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COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY OF ENGLISH, UZBEK AND RUSSIAN LANGUAGES

MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND SECONDARY SPECIAL
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PREFACE

The manual "Comparative Typology of English and Native Languages" is intended for students of Bachelor's degree. The textbook can be used by the students, teachers specializing in English at Universities, Pedagogical Institutes, Institutes of foreign languages and specialists engaged in the field of Comparative Linguistics, and those, who are interested in the problems of the contrastive study of language description.

Present-day Comparative Linguistics has been developing in compliance with new modern research paradigms, under the influence of which it has undergone radical changes. The main innovation of the book lies in the anthropocentric approach to linguistic phenomena, their analysis within the framework of Communicative and Pragmatic Linguistics, Cognitive Linguistics, Linguoculturology and Gender Linguistics. Therefore there was the pressing need to reconsider traditional notions and introduce new terms, such as categorization and conceptualization, Interdisciplinary status of Comparative Linguistics.

The book consists of 6 units and every unit contains two parts that is theoretical and practical:

- ✓ the main notions and trends of Comparative Linguistics, its history evaluation, different approaches and views;
- ✓ typology of phonetic and phonological levels of English and Native languages;
- ✓ typology of morphological level of English and Native languages;
- ✓ typology of syntactic level of English and Native languages;
- ✓ typology of Lexical level of English and Native languages;
- ✓ interrelation of Typology with anthropological trends of Modern Linguistics

Some fundamental problems of Comparative Linguistics were discussed in theoretical part which contains key points for discussion. Practical part includes the following points as questions for self-control; recommended literature; topics for independent work for students; the list of key-words.

Practical part is followed by a set of activities (classroom and for self-improvement) and tasks enabling the students to test their knowledge. Besides, there is an extended list of topics for presentation relevant to the subject of the manual. The accompanying list of bibliographical reference will serve as a guide to those who wish to attain a more complete view of the topics discussed. The list of keys of activities is followed the reference.

Appended to the book is a glossary of terms and notions given in a compact and comprehensive form.

We are grateful to professors Siddikova I.A. and Mamatov A.I. who reviewed the manual and made many valuable suggestions.

The authors

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I. Comparative Typology as a branch of General Linguistics

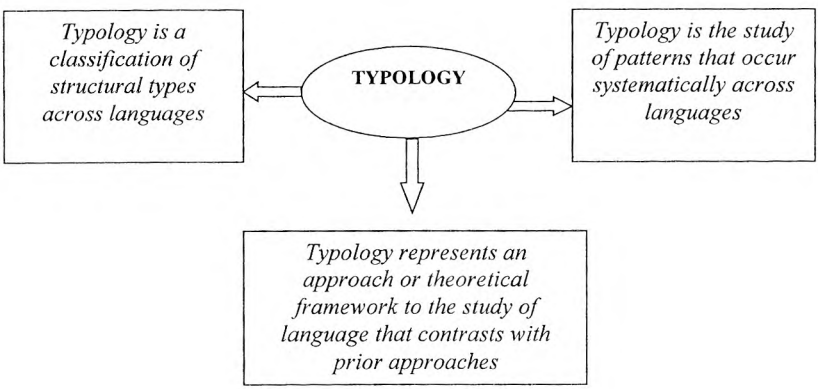
1.1. Comparative Typology: subject matter, types, tasks, approaches

Key points for discussion:

- Subject matter, types, tasks, approaches
- Historical background of typological investifations
- Classification of Comparative Typology accjrding to Dr Buranov
- Types of language comparison

Comparative typology is a field of linguistics that studies and classifies languages according to their structural and functional features. Its aim is to describe and explain the common properties and the structural diversity of the world's languages.

According to William Croft's book "Typology and Universals", the term 'typology' is roughly synonymous with 'taxonomy'/'classification' and given the following definition:



From an etymological point of view, the word typology consists of two Greek morphemes: a) ***typos*** means "type" and b) ***logos*** means "science". Typology is a branch of science, which is typical to all sciences without any exception. In this respect, their typological method is not limited to the sphere of one science. It has a universal rise. Therefore, typology may be divided into:

1. ***Non-linguistic typology***
2. ***Linguistic typology***

Non-linguistic typology is the subject matter of the sciences except linguistics. It can be political typology, medical, historical, botanic, psychological, mathematical or economic typology as well. General and solitary differences and similarities are typical to all sciences. Some branches isolate systemic comparison into an independent sub-branch within the frames of a more general science: e.g. *comparative psychology* first mentioned in the works of Aristotle who described psychological similarities between animals and human beings. One the most well-known representatives *of* ***Comparative Psychology*** was Charles Darwin.

Comparative Pedagogy deals with general and distinctive features, development trends and prospective of theory, applied instruction and upbringing methods, reveals their economic, social political and philosophic backgrounds.

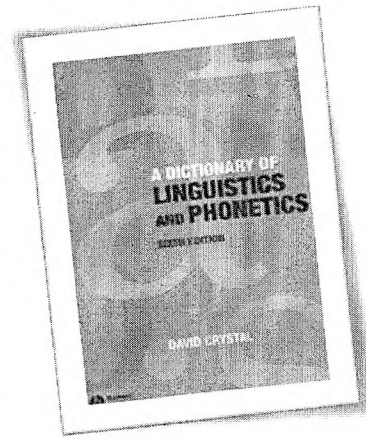
Historical typology analyses historic facts and produces comparative inventory based on the history of each nation/ethnicity to reveal general trends, differences, and similarities. E.g. based on French revolution of 1848 the major signs of revolutionary situation were revealed.

Literary criticism ot rapid development in the second half of XIX century simultaneously with the development of comparative linguistics. In Russia, the representatives of comparative linguistics were P.M. Samarin, V.M. Jirmunskiy, M.P. Alekseev, N.I. Conrad, I.G. Neupokoeva, etc.

The two sciences — ComparativeTypology and Literary criticism have a number of similarities:

- linguistic comparison deals with identifying universal principles of the comparative description of the systems of national languages. Literary criticism establishes general principles of typological description of national literature;
- both sciences deal with identifying systemic features and discover typological isomorphism which can be conditioned structurally, genetically and geographically, etc.

Comparative typology is one of the branches of General Linguistics, which studies the systems of languages comparatively, also finds common laws of languages and establishes differences and similarities between them. Moreover, due to David Crystal's book "Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics", Comparative Typology is explained in this way: "A branch of linguistics which studies the structural similarities between languages, regardless of their history, as part of an attempt to establisha satisfactory classification or typology of languages. Typological comparison is thus distinguished from the historical comparison of languages [...] and its groupings may not coincide with those set up by the historical method".



The most popular definition of the subject matter seems to be "ComparativeTypology" is a branch of General Linguistics, field of a study aiming at identifying such similarities and distinctive features of languages that do not depend on genetic origin or influence of languages to one another. Typology strives to identify and look at the most significant features that affect other spheres of language systems, e.g. the way of the junction of meaningful parts of the word or the so-called structure of the sentence in the language. Typological studies base on materials of representative sampling from many world languages so that the findings and conclusions made on the results of such analysis can be applied to the entire majority of languages (in cases of language universals).

Comparative typology shows special interest in the so-called exotic or non-studied languages, e.g. languages of ethnicities of South-East Asia, Africa, Ocean side or American Indian tribes. Still, the data of well-known, expanded and well-studied languages the similar extent become the subject matter of a typological study.

Comparative typology not only systemizes, generalizes and classifies the facts of language isomorphism and allomorphism but also explains them.

The majority of prestigious linguistic theories have their own typological agenda aimed at theoretical analysis of structurally different languages, their location, and genetic origin.

Nowadays many terms are used for defining this very type of science, such as *Linguistic Typology*, *Comparative Typology*, *and Contrastive Linguistucs, Characterology* and so on. However, with the help of analyzing historical

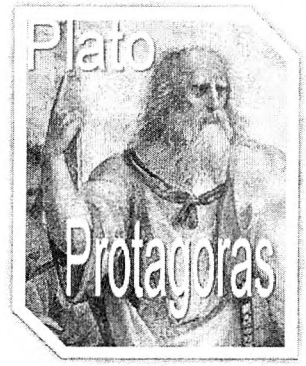
background, we will be able to realize the main notion of this branch of Linguistics.

