакатда яшовчи барча кора танлилар (унга) қандай карашаркан?.. The old feeling I’d had about Alice... – Алис ҳақида мен ёмон фикрда эдим $\text{Abrahams P. The Path of Thunder., 1956; 68}$.

Verb and noun word combinations with the preposition in, in the corresponding functional-syntactic models, when used with a root word, it mainly means the following:

– the movement of an object that reflects it and phenomenon with it is participation: –…he’d glanced in his mirror [$\text{Jackson Lisa. Shiver. 2007; 198}$] –... у кўзгудан ўзига назар ташлади. Roy smiled in admiration as he watched these beaves [$\text{Boys' Life Treasury., 1958; 148}$] – Рой ушбу самарага қараб ҳайратда табассум кили.

– Glanced in (his) mirror, smiled in admiration. Interaction of verb phrase components – adverbial in this case, i.e. in his mirror is adverbial of place to the verb glanced, the phrase in admiration is a case in which it represents the image of an action to the verb smiled.

The same thing we can see in the transformation of noun phrases a glance in his direction – томонга боқиш; a smile in easy gush of feeling – эътиборсизлик билан кулиш, i.e. the transformation to verb phrases feeling in myself – ичидаги ҳис-туйғу, I looked for any feeling in myself ҳин I (didn’t) feel in myself (for any suspicion).

Example: I felt in my pocket for the piece of paper [$\text{P. Abrahams. The Path of Thunder., 1956; 126}$].

Thus, the relationship between the structural-semantic models discussed above can be seen as follows:
In the following examples, we can see the same in the relationship between cognate verbs and noun phrases:

\[ V + \text{Prp} + X \rightarrow N + \text{Prp} + X \]

Then she kissed him in a way that was both fond and appealing.

\[ N + \text{Prp} + X \rightarrow V + Y + \text{Prp} + X \]

The kiss in a way.

Then she kissed him in a way that was both fond and appealing.

When the preposition in is used with root words to interest - interest, to hope – hope, to please – pleasure, this phenomenon can mean a directed object. Example: – “Hope” he said “you only hope in this climate... – “Ишонаманки”– деди у, “сиз факт шунга ишоняпсиз”. ...showing against things they haven’t a hope in the examination. –... улар қийинчиликларини истамаганликларини сабабли бу имтихонга хоҳиши йўқ эди [Jack London. Мartin Eden., 1994; 80].

In verb phrase hope in climate, in climate is a complement to the verb – to hope, we can define it as follows:

\[ N + \text{Prp} + X \rightarrow V + \text{Prp} + X \]

Hope in hell (smb) hoped in hell

The following examples confirm this conclusion:

To interest + Y + IN + X interest + in + X;

He tried to interest it in the mill (Nwfs.105) and there is no doubt he’s… his interest in literature.

So, in this case we can see the adverbial relationship of the components of the mutually compatible models when the preposition in used with root words to glance, to smile – smile, to smell – smell, to feel – feeling, and it reflects the object relationship when used with the words to hope – hope, to interest – interest. In percentage terms, in our article, this figure is equal, which means that the objective relationship is much larger.

The preposition in when it denotes an object relation is used in the Uzbek language with the suffix -га: – Аммо Герберт Спенсерниң келишига қизиқиб қолди [Jack London. Мartin Eden. 1994; 114].


In functional-syntactic models with the preposition into are used only root related to look - look: They looked into the dining room [W.Saroyan. The Saroyan Special., 1970; 59]; The last step was with open eyes, a long look into the vast emptiness [W.Saroyan. The Saroyan Special., 1970; 328].
The verb phrase looked into the dining room and noun phrase into the vast emptiness means бўшлиққа қаратилган нигоҳ.

In this case, the modifier X, which expresses the syntactic relationship of the components of the phrase in the verb phrases, looked into the dining room and this connection is expressed by a predicate in the sentence. The change of the noun phrase into the verb phrase indicates an adverbial relation:

a looked into the emptiness – looked into the emptiness.

Structural-semantic models of a verb and a noun correspondence with the preposition into have the following:

V + Prp + X
N + Prp + X


The verb and noun phrases in the examples mean “the laugh and cause of laugh”. A prepositional compound with the eyes is a complement in the verb group.

The relationship between the structural-semantic models of these phrases is as follows:

V + Prp + X
N + Prp + X

I treated her with a mocking friendliness which kept her puzzled, continual affection with irony [W. Saroyan. The Saroyan Special., 1970; 59] – the interaction of the components of the noun phrase affection with irony in the example of the verb form is adverbial, we can see the same in the remaining examples: thus, the preposition with means both an object and an adverbial relation in matching models with prepositions, and in any case it is translated into Uzbek with the help of an auxiliary – билан.

