

## SEMIOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF MONOLINGUAL DICTIONARIES

(On example of French dictionaries)

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### ABSTRACT:

The achievements of modern lexicography put on the agenda the development of factors for the creation of colorful dictionaries in French, the search for ways to use different approaches and the creation of a modern classification of dictionaries. According to S.I. Ismailov, nowadays new dictionaries of the French language can be classified on the basis of six main criteria. These are: the form of presentation, the material of the dictionary microstructure, the number and status of the studied language or languages, the characteristics of the information provided the extension of the dictionary macrostructure, the organization of the dictionary macrostructure. Based on these criteria, S.I. Ismailov distinguishes six different types of French dictionaries. These are: a) paper-based dictionaries / electronic dictionaries / digital dictionaries; b) pure dictionaries / illustrated dictionaries / pictorial dictionaries; c) monolingual dictionaries / multilingual dictionaries; d) word or language dictionaries / objects or encyclopedic dictionaries; d) extensive dictionaries / restrictive dictionaries; e) with alphabetic dictionaries / thematic dictionaries.

### INTRODUCTION:

In this article, we want to focus on some of the issues of how the theory of semantic analysis of lexical units is formed in modern monolingual dictionaries of the French language - whether in terms of language or speech. It is known that vocabulary plays an

important role in compiling a dictionary. The set of words in a language makes up the lexicon. It is a leading component of verbal communication and is used in conjunction with grammar and phonetics in speech as a means of conveying human thoughts and feelings. The choice of lexicon as a keyword in lexicographic sources can be considered as one of the main factors in the classification of dictionaries.

A dictionary (lat. etymology dictio "unit of expression through language") is a general alphabetical list of phrases and words. Each of them is given with an informative text either about what is indicated (alphabetical encyclopedias) or about the character (language dictionary). Any dictionary is based on macrostructure (nomenclature, or list of units) and microstructure (information program applied to these units). It relies on a body of linguistic texts or metalinguistic (other dictionaries). Depending on the degree of reflection of these features, we can distinguish the following types of dictionaries in general: general dictionaries, special dictionaries, annotated dictionaries.

A general dictionary of a language aims to describe all of the entire vocabulary stock, but cannot describe all the words. The words selected in the first place are the most common words (frequency / distribution); the more nomenclature, the fewer words. A general dictionary can contain 300 words (for children), 3,000 words (for foreigners) or 30,000 words (for adults). A general dictionary is, therefore, an important wish that is global and intended, without a complete list of lexical resources.

Unlike an encyclopedic dictionary, a language dictionary is a metalinguistic text

because it speaks of words. The main introductory words in this dictionary are autonyms, i.e. the names of words, grammatical subjects, and predicates. For example: Formel, elle quality, means "precision and clarity removes any error, any ambiguity." The word also means "it only applies to form" (PR1). Patienter is an intransitive verb meaning "to wait patiently".

When the main introductory word is already a noun in the speech, the definition can be brought in with the verb être: Chiot: un chiot est un jeune chien. In this case, the metalanguage is lost: everything is expressed in the primary language, whereas "chiot est un nom masculin" is in the secondary language because it speaks of a sign. We see why the name predominates in the nomenclatures of encyclopedic dictionaries. Nevertheless, both the encyclopedic dictionary and the linguistic dictionary can be compared to a repository where references are identified.

General dictionaries are contrasted with special dictionaries that cover either one area of knowledge (mathematics, botany, computer science, etc.) or one area of the word. Special dictionaries are language dictionaries (homonymic, synonymic, etymologic, etc.). These dictionaries, unlike regular language dictionaries, are just dictionaries characters. According to their structure, these dictionaries cover more or less lexicon: if the dictionary of homonyms contains several words, the etymological dictionary covers all words, because they all have the same source of origin. Terminological dictionaries are always special dictionaries, the nomenclature of which consists of symbols. These words that mean things are mostly noun.

Explanatory dictionaries are designed to define the semantic structure of a word. In relation to such dictionaries, French lexicological theory uses the term dictionnaires semi-bilingues (semi-bilingual dictionaries)

because, for example, for words learned from a foreign language, each definition comes with a reference in another language.

The same is true for French dictionaries created over time. Usually, an old French dictionary is not considered a bilingual dictionary; the differences are noticeable, the structures are close to a bilingual dictionary. The previous reference characters are different from today. It is necessary to consider the status of dictionaries between monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. Such a problem is also peculiar to regional dictionaries of dialects with a common source.