1.2. Historical background of typological investigations

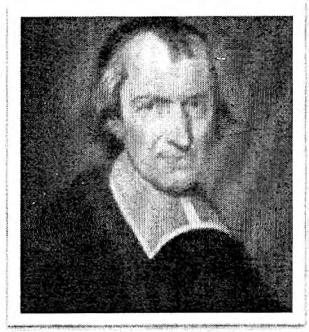
The questions of timing the history of linguistic comparison are quite complicated and are the ones, which have not found their final solution yet. The history of linguistic comparison is an integral part of linguistic science development, which is bound with the history of the nation and cognition. That is why there are no generally accepted criteria for timing this problem yet. We will see Dr. Buranov's viewpoint.

In his book "Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков" he ***identifies 4 periods in the history of typological studies:***

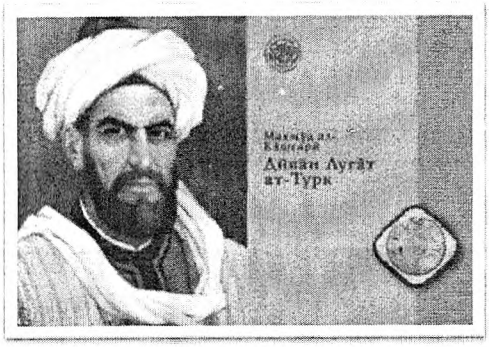
The first period is characterized as a spontaneous or evolutionary. It begins with the emergence of the first linguistic works. That period was over not long before the Renaissance. In Ancient Greece, the language was studied in the frames of philosophy. The major issue, which was in the focus of discussion, was acorrelation of substances to their names. Still, already in the works of Protagoras and Aristotle, there are statements related to distinguishing words, word combinations, linguistic categories like gender, case, number, the definition of the sentence, classification of words into names and actions or parts of speech. These works served as the basis for distinguishing linguistics into an independent science. E.g. many scholars, while compiling grammars of separate languages used the models of the languages with already described grammatical structures. (The principle of analogy). For example, while compiling the first English grammars the models of Latin were widely used. The first grammars for the European languages were based on the Latin Grammars.



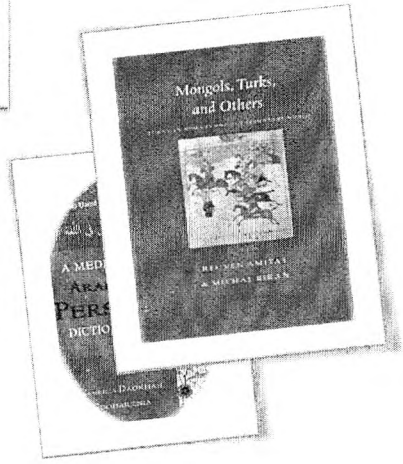
The second period is characterized as a period ofestablishing the first scientific comparison of languages and this period is related to the General and Rational Grammar: Port-Royal Grammar by Arnauld A., Lancelot C, (XVII c.) in Indo-European languages. Port-Royal Grammar can be considered one of the most precious contributions to thedevelopment of Comparative Typology. It was developed by 2 French monks in the small abbey Port-Royal in the suburbs of Paris (published in 1660). It is the synthesis of linguistic and philosophic ideas of that time. The languages (French, Latin, Greek and ancient Jewish/ Ides) with the different genealogic origin and typological structure were compared based on the criteria and principles elaborated by Arnauld A. and Claude Lancelot.



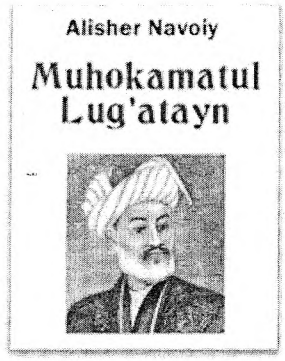
Comparative study of Turkic language has its own history. Divan-Lugat At-Turk by Mahmud Kashgariy is considered the most solid work on the linguistic comparison of Turkic languages. Mahmud Kashgariy analyzed phonetic, grammatical and lexical units of a group of Turkic languages and defined the level of their genetic relation to each other.



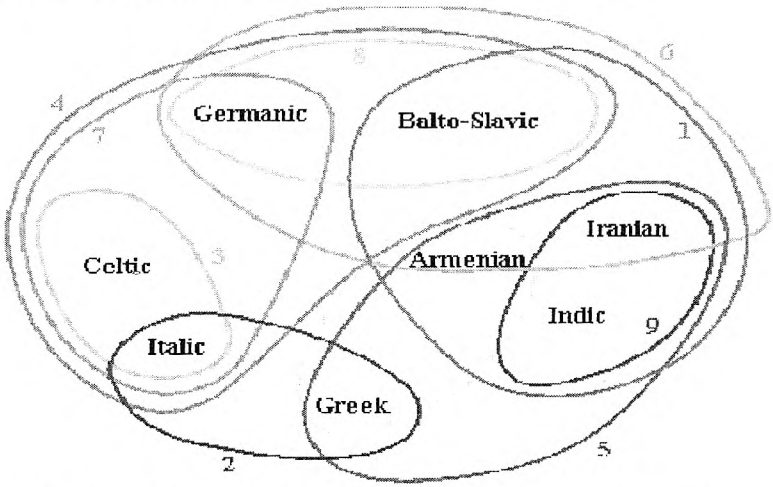
Further development of comparative study can be traced in the appearance of glossaries and dictionaries, e.g. Turkic-Mongol-Persian dictionary compiled in Egypt (1245), Latin-Persian Kypchak dictionary (XII c), and other works.



One of the most prominent work is the poem of Alisher Navoi "Muhokamatul al-Lugatain" (Debate of two languages) written in 1499. Navoi compares lexical, grammatical and word building specificities of 2 genetically non-related languages: old Uzbek and Persian. Navoi reveals a number of language specificities of Uzbek, which did not have direct correspondences in Persian, e.g. suffixes of reflexivity, reciprocity, causation, modality, comparativeness, etc.



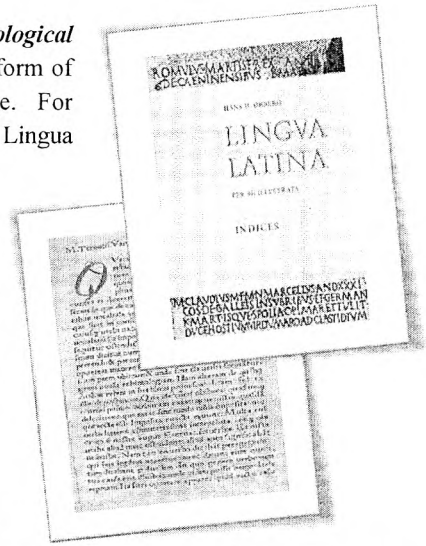
The third period is relatedto development of comparative historical linguistics, genealogical and typological classification of languages, (mid- XIX c.)



The fourth period is related to ***establishing of Comparative Typology as a separate science*** with the bulk of General Linguistics. It coincides with the XX century.

The science of linguistic comparison was developing quite slowly and a number of factors played an important role to foster that process.They were also suggested by Dr. Buranov.

The first factor is typological imitation, means using identified style or form of languages to explain another language. For example, the first Latin grammar "De Lingua Latina" (117-27 BC) by Varron was written with the use of the ancient Greek language grammars compiled by Greek philosophers. His great contributions were changing 5 cases in Greek into 6 and 8 parts of speech into 7 in English.



Later, the grammar of European languages was shaped based on Latin and Greek languages. Besides, nowadays not only grammar but poetic speech and other language units are still based on Greek grammar.