When a matching pair is used, it is used with root words denoting emotional perception of place, space, and time: Just to show how hasty they feel on the way out. It made me remember how I’d felt on the first day on my own holidays. “Oh dear!” I’ve got a junny feeling on my bottom now. In this type of verb phrases, prepositional phrases such as on the way out – йўлдаги вактда, on the first day – биринчи кунлари used as an adverbial modifier of time and place expressed by the verbs feel and had felt. Feeling on my bottom – вужудимдаги туйғу, shows adverbial syntactic relation to the transformation of noun phrase:

N + Prp + X
V + YPrp + X

The results of the analysis show, when the preposition on used with root words to feel - feeling always represents an adverbial relationship between the components of verb phrases. In matching models the preposition on can be used with root words to look-look, which denotes action-oriented emotion and an object. We can see in the next examples: – And nobody looked on it as at all out of the way [Ludlum Robert. The

On it and on Antonia prepositional phrases used as a complement to the main element. If we paraphrase the noun phrase look on Antonia to the verb phrase looked on Antonia in the sentence, She kept a wide–eyed look on Antonia and didn’t glance in my direction [Greg Johnson. I Am Dangerous: Stories., 1996; 25], in this case we can see the structural-semantic model of root words to look - look with the preposition on in the following form:

\[ V + \text{Prp} + X \rightarrow N + \text{Prp} + X \]

Thus in this context, the preposition on represents an object or adverbial relation.

When the preposition on is used with root words to look – look in English it corresponds to the Uzbek suffix – ға. I looked down on Antonia – Мен Антонияга қарадим – represents an object relationship. But if it is used with root words to feel–feeling it is represented by the case suffix – да: He captured the hand that invited, and felt on the palm familiar markings… – Мартин қизнинг пайнасләётган қўлини сикди ва унинг кафтида ўзига таниш бўлган яра ва чандик изини сезди. “It is only the vague feeling on my part” – Martin temporized… [Jack London. Martin Eden., 1994; 112] – Мен шундай ҳис этаман.

The preposition to is used only with the root words to look – look, to refer – reference in matching models: Who would never dared to look to the left or to the right … Pyle…passed through the Banting room without a look at left or right – Пайл ... чап томонга ҳам, ўнг ёки чапга қарамасдан ўтиб кетди… [Greene G. The Comedians., 1967; 211].

Here, the phrase means “emotional perception in space” from the point of view of cognitive linguistics and shows the relationship of the following structural-semantic models:

\[ V + \text{Prp} + X \rightarrow N + \text{Prp} + X \]

\[ To \ look \ to \ the \ left \ or \ right \rightarrow \text{ё} \ ўнг ёки \ чапга қарамок. \]

\[ A \ look \ to \ the \ left \ or \ right. \rightarrow \text{ё} \ ўнг ёки \ чапга қараш. \]

When the preposition to is used with the root words to refer – reference refers to this object-oriented event. For example: – We both know what she referred to… – Іккаламиз ҳам ўнинг нимага муружаат қилганини биламиз. … which I take as reference to her characteristic twisted… [Galsworthy J. The Apple Tree//Modem English Short Stones., 1961; 372] – ... мен унинг характери ўзгарганлигиға ишора қиламан. In this case, the relationship between the structural-semantic models VC and NC should be as follows:
We can conclude that when the preposition to in Mid (matching models) is used with root words, it can express object and adverbial relations in verb phrases.

The different range of syntactic relations expressed by the preposition depends not on the lexical meaning of the words that denotes meaning, but on the grammatical meaning of the X element. For example: I look back instantly to Palmer. I did not look to the garden. In these examples, the verb to look, which used in the meaning of gaze, the nouns Palmer and garden used with the same preposition to. As we can imagine, in the verb phrase used as adverbial modifier of place to the verb didn’t look. In the example Look to Palmer, to Palmer it is used as a complement to the verb didn’t look.

This is because garden is the name of an inanimate object representing a place, and Palmer is a noun representing a living person. We can see that, although in rare cases, the syntactic relationship also depends on whether the preposition comes with the next element. As can be seen from the examples, the preposition to corresponds to the case suffix – га in the Uzbek language, it denotes the object and adverbial relations, based on the expression of X - element.


Thus, over my shoulder – елкам оркали, over their examinations – экзаменлари ҳақида are prepositional phrase, and the transformation into verbs to glance – қарамоқ, to worry - ташвишланмоқ shows exactly this syntactic relationship:

\[
\text{V + Prp + X} \rightarrow \text{N + Prp + X}
\]

| (her) worry over the first born | (she) worried over the first born |
| (fearful) glances over their shoulders- | (they) glanced over their shoulders |

It can be said that in matching models the preposition over always represents the object-syntactic relationship.

In these pairs, the preposition over is represented in Uzbek with the case suffix – га, – орқали (оша) and in rare cases it is represented in Uzbek with the suffix – ҳақида when used with root words to worry – worry. For example: Julia snatched the paper from her husband, glanced over it, and flew at Arthur… – Юлия эримнинг ќўлидан қўлозни ќўли олиб (унга) кўз югуртириб чиқди-да, яхши тарбияланган
It is noted that the preposition from is used with root words to smell – smell in matching models: In summer it would be scented with smell of wood and flower smells from outside… – Ёзда ташқарида дарахт ва гулларнинг ҳидини сезиш мумкин эди. There was now a smell from downstairs… – Узвиз қорайиб турган гўрга ёрқон қиларди. In general, the phrases here refer to “the object and emotion from which this phenomenon occurs”. The prepositional compound from outside, serves as an adverbial modifier of place for the verb smells.