The term modern language itself is not very clear either. The language used today is made up of an old language modified by a series of linguistic cases. The most recent neologisms are among such modified cases. Modern language corresponds to a historical result that has been preserved and assimilated by neology in every state of language. For each person, the idiolect is different in the absolute expression and again because of the change of generations. The old lexicon of language is a passive lexicon for young people (the student understands his great-grandmother), and the emerging lexicon is a passive lexicon for adults. A truly modern dictionary cannot provide the social dialogue of generations that coexist.

The so-called historical dictionary is a dictionary that takes into account the history of the etymology of words, their polysemy, for a complete description of modern language (e.g., Le Petit Robert). Attempts to describe the whole history of words from their origin in exactly one dictionary will inevitably fail. As for the synchronous dictionary, as mentioned above, it should respect the exchange of three generations (80 years); it can't be strictly modern.

As for old language dictionaries, they are of two types: ancient dictionaries written by people of the same period (e.g., Furetière,

Littré ...) and old language dictionaries written by people of the present period (Dictionnaire d'ancien français de Godefroy, et, par J. Picoche, de moyen français (Froissard). The former are true monolingual witnesses of the period, while the latter are quasi-bilinguals (almost bilingual) dictionaries. The description of the old language is undoubtedly done by means of modern language, and the accuracy is no better than the accuracy of a bilingual dictionary. A true monolingual dictionary (such as Le Furetière, Le Littré) has the advantage of being complete within a state of language - a primary language and metalanguage. One of the important results is that the exact word and its definition are synonymous in exactly one semantic chain.

The clarification of the concept of an annotated dictionary is also noteworthy. We know that such a dictionary does not include famous nouns and that it covers all word groups, including grammatical words. These two criteria are sufficient to distinguish it from an encyclopedic dictionary, because an encyclopedic dictionary describes things expressed in words, concepts in the form of a generalized paragraph about an object from all points of view. Often in a language dictionary, examples describe a referent, which does not indicate the use of a sign; this image approaching the referent makes it a sister to the encyclopedic discourse. Let's compare: Enfermer: mettre (quelqu'un, un animal) dans un lieu dont il est impossible de sortir tout seul. La nuit, on enferme les vaches dans l'étable. L'oiseau est enfermé dans sa cage. L'otage est enfermé dans une pièce → séquestrer. Le malfaiteur est enfermé → emprisonner (DF1999).

The language dictionary is based on the difficulty of spelling or pronunciation of modern names, or the assimilation of the French language (Istanbul, Metz, Mozart; Tibre ← Tevere, Irlande du Nord ← Northern Ireland)

or rewriting, or even the translation of both (États-Unis ← United ) may also be mentioned (DF 1999).

As for the microstructure program of dictionaries, it is to some extent rich and consists of two structures: the minimum structure: form (writing and sound), category (gram.jins) and definition; the maximum structure contains all the information about the word in the language and speech. In particular, in the language: origin, character analysis (morphology), sound field (homophones), semantics (synonyms); in speech: morphosyntax (connections, adaptations, paired forms ...). But I think the main thing in pedagogy is manifested in example. An imaginary example provides the best information; the fictional example is metalinguistic: the content is not directed to the reader and, unlike the information given about the character, is not related to the existing situation: for example, Vous êtes un imbécile. Ce dictionnaire est très fautif.

In general, a general explanatory dictionary of language tries to describe this language through its lexicon, giving examples of characters that are added in syntax with morphosyntax. Because of the example, we have access to: word meaning, grammar, and the semiotics of society in a particular period. Moreover, if it is in morphological form, it ensures the correct construction of complex neologisms and, moreover, has an onomasiological role that allows to get rid of jargons and barbarisms. The linguistic method implies, first of all, the refusal to describe the semantics in itself, to take the semantics together with the form, and to bring the content as close as possible to the description through the combinatorial rules of linguistic form and thought.

Language is the formation of a sentence that is able to establish communication between the speaker who conveys the idea and

the listener who receives it. From this point of view, the lexicographic definition is manifested in the following postulate: the speech chain can be divided into separate segments that make up dictionary articles, and each of these segments corresponds to a single content that is the object of creating a dictionary article. These simple approaches to lexicographic definition mean that we can implicitly solve some theoretical problems raised by human language in the field of lexicography, such as the problem of the nature of the linguistic sign, the problem of determining the form unit in relation to the unit of speech, the problem of the relationship between form and content we tried.

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