Also, while studying certain categories of one language scholars very often use the models of more researched languages, e.g. the ancient Indian models of compound words are used to describe many European languages

The second factor is characterized as a period of the appearance of ***scientific comparative works.*** Comparisons of languages and linguistic units date back to the ancient period. Comparisons were scripted in "Port Royal Grammar" where ancient scholars such as Antoine Arnauld, Claude Lancelot, analyzed similarities and differences between French, Latin, Greek and ancient Jewish languages. They have found out that out of these languages ancient Jewish language did not share substantial similarity with other languages. The Port Royal Grammar was extremely popular and gave an impetus to the rapid development of comparative studies.

Until recent times, this book has been used in modern typology. N. Kretsman pointed out this book's importance and said: "In the last seven or eight years the "Port Royal Grammar" has been discussed more often in the English speaking world than at any other time since its publication more than three hundred years ago".

Comparative Typology that dealt with comparing of language units and languages that did not share common root language played an important role in the emerging and developing of this subject. Comparison of structural languages that were not substantial also was crucial in the development of ComparativeTypology.

The third factor is the least common factor, which deals with studying unknown languages and languages that do not have awriting system. Recently, an enormous bulk of researches has been done on languages in Latin America, Asia, Africa, Australia, Oceania and Eurasia that do not have a writing system. Studying these languages have influenced by comparing them to Indo-European languages and these investigations have influenced on typology greatly. Previous researches focused on genetic relation but new researches are focusing on morphological similarities, classification, and other points.

The fourth factor is the influence of the translation and translation science. Translation is a quite ancient science. When people started to translate from one language into another they unconsciously compared two languages. That is why they consider translation to be the main part of typology. The influence of translation to typology can be classified as followings:

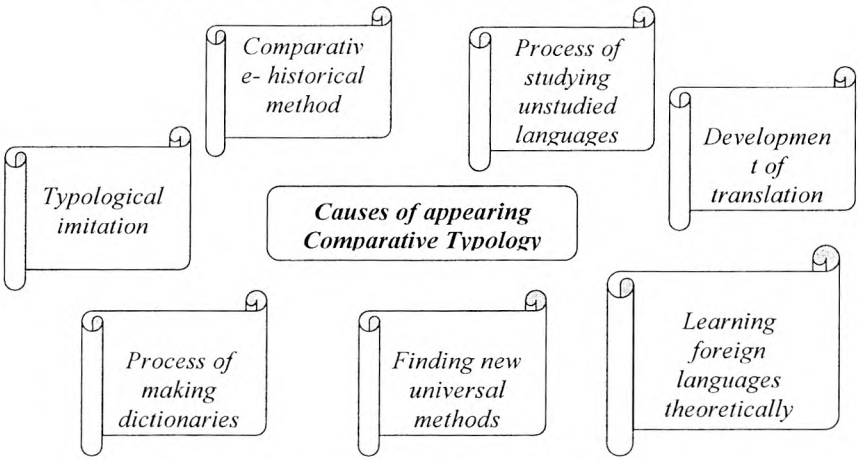
- translation of fiction stories;
- translation of grammatical forms;
- translations that are done under the influence of mathematical linguistics.

The fifth factor is the influence of lexicography. The appearance of dictionaries was bound with applied need to transform and compare languages and national cultures. While compiling bi- or multilingual dictionaries a lexicographer conducts a comparison of all levels of language hierarchy: phonetic units, grammatical structure, lexical units, word formation, punctuation, etc.

The sixth factor I spractical and theoretical study and teaching of foreign languages. Studying and teaching foreign language required comparison of languages that are taught and studied. Since Uzbekistan is considered as a multilingual country, a lot of attention is being focused on the development of typology because without knowing foreign languages it is impossible to establish political, economic and cultural ties with countries where foreign languages are spoken. Russian is considered to be La lingua franca in Central Asia. In Uzbekistan, bilingualism is based on knowing Uzbek and Russian languages. Besides, it is compulsory that at schools one of the foreign languages should be

taught which has derived from the need to establish ties with all the countries of the world. Researches done in Uzbekistan on typology include Comparative Phonetics, Comparative Grammar and Comparative Lexicology and so on. For thirty years, there have been numerous numbers of researches, books, monographs, dissertations, and articles have been published.

To sum up, all counted causes can be concluded in this way:



Thus, which term we use, we deal with only the universal task of Comparative Typology it is charting out and finding the reasons for the similarities and differences among the world's languages.

With the help of above mentioned statements, the tasks of Comparative Typology can be outlined so:

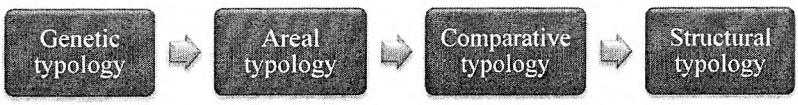
- the problems of comparative investigations of all aspects of the language including phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, lexicon, and phraseology of related and non-related languages from linguistic and linguadidactic viewpoints;
- the problem of categorization in linguistics;
- investigations in the sphere of Comparative Stylistics;
- investigations in the sphere of Comparative Lexicology;
- Language and intercultural communication;
- revealing national-cultural features of related and non-related languages;
- correlation and integration of semantics, word-building, syntax, stylistics and functional semantics on the base of text linguistics in typological aspect (or in comparison).

1.3. Classification of ComparativeTypology according to Dr. Buranov

Comparative Typology is the branch of General Linguistics, it compares two or more language systems, their categories in a deductive way and it makes general linguistic rules and laws.

As for the classification of Comparative Typology, we must underline that there are different viewpoints to this problem. But the most sutable is Dr. Buranov's classification, who suggested the following three criteria:

1. Branches of Comparative Typology as to the object of investigation:



Structural typology in its turn consists of the following types: typological theory; typological classification; ethalon language; language universals.

Genetic typology is a branch of ComparativeTypology, which studies the similarities, and diversities of originally related languages. Genetic typology developed from the Comparative-historical linguistics that dominated during the 19th century in Europe. It started with the works of Jacob Grimm, Franz Bopp, Rasmus Rask, Alexander Vostokov, V.M.Jirmunskiy, etc.

Its origin was stipulated by the discovery of Sanskrit, the ancient classical language of India. The discovery of Sanskrit disclosed the possibility of a comparative study of languages. The concept of relative languages was confirmed by the existence in India of a sisterhood of familiar European languages: e.g. Sanskrit *«mata»* means *«mother»,* in the accusative case *«matarum».Dvau-two, Trayah – three. As ti - he is, etc.*

Genetic Typology compares the systems of languages in two ways: diachronically and synchronically.

Areal typology is one of the independent branches of Comparative Typology, which compares language systems and studies the degree of expansion and proximity of language properties which are geographically conditioned.

According to V.G. Ghak this part of ComparativeTypology "compares languages irrespectively of the degree of their relatedness and aims at defining general elements formed as a result of the mutual influence of languages and the cultures staying behind them". Objects of study include borrowings, bi-lingual features, dialects, centum/satem languages, compiling dialectal maps, sub-stratum and

super-stratum languages, neologisms, archaisms, hybrid languages, language contacts, etc.

Like Genetic typology, Areal typology operates with special systems or models with the help of which areal isogfosses of different languages are clarified.

The representatives of this school are Roman Jacobson and Ghak V.G.

Comparative typology is an independent branch of Comparative Typology. It deals with the comparison of languages irrespectively of their genetic or structural identity. Comparative typology operates with a limited number of languages and the minimum number of these languages may be as little as two.

Comparative typology cannot reveal language universals but it does contribute to Structural typology with the results of its comparative studies of concrete languages for further elaboration of linguistic universals. In its turn, Structural typology contributes to comparative typological studies while identifying correspondences in diverse languages.

One of the major differences between Structural and Comparative typology is that the latter operates with cross-level units of the languages while the former (Structural typology) utilizes mainly the level isolation or one level approach.

In Comparative typology, the cross-level, cross-class units of expression are initially identified in each of compared languages separately. On the second stage of the typological operation the cross-language equivalents and cross-level correspondents are identified, isomorphic and allomorphic features are revealed.

The major principle of Comparative typology is binarity: thus initially two genetically and/or structurally different languages are compared as the representatives of their genetic /structural groups. Further, the number of compared languages can be increased but still with the observation of the binary principle.