We can see adverbial syntactic relations when the noun phrase a smell from downstairs – пастдан ҳид келади transforms to the verb phrase smell from downstairs – пастдан ҳид анқирди. We can show the relationship between structural and semantic models as follows:

\[ V + \text{Prp} + X \rightarrow N + \text{Prp} + X \]

False–matching group models are part of matching groups, in which a root word is used with the same prepositions as a meaningful word. For example: – Tommy looked from his father and then at his mother... – Томми отасига қаради ва кейин онасига. There were expressions on these passing faces, eyes to meet… eyes inviting looks from him [Galsworthy J. The Apple Tree//Modern English Short Stories., 1961; 98] – Бу юзлардаги кечаётган ифодалар, кўзлардаги ... унинг кўзлари ўзига жалб этувчи кўзлар эди. In general, the verb phrase means “action + this object of action”. If we compare the noun phrase looks from him, then this phrase changes into person + the verb phrase that gives the meaning: somebody looks and this shows that looked from his father verb phrase, will not be transformed into noun phrase looks from his father, because in this example, looks does not refer his father’s “gaze” but rather the gaze directed at his father by another person. Or and so, the noun phrase looks from him will not be a transformation into the verb phrase looked from him because someone is not looking at him, but he is waiting for someone’s look.

In general, there is a great potential for the transformation of a verb phrase into a noun phrase or vice versa, in this situation the transformation is accomplished by changing one element of the studied models to another or dropping one or more elements. We can express the following:

\[ V + \text{from} + X \rightarrow N + \text{from} + X \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Looked from his father.</th>
<th>A look from him.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Or:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N + from + X</td>
<td>X + V</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Looks from him.</th>
<th>He looked.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

It should be noted that the existence of the preposition from depends not on
the morphological or lexical meaning of the word, but on their syntactical position
in the context, that is the presence of this preposition in the verb phrase indicates the
relation between the conjunction of root word to look with the next at his father, and
conjunction of the root word a look with the word inviting.

We can see such a relationship between the components of matching models in
another type of example: But I need it for something else. The verb phrase need it for
in this example means action + directed to another object and the meaning “object of
action” represented by the preposition for. If we compare this phrase I don’t have to
tell you anybody the need for absolute secrecy with the noun phrase, then the change
of the noun phrase into the verb phrase means action + no preposition. In the scheme
somebody needed absolute secrecy this would look like this:

\[
\begin{align*}
&V + Y \text{ Prp} + X \rightarrow N + \text{Prp} + X \\
&\text{And I love her for the innocence of her question.} \quad \text{My love for the innocence.}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
&N + \text{Prp} + X \rightarrow V + X \\
&\text{I feel I’m entitled to my love for you} \quad \text{I loved you.}
\end{align*}
\]

The functional–semantic models mentioned in our work and their types are
represented by compatible models.

These models are a combination of verbs and nouns with the same preposition,
which do not transform into each other because of the different relationships between
the elements.

The similarity of the studied models hides them radically, we can see several
different types of relationships in exactly the same type of construction pattern.

From the examples given in the matching groups, that the root words with the
same prepositions can be seen more often in the matching groups than in the fake
matching groups.

In our study, we will analyze the syntactic relationship between each preposition
and the components of the models shown separately.

The preposition in is used with the root words to look – look in false matching
models: 1. When the verb to look is used with the preposition in it indicates an action
directed at a person, an object: Example: And you know it yourself if you look in
your heart... – Буни ўзингиз биласиз агарда юрагингизга қулоқ солсангиз. She
ўзини унинг юзига қараба мажбур қилди. As can be seen from the examples, the
X-element of the verb phrase model is represented by a cognate noun.

If the X-element is represented by an abstract noun, then to look in is motion
and a method of representing this motion, place and time.

For example: – Lord D. looked up in gratified astonishment... – Лорд Д. мамнун
When he came out she looked in his direction for several seconds...— У ташқарига чиққанида, у у томон бир неча сония қараб ўтди...– У Нейлга ёрдам бериш учун бир ёки икки кеча кириб ўтди. Лекин in предлоги look от билан келганда “бирор бир нарсада намоён бўладиган тур”ни белгилайди. For example: He tried to signal the friend to stop with the horn or quell him with dirty look in the mirror...[Hemingway E. For Whom the Bell Tolls., 1966; 347] – Дўстини овози билан туҳтатиш ёки уни тинчлантириш учун хижолатли нигоҳи билан ойнага ишора қилди. And from this we can say that look in the mirror is not transformed into the phrases being compared in it.

She must have loved him in her way... – Эхтимол, у уни ўзича яхши кўрган бўlsa керак. I knew love in a woman when I see it...[Jack London. Martin Eden., 1994; 315] – In the examples, the verb phrase love him in her way indicates an event + object, and the manifestation of this event is a transformation into a noun phrase: my love (for him)in this way. The same noun phrase will not be transformed into V + Prp + X – loved in a woman. But it is possible: X+V – a woman loved (somebody), because syntactic relationship between the transformation components of the noun phrase is in the form of an subject-predicate relationship, i.e. the noun phrase represents “moving person + action”.