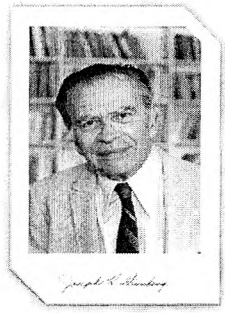
Structural typology is the major branch of Comparative Typology and aims to identify structural language types. Structural typology has 4 branches:

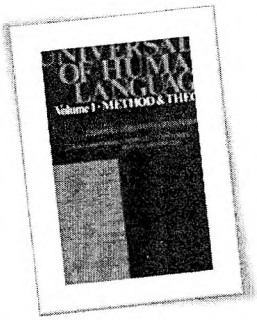
- language universals;
- typological classification;
- ethalon language;
- typological theory.

The ultimate goal of Structural typology is identifying universal features of languages. Major scholars who contributed to the development of structural typology are B. Uspenskiy, V.R Nedyalkov, Ch. Hockette, Yu.Rojdestvenskiy.

Language Universals are bound to the unification of language facts, identifying common/similar features specific to systems of all or separate language groups.

The notion of Language Universals appeared in 1961 at the Congress of Linguists in New York where **Joseph Greenberg**, J. Jenkins, and I. Osgood proposed a Memorandum on Language/Linguistic Universals". They defined it as follows: "A Linguistic Universal is a certain feature specific to all languages of the world or the language per se."





There are many general universals concerning all languages of the world. They are:

Wherever humans exist, language exists.

There are no "primitive" languages - all languages are equally complex and equally capable of expressing any idea in the world.

The vocabulary of any language can be expanded to include new words for new concepts.

All languages change through time.

The relationship between the sounds and meanings of spoken languages and between the gestures (signs) and meanings of sign languages are for the most part arbitrary.

All human languages utilize a finite set of discrete sounds (or gestures) that are combined to form meaningful elements or words, which themselves form an infinite set of possible sentences.

All grammars contain rules for the formation of words and sentences of a similar kind.

Every spoken language includes discrete sound segments like p, n, or a, which can be defined by a finite set of sound properties or features.

Every spoken language has a class of vowels and a class of consonants.

Similar grammatical categories (for example, noun, verb) are found in all languages.

There are semantic universals, such as "male" or "female," "animate" or "human," found in every language in the world.

Every language has a way of referring to past time, forming questions, issuing commands, and so on.

Speakers of all languages are capable of producing and comprehending an infinite set of sentences.

The universals may be classified according to various principles. For example, according to the statistic principle, there are unrestricted (absolute or full) universals opposed to restricted (relative, partial) universals (some scholars prefer the term "tendency" instead of "universal"). According to language hierarchy, there are phonetic, morphological, syntactic and lexical universals. Other types include deductive and inductive; synchronic and diachronic universals; universals of speech and universals of language.

For example, universals related to the levels of language hierarchy:

Phonetic features: *all languages have vowels and consonants.*

Morphological: *in most languages, words are structured into morphemes, morphemes function as full and auxiliary elements.*

Lexical: *in all languages vocabulary is a system of semantic fields. In all languages, there is polysemy, synonymy, antonymy.*

Syntactic: *in all languages, there is a distribution of a subject-verb- object.*

Examples of ***full universals***:"*If a language has discreet morphemes, there are either prefixation or suffixation or both of them". "If a language is exclusively suffixational, it is a language with post-fixes. If a language is exclusively prefixational, it is a language with prefixes".*

There are different ways of articulating and describing language universals: descriptive and formal (with the help of special symbols).

Typological classification is ... "opposed to genealogical classification and is bound to classifying languages according to their taxonomic/systemic features and defining structural types of languages" (K.Solntzev).

Morphological or Typological classification deals with the classification of languages according to their structural features or types in language instead of the genealogical origin.

An example of a typological classification is the classification of languages based on the order of the verb, subject and object in a sentence into several types: SVO, SOV, VSO, and so on, languages. (English, for instance, belongs to the SVO language type.)

Ethalon language is an object language for ComparativeTypology and it is also a means or system of tools to compare languages. It is usually identified deductively. The notion of ethalon language was introduced by **Boris Uspensky**.

Some scholars prefer the term meta language which is to a certain extent synonymous to ethalon language. It is the second major function of the ethalon

language to serve an instrument of comparison. This instrument may be represented as follows:

any natural language (usually one's native tongue); a linguistic category, for example, gender, voice, person, sex, etc; concept; field.

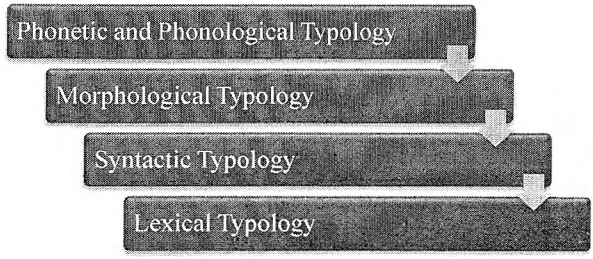
Below there are some more examples of ethalon language:

- specially created artificial language;
- an existing language with the well-developed system;
- certain sign system;
- certain linguistic method;
- phonetic, morphological, syntactic or other models;
- intermediary language;
- the language of translation, etc.

For applied purposes, ethalon language is classified into minimal and maximal.

The typological theory defines common linguistic notions used in Comparative Typology. The typological theory is used to define language isomorphism (common features) and allomorphism (differentiating signs).

2. Branches of Comparative Typology as to the levels of language hierarchy



Comparative Typology operates at all levels of language hierarchy without exception. In other words, it can compare the units of phonetic, phonological, morphological, syntactic and lexical levels.

In comparison with other levels the given level is more isolated and at the same time, its sections are more developed from the typological point of view. Inside the phonological level, actually phonological and phonetic sublevels are identified.

Phonetic and Phonological Typology deals with the comparison of units of the phonological level of language. It engages in the allocation of phonological differential signs, defining their universality, study of the phonological structure of languages, classification of languages on the basis of their phonological features (e.g. tonic and atonic languages), defining the phonemic structure of world languages and

many others. For a long time, the Prague linguistic school was the center of Phonological Typology.

A certain contribution to the development of Phonological Typology was made by **N.S.Trubetskoy** who is considered the founder of Typology of Phonological systems. R.Yakobson, G.Fant, M.Halle also worked in this area. Later on other sides of Phonological Typology were developed by such scientists as Ch. Hockett, K.Vegelin, T.Milevsky, P.Menzerat, V.Skalichka, A.Martine, M.I.Lekomtseva, Abduazizov A.A., G.P.Melnikov and others.

Major achievements of Phonological Typology relate to the allocated cases phonological universals, N.S.Trubetskoy's differential signs, I.Kramskoy, P.Kovaleva's quantitative criteria, supra-segmental typological classification on tone and accent by A.Martine's, numerous researches on a comparison of phonological systems of various languages.

The circle of research in ***Morphological Typology*** is very wide. It compares the units of a morphological level. Depending on the character of research the morphological typology can be classified into two types:

- Morphological Typology engaged in the morphological classification of languages;
- Morphological Typology engaged in particular questions of grammar, i.e. parts of speech and their grammatical categories.

The first one is a continuation of traditional typological classification engaged in defining language types according to different principles and criteria.

The second type of Morphological Typology deals with private/individual subjects of comparison: grammatical categories in various languages, defining ways of their expression, morphological markers, synonymous relations of affixational morphemes and syntactic words (prepositions and postpositions), comparison of primary grammatical categories/parts of speech (nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, adverbs, numerals and others), comparison of grammatical categories of certain lexical and grammatical categories of words (case, number, definiteness, transitivity - intransitivity, time, aspect, causation, mood, modality, etc.). Morphemes may serve major units of measurement in Morphological Typology.