.... well, Emery, I came home with all the love in the world [J. London. Martin Eden., 1994; 546]. Here, the noun phrase is not transformed into the verb phrase, because the interaction between the components of the noun phrase has only an attributive determinative character. "Descriptive groups with preposition have only a descriptive object and a descriptive character of determining condition." The choice of preposition in this case and the expression of the syntactic relationship between the components of the phrases depends largely on the morphological relationship of the main element and is confirmed by the homonymous expression of this syntactic relationship, i.e. we can see this condition when one preposition is replaced by another or omitted altogether.

When the verb to laugh comes with the preposition in, “it means a psychological process, method, time, and place to express this phenomenon.” Example: I haven’t laughed go much in years... – Йиллар давомида мен бунақанги кўп кулмагандим. The cognates cried and laughed in the bush...[E.Voynich. The Gadfly., 2013; 373] – Бу орада қариндошлар қичқиришди ва кулишди.

This N+Prp+X verb phrase (I heart very much of this kind of) will transform such noun phrases as laughter in these years; (I don’t like her) laughter in this way; the laughter in the bush (hurts me). But the noun phrase – laughter in her eyes does not transform to the verb phrase – laughed in her eyes. For example: N+Prp+X → V+prp+X; ...he was looking at Modaline Gray’s white face with the quite intorrigible laughter in her eyes [E.Voynich. The Gadfly., 2013;47] – у Мадалин Грейнинг юзига
кўзларидаги самимий кулги билан қаради. But there is possibility of transformation – V+with+X – laughed with his eyes.

Hence, we can say that the relationship between the structural-semantic models of the root words to laugh-laughter can look like this:

\[
\begin{align*}
V + \text{in} + X & \rightarrow N + \text{in} + X \\
N + \text{in} + X & \rightarrow V + \text{with} + X
\end{align*}
\]

Here we can see that the prepositions in and with are synonymous: The root words to taste–taste with the preposition in represent “the possibility of acceptance and the place of its manifestation”. Examples: I can’t taste in the dark... – Мен қоронғуликда татиб кўролмаяпман. ... there was an acrid taste in his mouth and an actual physical pain at the pit of his stomache... [E.Voynich. The Gadfly., 2013; 234] – Унинг оғзида аччиқ таъм ва корнида қаттиқ оғриқ бор эди. In these examples the verb phrase can’t taste tea in the dark can be transformed to the noun phrase taste of the tea in the dark, but the noun phrase a tasted in his mouth can not be transformed to the noun phrase tasted in his mouth.

Hence, the syntactic relation of the components of the verb phrases is adverbial, i.e.:

\[
\begin{align*}
V + Y + \text{in} + X & \rightarrow N + \text{of} + X + \text{in} + X \\
N + \text{in} + X & \rightarrow X + V
\end{align*}
\]

In this case, the syntactic relationship between the components of noun phrases has a subject-predicative character -S, i.e. the phrase becomes a sentence.

– But she remained friendly ... asking Julia about her taste in literature. – Аммо у дўстона муносабатда колар эди .... Жулиядан унинг адабиётга бўлган диди ҳақида сўраётиб. It was not his taste in music they were arguing about... [E.Voynich. The Gadfly., 2013; 241] – Улар унинг мусиқага бўлган диди ҳақида бахслошмаётган эди – in these examples, noun phrases her taste in literature and his taste in music are not transformed into tasted in literature and tasted in music verb phrases. If you need to change them, then it is possible while preserving noun phrase to have a good taste in literature (in music). Example: Julia hasn’t generally very good taste in man. [E.Voynich. The Gadfly., 2013; 122]. The syntactic relationship of the components of this noun phrase has only an attributive determinative character, and this only applies to noun groups.

We can also add that the root words to kiss – kiss are used with the preposition in in groups that correspond to each other and indicate "the ability to accept and place or the way it is represented". Example: I kissed her in the palm and raised my eyes to her again. In the above sentence, the phrase with the preposition in the palm becomes an object to the verb kissed.

Example: There had been nothing finally beyond a quick kiss in the car [Frank Anne. The Diary of a Young Girl., 1992; 98] – Машиадаги шошилинч бўсадан
ташқари ҳеч нарса йўқ эди. In this example, in the car – is adverbal modifier in verbal form: (somebody) kissed smb. in the car. Thus, when the preposition in is used with root words to look–look, to love–love, to laugh–laughter, to taste–taste, to kiss–kiss in models that are incompatible with each other, it represents the following syntactic relationship:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In verb groups</th>
<th>Adverbial communication</th>
<th>Object communication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>99.5%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In noun groups</td>
<td>Subject-predicative communication</td>
<td>Pure attributive communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Object-attribute communication</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As we see, the preposition in with the verb to look is given in the Uzbek language with the case suffix – га, and with the verb to kiss is given with the case ending – дан.