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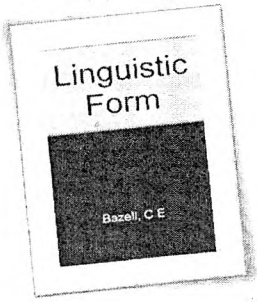
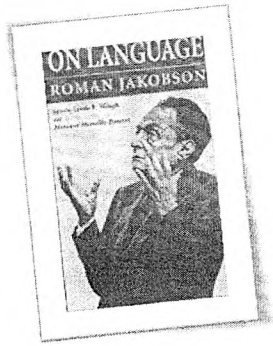
Morphological Typology compares the specified phenomena in the systems of both related and non-related languages. The comparison might include revealing morphological universals as well as a binary comparison of two languages. Morphological Typology has accumulated a serious bulk of data both for Comparative typology and on separate concrete languages. Major scholars who dealt with the issues of Morphological Typology are **R.Yakobson, L. E Jelmsiev, L.N.Zasorina, B.A.Uspenskiy, M.M.Gukhman, P.L Garvina** and many others.



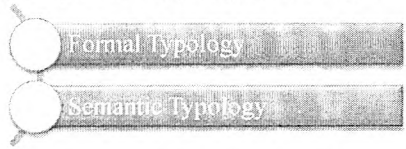
Syntactic Typology engages in acomparison of syntactic level units. The basic units for comparison are phrase and a sentence. Depending on the character of research Syntactic Typology may fall into several sections: comparison of units of a phrase, the level of the sentence, as well as comparison of units of various levels with regards to their syntactic functioning. Syntactic Typology usually compares languages on the basis of atransformational syntax.



Still, there is no comprehensive list of topics related to the subject matter of Syntactic Typology. Some of them are: definition of the subject-matter and volume of Syntactic Typology, elaboration of basic criteria and a meta language, border lines between syntactic typology and other branches of Comparative Typology, defining syntactic universals, study of syntax of world languages (genetically or structurally related languages), definition of types of syntactic connection (attributive, predicative, etc.), definition of sentence types in languages, basic syntactic categories, classification of types of languages on the basis of their syntactic structure and many others.

I.I.Meshchaninov, J.V.Rojdestvenskiy C.E.Bazell, T.Milevsky, V.S.Hrakovskiy, contributed a lot to the elaboration of different aspects of Syntactic Typology.

3. Branches of Comparative Typology as to two plans of language



Formal Typology deals with the units of expression plan of the language which belongs to various levels of language hierarchy.

The ultimate goal of Formal Typology is identifying formal universals. The major tasks of Formal Typology embrace but are not limited to the following:

- reveal external or formal features of the language;
- establish common principles of the script, e.g. graphic systems, alphabets, the system of transcription signs, punctuation;
- establish formal structures of the syllable, composite words, word combinations;
- establish the formal structure of the sentence etc.

Semantic Typology is a branch of Comparative Typology studying the semantic structure of the language and related to the units of content plan. The ultimate goal of Semantic Typology is identifying semantic universals which are directly related to the deep structure of the language. Other issues considered in the frames of Semantic Typology are: identifying aims and problems of Semantic Typology, defining different semantic fields for comparative analysis, grouping words on the basis of semantic signs, defining semantic fields in different languages, creating criteria to define semantic categories, elaboration of the principles of compiling semantic comparative dictionaries and many others.

Some scholars debate that there is no need to distinguish Semantic Typology into a separate branch as similar issues are studied under the scope of Lexical Typology. The major difference between the two seems to lie in the following: Semantic Typology operates with the units of the emic level and is indifferent to the ethic identity of compared languages.

1.4. Types of language comparison

The comparison may be of two types: ***substantial***and ***non-substantial***.

Under ***substantial comparison,*** linguists mean comparison of some concrete things or objects, e.g. sounds, digits, numbers, etc. Under ***non-substantial comparison,*** linguists mean comparison of systems and their elements.

At the early stages of development of typology as a science, the major role is longed to the substantial comparison, which is considered primary. Yuri

Rojdenstvenskiy' wrote "...in General Linguistics the relations between language systems based on substantial features. The languages were considered cognate because the linguists found principal similarity in their substance: sound and content". Non-substantial comparison played a significant role in shaping Comparative Typology as an independent science.

There are two approaches to language description: ***internal*** and ***external***.

Internal approach deals with the comparison of the systems of any concrete language. It is inner comparison within one concrete language. ***External approach*** deals with the cross-language comparison.

Comparative Typology may compare language systems ***panchronically*** though they are living or dead; besides, it may compare language systems ***synchronically*** and ***diachronically.***

The diachronic approach is a stative study of a certain period. ***The synchronic approach*** is a dynamic one.

Questions for self-control:

1. What does the term 'typology' mean?
2. Do we use this term in everyday life?
3. What is the role of Typology in Linguistics?
4. What tasks does this subject have?
5. What is the necessity of learning typology?
6. What is the difference between Linguistic and Non-Linguistic typology?
7. Name the periods of Comparative typology development.
8. Name the factors of Comparative typology development.
9. What directions of comparative typological investigations are known to us?
10. How did Dr. Buranov classify Comparative Typology?
11. What does linguistic typology study?
12. What can you say about different viewpoints to the Comparative typology?
13. Speak about differences between linguistic and non-linguistic typologies.
14. What methods of investigation do you know?
15. How do you understand panchronical approach to the comparison of language systems?
16. Characterize substantial and non-substantial types of comparison. Which is used in modern linguistics?

17. What can you say about the internal and external approach to the comparison?
18. Give the division of Comparative Typology with the respect to different criteria.

RecommendedLiteratures:

1. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков. Ленинград, 1979.

2. Буранов Ж. Инглиз ва ўзбек тиллари қиёсий грамматикаси. Тошкент, 1973.

3. David Crystal. A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics. Oxford: Blackwell, 1991.

4. Robbins Burling, Patterns of Language. Structure, Variation, Change. San Diego: Academic Press, 1992.

5. William Croft. Typology and Universals. Cambridge UNI Press, 2003.

6. Comparative-Historical Linguistics. (n.d.) *The Great Soviet Encyclopedia, 3rd Edition*. (1970-1979). Retrieved August 1, 2016, from http://encyclopedia2.thefreedictionary.com/Comparative-Historical+Linguistics

Topics for self-study

1. The subject matter of Comparative Typology
2. Historical development of Comparative Typology
3. Branches of Typology according to the object of investigation
4. Branches of Typology according to the level of a language hierarchy
5. Branches of Typology according to two plans of language
6. Methods of comparative study of language systems

LIST OF THE KEY WORDS OF UNDERSTANDING THE COURSE OF COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY OF ENGLISH AND NATIVE LANGUAGES

Comparative Typology as a branch of General Linguistics

1. **Comparative Typology** is one of the branches of General Linguistics. It deals with comparison of languages irrespectively of their genetic or structural identity
2. The origin of the word **typology** is **typos**-means «type», **logos-** means «science».

3. **Non-Linguistic Typology** serves as a method of comparison in all sciences besides linguistics.

4. **Substantial comparison** means comparison of some concrete things or objects.

5. **Non-substantial comparison** means comparison of systems and their elements.

6. **Internal approach** to language description deals with the cross system of any concrete language.

7. **External approach** to language description deals with the cross language description.

8. **Panchronically** means comparison of language systems though they are living or dead.

9. **Synchronically** means comparison of language systems concerning modern period.

10. **Diachronically** means comparison of language system from ahistorical viewpoint.

11. **Genetic Typology** is a branch of Comparative Typology, which studies the similarities, and differences of originally related languages.

12. **Areal Typology** is a branch of Comparative Typology that studies (using the methods of linguistic geography) distribution of linguistic phenomena in the spatial extent and interlingual (interdialectic) interaction.

13. **Structural Typology** is the major branch of Comparative Typology and aims to identify structural language types.

14. **Language Universal** is a pattern that occurs systematically across natural languages, potentially true for all of them.

15. **Affixation** is generally defined as the formation of words by adding derivationalaffixes to different types of bases.

16. **Suffixation** is the formation of words with the help of suffixes.