Example: Look me in the face and say that it is not true if you can [E.Voynich. The Gadfly., 2013; 73] – Қани, агар шу гапнинг ёлғон бўлса, кўлингдан келса, юзимга қараб ёлғон деб кўр-чи. She had never looked in eyes that expressed greater power... – Бу қадар иқтидорли куч акс этган кўзни Руьф ҳеч қачон кўрмagan. If the verb to look is used with a noun denoting place, then the preposition in translates into Uzbek with suffix – га or participle indicates an adverbial relation: to look in (his) direction. – У томонга қарамоқ; She was looking at him an earnest and troubled way... [Jack London. Martin Eden., 1994; 155] – У Мартинга хомуш тикилиб ўтирарди. We have already mentioned that the preposition in corresponds to the Uzbek equivalent – да. (Adverbial) Examples: How the people had laughed and gossiped in the streets... – Кўчаларда одамлар чаккашардилар.

Andidid it to the personi loved best in the world... – Дунёда ҳаммадан ҳам ортик яхши кўрганимга жуда ёмон муомила қилганман. He laughed in his tipsy way and winked one eye... [ E.Voynich. The Gadfly., 2013; 264] – У мастларча кулиб, кўзини кисиб қўиди. When the preposition in is used with the nouns taste, love in noun groups it indicates the subject-predicative relationship. In this case, English phrases become a sentence. Example: Cripes, but I have got a taste in my mouth – Уф! Оғзим бемаза бемаза бўлиб кетибди [Jack London. Martin Eden., 1994; 45]. And we are fortunate above nost for me have found our first love in each other [Jack London. Martin Eden., 1994;191] – Ахир, иллак мухаббатимиз иккиёнглама бўлиб чиқди. If the preposition in expresses only an attributive defining relation, then these phrases are also modified into attributive defining phrases in Uzbek. Example: His taste in music – унинг мусиқага бўлган диidi; I came home with all love in the world – олам–олам кувонч (севинч билан келган эдим).

In false matching models the preposition for is used with root words to love–love, to hate–hatred, to dislike–dislike, to smile–smile, to need–need, to admire–admiration, to regard–regard. This harmonization represents the time or purpose as well as indicating the cause of the process and event. Example: “You are very high
indeed” said Palmer,” and we love you for it”. She had almost come to hate him for the love that found her to that house [Jack London. Martin Eden., 1994; 137].

The preposition for in noun compounds refers to the action-oriented object and the ability of accepting when used in conjunction with the root noun. Example: …. that white man in yard had already been talking about the love for a wage increase. – ... ҳовлидаги оқ одам иш ҳақини оширишга бўлган ишонч ҳақида аллакачон гапираётган эди.... if only we could have been sustained by hatred for them or by indifference... [T. Dreiser. An American Tragedy., 2000; 137] – ...агарда биз улардаги нафрат ёки локайдликдан кутулиб кола олганимизда эди. In this situation it looks like: V+Y+for+X- love you for it. The verb phrase N+for+X+for+X- our love for you for it can be transformed to the noun phrase, but the noun phrase N+for +X a love for better cannot be transformed to the verb phrase N+Y+for+X – loved somebody for Bettea. In the models being compared, only the V + X – (she) loved Bettee shows the relationship. Then in the verb groups they are adverbial (formative) and in noun groups they are object-attributive (object determiner). We can cite the following examples as proof of this:

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
V+Y+for+X & N + for + X + for + N \\
\end{array}
\]

I didn’t admire him for feeling it. 
...he dislikes himself for it; Swinton regarded him for a moment. ..my admiration for him is not for feeling it; 
...his dislikes for himself for it; Swinton’s regard for him for a moment.

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
N + for + X & V + X \\
\end{array}
\]

“No, of course you didn’t”, said Martin soothingly for the stout little woman [Jack London. Martin Eden. 1994;118]. (Martin) admired the woman.

He smiled for a moment as he shoved the succesfull ship of territory [Jack London. Martin Eden., 1994; 43]. In such sentences like … he smiled for… natives was warm and grateful when the preposition for is used with the root word smile psychological process and does not indicate the time at which this event occurred. The preposition for indicates an object relationship when used with the same root noun, so it is not possible to transform these word combinations into each other due to differences in syntactic relationships between components. This situation can only be as follows:

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
V + for + X & N + for + X \\
\end{array}
\]

Smiled for a moment. (There was) a smile for a moment.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
N+for+X \\
\end{array} \rightarrow V+to+X \\
\]

– Her smile for natives – (she) smiled to the natives

It should be noted that the preposition for refers to an object relationship between the components when used with a noun:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{N+for+X} & \quad \rightarrow \quad V+X
\end{align*}
\]

| What most appall was the sense which I had so clearly had when I was with Antonia of my need for her, my need for them [Jack London. The Jack London Library., 2018; 42]. | (I) need her. |

As a result of the transformation of this phrase into a verb, we can see a "subject-predicative relationship" and it is used without a preposition:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{N+ for + X} & \quad \rightarrow \quad X + V
\end{align*}
\]

| There is no need for to use that word. There is no need for me to leave her. | You don’t need to use that word. I don’t need to leave her. |

As can be seen from the above examples, the subject-predicative relationship shows the use of phrases in sentences that begin with the conjugation of the pronoun There + be and the possessive pronouns that come as a determiner. Thus, the combination of for + X in the false matching models of verb and noun phrases; in verb groups – adverbial relation, in noun groups – object-attribute and subject-predicative models are used.

The preposition for indicates the adverbial relation when it comes together with all the verbs mentioned above, and can be translated into Uzbek as – учун, туфайли, – дан, катъий назар, сабабли. Example: And even your smoking and your swearing – they are part of you and I’ll love you for them, too... – Сигарет чекишингиз ҳам, сўкишингиз ҳам – буларнинг ҳаммаси вужудингизнинг бир узви мо ва мен сизни шу нинг учун ҳам севаман. “Love beauty for its own sake” – was his council... – Сиз гўзалликини фақат гўзаллги туфайли севинг. His love was more and andent then ever, for he loved her for what she was... [Jack London. The Jack London Library., 2018; 176] – Йигитнинг муҳаббати тобора тераплаш ва зўра борди, чунки у Руфни шу туришича севаман, ҳатто кизнинг жисмоний заифлиги унинг кўзига алоҳида гўзаллик бўлиб кўринар эди.

In noun groups, the preposition for means an object-predicative relation and is translated into Uzbek with the help of the case suffix – га or – га +. In noun phrases and verb groups, is translated with a suffix – ни. Example: If she should feel hunger and thirst and heat and cold then could she feel love– and love for a man – Мухими шу эдики, у очлик ва ташналикни ҳис килиши, иссиқ ва совукдан азият чекиш, эркак кишни севиш мумкин эди.

The noun Need can express the subject-predicative relation when is used with the preposition for. Example: ... with Martin the need for strong drink had vanished... – Лекин Мартинга энди маст қилувчи ичимлик даркор эмас.
This preposition used with the root words to smile – smile and means “the psychological process”. Example: The grey eyed moon smiles on the frowing night – Кулранг кўзли ой изғирин тунда табассум этарди. ...and he caught a faint smile on her lips... [Jack London. The Jack London Library., 2018; 352] – ... ва у унинг лабида нозик кулгини пайқаб қолди.

When the transition from a verb phrase to a noun phrase is transposition and vice versa, the preposition on is not retained in the transposition of the noun phrase or is replaced by another preposition denoting the syntactic relationship between the components. Example:

\[
\begin{align*}
V + \text{on} + X & \rightarrow N + \text{on} + X \\
(\text{The moon}) & \text{smiles on the night.} \\
(\text{Ой}) & \text{тунда табассум этарди.}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
N + \text{on} + X & \rightarrow V + \text{with} + X \\
...\text{a smile on her lips.} & \rightarrow (\text{she}) \text{ smiled with her lips.} \\
...\text{lаблардаги табассум.} & \rightarrow (\text{У}) \text{ лаблари билан кулди.}
\end{align*}
\]

Compare: Moose Murray only smiled slowly with careless lips

\[
\begin{align*}
N + \text{on} + X & \rightarrow X + V \\
\text{I go home with a smile on my face} & \rightarrow \text{Юз – Ўзим кулари.
}
\end{align*}
\]

As noted earlier, when the preposition on is used with the root words to feel–feeling it refers to emotional perception that occurs in place, space, and time. Taking into consideration the uniformity of form and meaning of the models, they are included in the group that corresponds to each other. Here the preposition on is used only with the noun feeling, and signifies sensory perception as well as the object to which this action is directed. Example: The pages that follow his and why my feeling on the subject of Palmer are mixed ones. [Jack London. The Jack London Library., 2018; 23]

This situation is also seen in the transformation of the noun phrase into a verb: feeling on the subject – (I) left the subject or (I) felt about the subject.

Compare: I want to feel my way about. To feel about the way for a while [J. London; 49]. Our conclusion looks like this in the diagram:

\[
\begin{align*}
N + \text{on} + X & \rightarrow X + V \text{ or } V + \text{about} + X \\
\text{My think on the subject.} & \rightarrow \text{I think about the subject.}
\end{align*}
\]

These examples prove that the prepositions on and about can be used synonymously.

Also using the preposition on in conjunction with root words to look–look, we can also see the process directed in the case of emotional perception and object-oriented event.

But when the preposition on is used in conjunction with the noun look, it means the person in motion + the action. Example: The look on the barman’s face
was the duplicate of Tom Ardrahan’s – Буфетчинынг юзидаги нигоҳ худди Том Ардраханникига ўхшар эди. And we can see this in the diagram as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{N+on+X} & \rightarrow \text{X + X} \\
\text{There was the bewildered look on his face} & \rightarrow \text{У нинг бўзарган юзини кўрди.} \\
\text{His face looked bewildered} & \rightarrow \text{Унинг юзи бўзарibu кетган эди.}
\end{align*}
\]

Here the root words to look - look have different meanings: glance and appearance. Thus, when the preposition on is used in conjunction with the root words to smile-smile and nouns feeling, look means an adverbial syntactic relationship between the components of verb phrases and a subjective-predicative and object-attributive syntactic relationship between the components of a noun phrase. In the Uzbek language in adverbial relations it is used with the case suffix – да and object-predicate suffix – ни or auxiliaries – ҳақида.