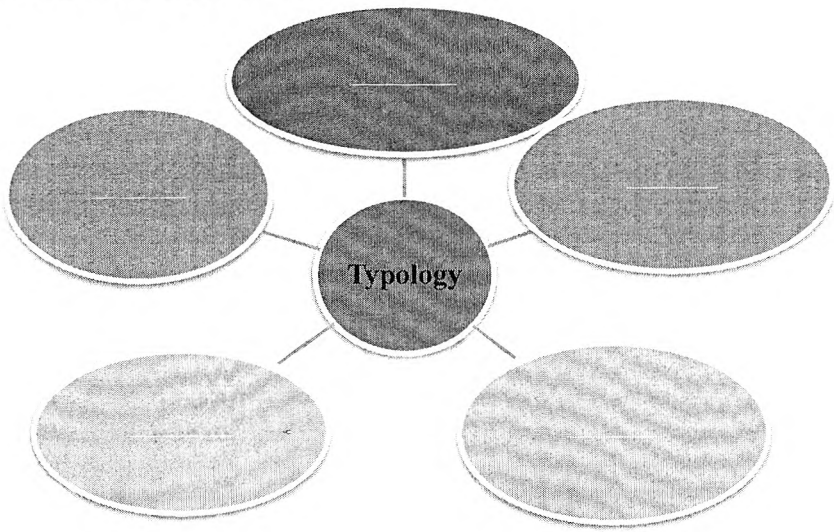
17. **Prefixation** is the formation of words with the help of prefixes.

18. **Contrastive Linguistics** is a practice-oriented linguistic approach that seeks to describe the differences and similarities between a pair of languages (hence it is occasionally called "*differential* linguistics").

Seminar 1
Comparative Typology as a branch of General Linguistics

▶ Classroom activities

Exercise #1. Complete the cluster "Typology".



Exercise #2. Answer the following questions?

1) What is Typology?
2) How many types is Typology divided into?
3) Which factors influence to the development of Typology?
4) Do you know causes of appearing Comparative Typology?

Exercise #3. Work in a group of 3-4 students and try to analyze 6 factors of the development of typology from ancient time until today, write which factors influence more than others and how.

Factors:

Exercise #4. Read the statements below and choose whether they are True or False.

1. _____ Non-Linguistic Typology is the subject matter of the sciences except linguistics.
2. _____ Linguistic Typology, Comparative Typology, Contrastive Typology are totally different sciences.
3. _____ Morphological classification deals with the family relationship of languages, which descend from one common ancestor.
4. _____ According to two plans of language, there four main types of Comparative Typology.
5. ____ According to the levels of language hierarchy, there are five types of Typology.
6. _____ Panchronic approach deals with dead and living language comparison.
7. _____ Substantial comparison is used in linguistics.
8. _____ Internal approach deals with the comparison of the systems of any concrete language, it is aninner comparison.
9. _____ External approach deals with only related languages.
10. _____ Non-substantial comparison is used in all spheres of science except Linguistics.

►Home activities

Exercise #1. Read the statements below and choose whether they are True or False.

1. Typology represents an approach or theoretical framework to the study of language that contrasts with prior approaches.
   True/ False
2. The development of Typology is very fast.
   True/ False

3. According to scientists: Material similarity means similarities of words that are similar in meaning and morphemes in compared languages.
   True/ False
4. Comparative Typology in its turn consists of the following types: typological theory; typological classification; ethalon language; language universals. **True/ False**
5. Uspenskiy said: "Typology deals with a limited number of languages."
   True/ False
6. Comparative study of the languages is a scientific research, devoted to the comparative study of two languages like Uzbek and Russian or English and French.
   True/ False

Exercise #2. Complete the table according to their classification of Comparative Typology.

According to 2 plans of language	**According to the object of comparison**	**According to levels of language hierarchy**

Exercise #3. Read the statements below and match them with the appropriate answers.

Typology does not deal with a limited number of languages. If it does, then it should be called "characterology" or "comparative description. _____
Material similarity means similarities of words that are similar in meaning and morphemes in compared languages. _____
In the last seven or eight years, the "Port - Royal Grammar" has been discussed more often in the English speaking world than at any other time

since its publication more than three hundred years ago. _____
Typology consists of Structural, Comparative and GeneticTypology. The task of Structural Typology consists of language universals, typological classification of the languages, typological theory and work out methods to create ethalon language. _____
It would be wrong to identify comparative researches of two languages with Typology. _____

Buranov, Uspenskiy, Gukhman, Maslow, Kretzmann

►Activities for self-improvement

Exercise #1. Read and fill the gaps with the given words below.

languages, typological, nation, were, romantics, formed

The problem of the type in language was firstly discussed by _____, the representators of romanticism which was_____at the end of XVIII and in the beginning of XIXth century. Romantics considered that "the spirit of the _____" may be displayed in myth in art, literature and in the language. V. Humboldt began to examine the types of the _____as a display of "the spirit of the nation". The division of the languages to flaxsive and affix by the German linguist FredrickShlegel was the first attempt to create atypological classification of the language. From the history of linguistic studies, such _____ classification of languages offered by August William, V. Humboldt, A.Schleicher, G. Steintal, F. Mistily and other linguists were _____. Now typologists are trying to find the ways of creating amore informative classification of the languages like periodical systems of Mendeleyev.

Exercise #2. Try to find English words from the table below which are connected with "Typology".

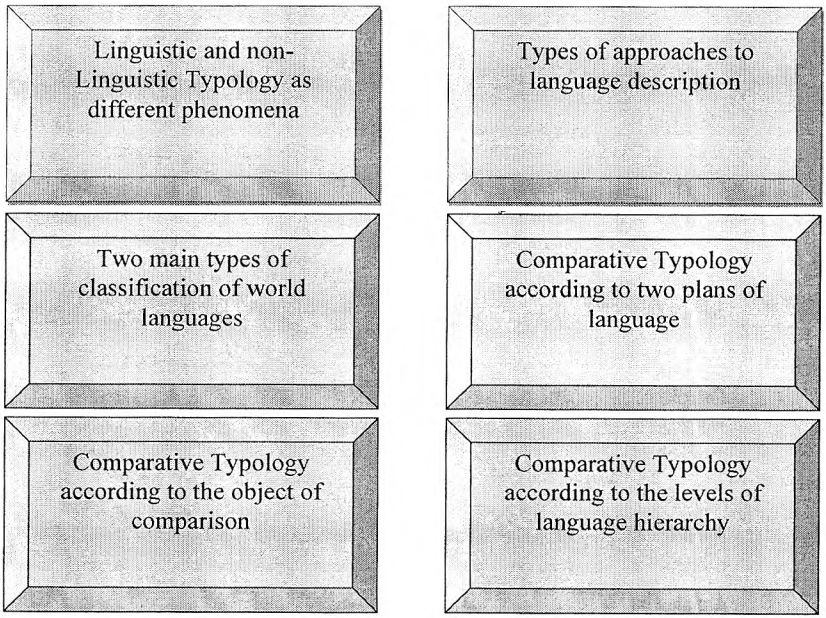
l	A	N	g	u	a	G	e	k	h
i	s	c	i	e	n	T	i	s	t
n	e	k	h	O	m	L	c	z	a
g	e	b	u	M	i	W	g	j	o
u	p	t	y	P	o	L	o	g	y

i	i	a	n	A	l	Y	s	e	x
S	c	w	o	R	d	S	e	q	m
T	a	t	h	E	o	R	y	d	u

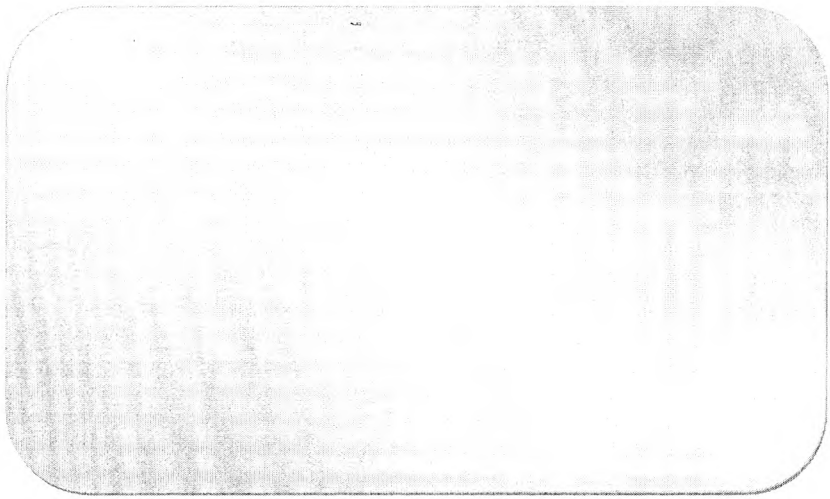
Seminar 2
Comparative Typology as a branch of General Linguistics