In groups that do not match, the preposition at denotes emotional perception, the object and the action being directed to it. Example: Let’s not have any hard feeling at each other [Jack London. The Jack London Library., 2018; 176] – Келинг, бир-биримизни ҳеч ҳам қаттиқ ҳафа қилмайлик. In another example, the preposition at used with the root words to feel-feeling to compare emotional perception with corresponding groups that indicate the place (or time) that takes place in that being. Example:

\[
\begin{align*}
V + \text{at} + X & \rightarrow N + \text{at} + X \\
\text{I use to feel like you at your age.} & \rightarrow \text{(I had) the same feeling at your age.}
\end{align*}
\]

Compare:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{N + at + X} & \rightarrow V + \text{for} + X \rightarrow V + \text{to} + X \\
\text{Any hard feelings at each other.} & \rightarrow \text{(We) felt hard for each other.}
\end{align*}
\]

Compare: I feel a lot of gratitude to you. I felt some sympathy for them [Jack London. The Jack London Library; 2018;104].

From the following examples, we can say that the preposition at always represents the object-attribute relationship in not matching groups with the noun feeling, and it is expressed in Uzbek by the verb form – ни. Example: I felt the same feeling at your age. Сенинг ёшингда мен ҳам шундай туйғуни хис қилганман.

It is shown that the use of prepositions from with the root words to look–look, to love–love in not matching models. Examples: Gidion looked from Mrs. Farguar to Mr. Farguar; ….but he wanted none of the … eyes inviting looks from him.

The preposition from is used in conjunction with the verb and means a glance, an object and the action directed at it. When it comes with the root word look, it indicates a glance, an object that is the starting point of this action.

So, the verb phrase look from Mrs. Farguar is an object the syntactic relationship between the components of the verb phrase, i.e. from Mrs. Farguar is a complement to the verb looked.
If we change the noun phrase from looks to him to the verb phrase, the syntactic relation changes to the subject-predicate, that is:

\[
N + \text{from} + X \rightarrow X + V
\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Looks from him.</th>
<th>He looks (at those passing faces).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

When the preposition from is used in conjunction with the verb to love it means emotional perception and the time at which it occurs: He felt he had loved her from the time he had laid eyes on her [Jack London. Martin Eden., 1994; 202].

We can see that from the time is used as adverbial modifier of time expressed by the verb love. In the sentence Mrs. Mizi sees Jabov’s eyes, demanding love from me, using the noun love with the preposition from shows existing of demanding and represents emotional perception, that is, the person in action + action – represents the syntactic relationship:

\[
N + \text{from} + X \rightarrow X + V
\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Love from me.</th>
<th>I love.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

From the above analysis with concrete examples, it can be seen that the preposition from in verb groups with root words to look-look, to love-love shows an object and adverbial-syntactic relations.

In Uzbek, the preposition from expressing the object translates as –га. Example: When he looked back now from his vantage ground, the old world he had known … seemed a very small world…– Мартин ўзининг ўтмиш муҳитига назар солганида, муҳити назарида унга жуда кичик бўлиб туюлди. The preposition from expresses adverbial relations and corresponds to the Uzbek equivalent – дан: This is public business and we have to look at it from the point of view of utility… [Jack London. Martin Eden., 1994; 202] – шунинг учун бу ишга кўпроқ фойда етказиш нуқтаи назаридан қараш керак бўлади. In noun groups, the preposition from always represents the subject-predicative relation. Examples: – ….he is a true patriot and has deserved nothing but love and respect from me. – У асл ватанпарвар, мен унга муҳаббат ва ҳурмат билан қараш керак эди. Never having been conscious of himself he didn’t know that he had that in his being that drew love from women. [Jack London. Martin Eden., 1994; 38] – Мартиннинг жинғалак сочларини аёллар ёкин тўриларди.

This section shows the use of the preposition to with the verb to look, and it refers to an action-oriented object. Example: I looked back instantly to Palmer. This type of verb phrase is compared with using the preposition to with root words to look - look in matching models. This correlation implies an object as emotional perception, space, and being.

Differences in syntactic relationships do not allow for the transformation of VC and NC at all. When the preposition to comes with to look, in Uzbek it is represented by the case suffix -дан: … and people looked eagerly to him for an exposition of the doctrine [E.Voynich. The Gadfly., 2013; 68] – Халқ ундан янги таълимотни,
We see that in groups of matching models, as well as in groups of not matching models, the preposition with is used in conjunction with root words to smile-smile, to affect-affect, but the syntactic relationships are different in both groups. For example, in verb groups: She was smiling with that light, almost painful expression. – adverbial, it should also be noted that verb and noun phrases during the transformation in matching models is using as an objects. – Could affect with his twenty-one trops. – in the expression this condition has an analogous character.

In the example, There were more beavers in this five square miles of late shore than he could affect with his twenty-one traps [E.Voynich. The Gadfly., 2013; 153] the prepositional phrase could affect has been a complement to the main components. They are adverbial modifiers in groups that match each other. Thus, it was found that the preposition with (in groups of verbs) represents not matching object or adverbial relation. There are also denoted structural-semantic models in verb forms: adverbial and objective, in noun groups: object-attributive, subject-predicative and only attributive relations.