►Classroom activities

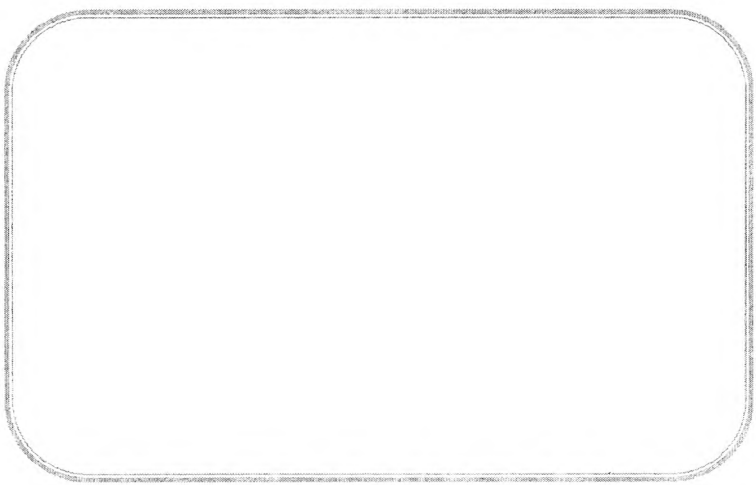
Exercise #1. Round table discussion. Work in six mini groups and discuss these problems. In 10 minutes present your topic, after all, make anoverall conclusion.



Exercise #2. Work in pairs. Discuss your opinions about types of language comparison. Make your own diagram to the following table. Present it to another team and complete it with new ideas.



Exercise #3a. Draw a picture, which comes to your mind about Genetic Typology in the following table.



3b. Present your picture to the group. Explain why do you think so?

►Home activities

Exercise #1. Complete the following definitions with the types of Typology from the box:

Comparative Typology	*Genetic Typology*	*Areal Typology*	*Structural Typology*

1. _____ is a branch of Linguistics that studies (using the methods of Linguistic Geography) distribution of linguistic phenomena in the spatial extent and interlingual (interdialectic) interaction.
2. _____ is one of the branches of General ComparativeTypology. It deals with comparison of languages irrespectively of their genetic or structural identity.
3. _____ is a branch of ComparativeTypology, which studies the similarities, and differences of originally related languages.
4. _____ is the major branch of ComparativeTypology and aims to identify structural language types.

Exercise #2. Circle the correct answer.

1. Who said that Areal Typology compares languages irrespectively of the degree of their relatedness and aims at defining general elements formed as a result of themutual influence of languages and the cultures staying behind them?

a. V.K.Ghak
b. D.J.Buranov
c. Yu.V.Rojdestvenskiy
d. M.M.Gukhman

2. What are the objects of study of Areal Ttypology?

a. borrowings, bilingual features, hybrid languages, language contacts
b. dialects, centum/satem languages, compiling dialectal maps
c. sub-stratum and super-stratum languages, neologisms, archaisms
d. all answers are true

3. What does Areal typology study?

a. dialects and restrictions of dissemination of separate features in the systems of related and non-related languages, theconfluence of different languages

b. dialects and restrictions of dissemination of separate features in the systems of related and non-related languages
c. dialects, centum/satem languages, compiling dialectal maps
d. sub-stratum and super-stratum languages, neologisms, archaisms

4. What does Comparative Typology deal with?

a. with distribution of linguistic phenomena in the spatial extent and interlingua (interdialectic) interaction
b. with the similarities, and differences of originally related languages
c. with the aims of identifying structural language types
d. withcomparison of languages irrespectively of their genetic or structural identity

5. What is the goal of Structural Typology?

a. to include discrete sound segments like p, n, or a, which can be defined by a finite set of sound properties or features
b. to identify structural language types
c. identifying common/similar features specific to systems of all or separate language groups
d. to identify universal features of langauges

►Activities for self-improvement

Exercise #1. Read the statements below. There are some mistakes about the facts. Find these mistakes and correct them.

Typology is a branch of science which is typical to all sciences without any exception. In this respect, their typological method is not limited to the sphere of one science. Typology may be divided into *Non-Linguistic Typology, Linguistic Typology, Paralinguistic Typology.*

Non-Linguistic Typology is the subject matter of the sciences except linguistics. It can be Political Typology, Medical or Economic Typology as well. Comparative Typology is a new branch of General Linguistics which studies the systems of languages comparatively, also finds common laws of languages and establishes differences and similarities between them. Due to David Crystal's book "Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics", Non-Linguistic Typology is explained in this way: "A branch of Linguistics which studies the structural similarities between languages, regardless of their history, as part of an attempt to establish a satisfactory classification, or typology of languages. The typological comparison is thus distinguished from the historical comparison of languages and its groupings

can coincide with those set up by the historical method." Nowadays, a lot of terms are used for defining this very type of science, such as *Linguistic Typology*, *Comparative Typology, and Contrastive Typology*. But with the help of analyzing historical background, we will be able to realize the main notion of this branch of Linguistics.

Typology is understood as a science of a whole comparison that has a large number of factors of its development. However, if it is described as a Structural Typology, then numbers of factors of its appearance will diminish. As Maslow said: "Typology does not deal with a limited number of languages. If it does, then it should be called "characterology" or "comparative description." Since the number of languages Typology deals with cannot be counted, languages are referred as an unlimited number of languages.

The development of Typology was very slow. It has several factors that influence to its development which are but not limited to typological imitation, "Port Royal Grammar", Comparative-Historical Linguistics, the process of studying of languages without a writing system, the influence of writing, phonetics and practical and theoretical study of languages.

Test yourself on Comparative Typology as a branch of General Linguistics

1. General Typology combines two types of typologies such as…
a) Lexical and Semantic
b) Linguistic and Non-Linguistic
c) Structural and Areal
d) Phonetic and Phonological

2. Non-Linguistic Typology as a method of comparison serves in…
a) Linguistics
b) All sciences besides Linguistics
c) Literature
d) General Linguistics and Literature

3. …deals with the languages which are genetically related both synchronically and diachronically.
a) Comparative Typology

b) Areal Typology
c) Genetic Typology
d) Structural Typology

4. Comparative Typology deals with …
a) Language systems in comparison
b) Psychology
c) Mathematics
d) Literature

5. According to the object of comparison Comparative Typology consists of:
a) Genetic, comparative, areal, structural
b) Semantic, formal
c) Syntactic, structural, areal, lexical
d) Phonetic, phonological, morphological, syntactic, lexical

6. Comparative method has …
a) Typological investigation
b) Grammatical features
c) Universal features
d) General features

7. Internal approach to language description deals with…
a) Non-related languages
b) The system of any concrete national language
c) Related languages
d) All languages

8. External approach to language description deals with…
a) Non-related languages
b) All languages
c) The cross-language description
d) Related languages

9. Comparative-Historical Linguistics is…
a) Comparative-historical studies of languages in their development
b) Comparative-scientific studies of languages in their development
c) Content approach to comparison
d) One – level approach to comparison

10. Diachronic development means the development of some linguistic phenomena from…

a) Grammatical viewpoint
b) Modern viewpoint
c) Linguistic viewpoint
d) Historical viewpoint

11. The first period is named spontaneous which was over …

a) In the XX century
b) In the XI century
c) Not long before the Renaissance
d) In the XIV century

12. Division of Comparative Typology with respect to two plans of language:

a) Formal, semantic
b) Comparative, structural
c) Syntactic, lexical
d) Formal, genetic

13. Port-Royal grammar is considered to be …

a) Practical grammar
b) Theoretical grammar
c) Universal grammar
d) English grammar

14. When was Port-Royal grammar written?

a) 2009
b) 1660
c) 1700
d) 1669

15. What did Mahmud Kashgariy do by analyzing a group of Turkic languages?

a) He defined the level of their genetic relationship to each other
b) He found out Language Universals
c) He analyzed the lexical units of all Turkic languages
d) He compared all language of the world

TOPICS FOR PRESENTATIONS

1. The notion of Linguistic and Non-Linguistic Typology.
2. Introduction to Comparative Typology.
3. Different approaches to language comparison.
4. Different types of comparison of language systems (panchronic, diachronic, synchronic).
5. The notions "type in language" and "type of language".
6. Directions of comparative typological investigations.
7. Characterize internal and external approaches to the comparison.
8. Types of language comparison in Comparative Typology.