The syntactic relationship between the components of phrases that come with the same preposition was mentioned earlier.

The analysis of the groups of not matching models mentioned above helped to identify the following:

α) The external similarity of structural models may obscure their internal differences, and we were able to notice this through the method of transformational analysis of comparable phrases.

β) The use of structural models of verb and noun phrases with prepositions is consistent with the structural-semantic model of the compound, and it is distinguished by the diversity of syntactic relationships between the main and subordinate components of the models.

γ) The difference in syntactic relations between the main and subordinate components is characterized by the morphological diversity of the main components of verb and noun phrases, which is reflected in their lexical-grammatical harmony in speech.

This is seen in the fact that the main verb is often combined with an X-element representing an abstract concept, place, time, or being. In this case the subordinate component always indicates an adverbial relation to the main verb. When the noun of this semantic field combined with substantive elements, often refers to an attributive relation that partially represents the subject, or only an attributive relation to the main noun that is not expressed in verb groups in general.

A characteristic feature of subject-predicative models in noun phrases is that in the transformation of noun phrases the function of the subject is replaced only
by a substantive element without prepositions, and the characteristic aspect of the
attributive model of noun phrases is its ability to transfer into verb phrases.

The object relationship represented by the subordinate components is
characterized by the fact that the main verb can be controlled by the preposition and
have a verb property.

This is confirmed by the fact that the main noun can be replaced by a transitive
verb, and in this case the function of object is performed only by the substantive
element without the preposition, namely:

\[ \text{N + Prp + X} \rightarrow \text{V + X} \]

Or: this preposition can be replaced with other prepositions:

\[ \text{N + Prp + X} \rightarrow \text{V+prpl + X} \]

It can be seen from the given examples that in structural-semantic models, first,
the choice of preposition in cases where the subordinate component expresses object
relations in verb groups depends on the lexical meaning of the main components or the
lexical-grammatical combination of key elements representing attributive relations.

The analysis of the Uzbek equivalent of English phrases used with prepositions
shows that using the preposition on with to smile, preposition at with to feel translates
as case affix –дан and using the preposition for with words to dislike, to need, to
love, to regard, to hate, to admire translates as participle –учун, –туфайли, сабабли,
-дан + қатъий назар and expresses an adverbial relations. The preposition from with
to look translates as –га, the preposition to with to look and the preposition with
with to affect translates as –да a case affix and expresses an object relations. In noun
groups when the preposition for with the words dislike, need, love, regard, hatred,
amiration; prepositions at and on using with feeling translates as –ни, -ҳакида and
expresses an object-predicate relations. When using the preposition for with need,
the preposition on with smile and smile, the preposition from with look, love they
can express a subject-predicative relations (i.e. a phrase turns into sentence). We can
see that the preposition expresses only the attributive relations, we can see when the
preposition in only used with the nouns taste and love, the noun phrase transfers into
the Uzbek language only through the noun phrase.

CONCLUSION

1. Related words are often used with the same prepositions in group models
that correspond to each other (V and N).

2. The meaning of structural models of verb and noun phrases is often related
to the generality of the meaning of semantic lexemes, and this allows these prepositions
representing syntactic relationships to be transformed into each other without change.
It follows that the coherence of root words is the reason for the emergence of syntactic
synonyms.

3. The syntactic relationships between the components of the matching
models can be objective or adverbial in verb groups, and hence object-attributive or
adverbial-attributive in noun groups.

4. Prepositions of the same type and the synonymous relations expressed by them, as well as words that give meaning, and their prepositions are represented by lexical-grammatical meaning, and in them the lexical meaning prevails over the grammatical meaning.

5. Root words in English are often used with the same prepositions and create matching structural models of verb and noun combinations used with the preposition.

6. In the Uzbek language, the primary state of adjectives before they entered into an attributive relationship with a definite noun was the substantive state. In other words, words belonging to the category of adjectives until they entered into an attributive relationship with nouns performed a syntactic function like nouns and were understood as nouns. While the substantive state of adjectives is primary, their involvement in attributive communication with nouns is secondary.

7. It is emphasized that the meaning of structural models of verb and noun phrases in English is often related to the lexical meaning of root headwords, i.e. substantive phrases are replaced by verb phrases or verb phrases are replaced by noun phrases without changing prepositions and expressing their syntactic relations.

8. When English prepositions are translated into Uzbek, firstly, the boundary between verb and noun phrases disappears, and secondly, the boundary between phrases and sentences disappears, because in English, prepositional phrases, in the form of noun and verb phrases, can also have sentence structures.

The similarities and differences of object or object-attribute relations with prepositions, as well as adverbial relations or adverbial-attributive relations in Uzbek, the similarities and differences with the auxiliaries in the function of case are classified as follows:

α) similarity in object or object-attribute relations with prepositions;
β) similarity in adverbial relation or adverbial-attributive relation.

In English and Uzbek, in expressing the object or object-attribute relations with prepositions there were revealed some discrepancies between prepositions and conjunctions, as well as participles and equivalents, between auxiliaries and modal words in the form or its equivalents.

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