II. Typology of phonetic and phonological level of english, uzbek and russian languages

2.1. Phonetics and Phonology as different branches of Linguistics

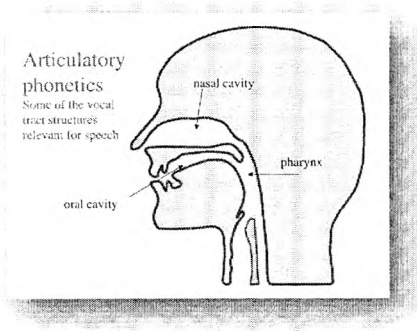
Key points for discussion:

- Theoretical foundations of Phonetic and Phonological Typologies
- Differences between Phonetics and Phonology
- Comparison of vowel and consonant phonemes
- Stress, intonation, assimilation, dissimilation, reduction, accent, rhythm and pause.

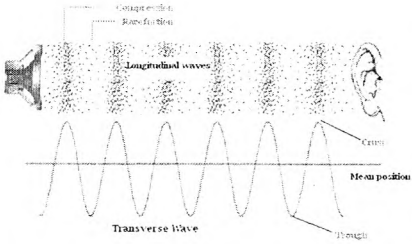
The term "**Phonetics**" is the Greek word ("phone"-meaning sound, voice and "tika" – a science/box) by origin. It deals with oral speech. Nevertheless, the definition as "the study of the sounds of a language" is not sufficient in Modern Linguistics. Nowadays phonetics is a "science which studies the phonetic substance and the expression area of the language, or otherwise a physical media of a language (sounds, syllables, stress, and intonation)" [A. Abduazizov.2007,6].

Phonetics has the following four main aspects:

- articulatory (physiological)
- acoustic (physical)
- perceptual (auditory)
- phonological (social, functional, linguistic).



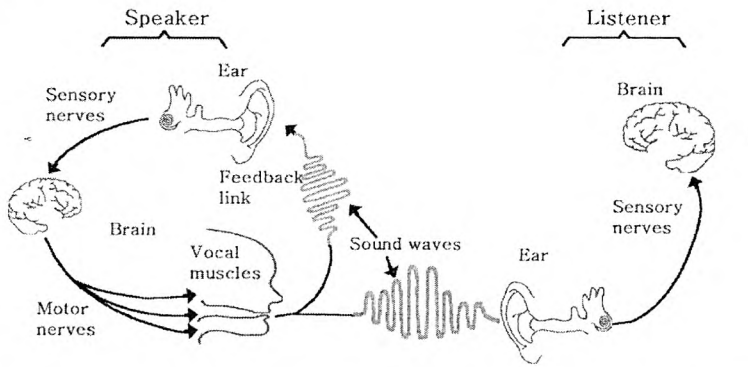
Articulatory Phonetics investigates the functioning of one's speech apparatus and mechanism. It is based on profound knowledge of physiology and the structure of one's speech apparatus. While investigating the articulatory aspect of speech sounds both subjective and objective methods



are employed: the method of direct observation (concerning the lips & the tongue movements) – subjective method and X-ray photography and X-ray cinematography (objective methods).

Acoustic Phonetics studies the acoustic properties of sounds (quantity, timber/voice quality, intensity, the pitch of the voice and temporal factor) in terms of the frequency of vibration and the amplitude of vibration in relation to time. The analysis begins with a microphone, which converts the air movement into corresponding electrical activity. While investigating the acoustic aspect of speech sounds special laboratory equipment is employed: spectrograph, intonograph, sound analyzing & sound synthesizing machines.

Auditory Phonetics is aimed at investigating the hearing process which is the brain activity. Auditory Phonetics and Acoustic Phonetics are very closely connected.



Functional Phonetics presupposes investigating the discriminatory (distinctive) function of speech sounds.

Phonetics can be divided into several types like:

General Phonetics. It studies universal positions of sound articulation (for instance, identification of sounds according to the position the differences of labial, tongue and throat consonants, according to the ways of articulation of plosive, fricative and plosive-fricative features), although, general acoustic features of sounds.

Specific Phonetics. It investigates above mentioned issues in the samples of certain languages. Specific phonetics researches Phonetics in the shapes of historical and modern, synchronic and diachronic, descriptive and experimental sides.

Comparative Phonetics investigates vowel and consonant phonemes, their phonetic changes and others in the comparative aspect of several genetically related and non-related languages.

Phonology(sometimes called phonemics or phonematics) is the study of how sounds are used in languages to convey meaning. The term of Phonology (Greek **phone** - sound, **logos** – science) appeared in Linguistics in the necessity of differentiating functional (linguistic) sides of speech sounds from the physiological-acoustic (physic) sides in the end of XIX century. It studies the rules governing the structure, distribution, and sequencing of speech sounds and the shape of syllables. It deals with the sounds systems of a language by treating phoneme as the point of departure.

With another word, phonetics deals with sounds and phonology deals with phonemes. Or else phonology deals with language sounds and phonetics deals with human speech sounds.

Phonetics and Phonology have two levels: *segmental* and *suprasegmental*. **Segmental phonology** studies phonemes realized in avarious speech sound. So it may be called phonemics. **Suprasegmental phonology** (prosodics) studies the distinctive features realized in syllables, stress, and intonation.

The fundamental concept of phonemics is the phoneme which is the smallest meaningless unit of a language and which forms, distinguishes words and morphemes. The linguistic form and content are described by other branches of linguistics.

At a given time, the set of phonemes in a language is a closed set (like function words and syntactic rules). The set of phonemes changes only over time. English, for instance, has lost the phonemes [x] and [∑]. English has also gained phonemes by borrowing foreign words with the sounds [z] and [Z]. Neither of these sounds was phonemes in English until they entered the language in numerous words borrowed from Norman French after 1066. Similarly, the sound [t] was not part of Russian until after the Christianization in 988, when many Greek words containing [f] were borrowed by the Slavs.

The Phonological Typology deals with the comparison of units of the phonological level of language. It engages in the allocation of phonological differential signs, defining their universality, study of the phonological structure of languages, classification of languages based on their phonological features (e.g. tonic and atonic languages), defining the phonemic structure of world languages and many others. For a long time, the Prague linguistic school was the center of Phonological Typology. A certain contribution to the development of Phonological Typology was made by N.S.Trubetskoy who is considered the founder of Typology of Phonological systems.

Phonological Typology involves comparing languages according to the number or type of sound they contain. Although there are inevitable problems in dividing the sounds of any language into separate abstract units (phonemes), linguists usually compare languages according to the number of different groups which participate in meaningful sound contrasts (i.e. phonemes) rather than the total number of actual speech sounds. Every language has a fairly small inventory of these sets or phonemes. Moreover, the number varies from language to language. In comparison, Hawaiian has only 18; Kabardian has over 80, and the Roisan language is reported to have 141 phonemes or mutually contrastive sets of sounds, Abhasian has 60.

The second aspect of Phonological Typology classifies languages according to the type of sounds present or absent in each language. Some sounds are only rarely found in languages.

Unusual sounds include: the Czech and Slovak voiced sound [h], Arabic pharyngeal. Arabic, English, new-Greek, Bashkirian [ɵ] and [ə], in Danish [ð] only, Uzbek, Arabic [ĸ], [ɾ], [x].

Unusual omissions also include labial (nearly completely absent in Cherokee, Tlingit), nasals (absent from several Salish languages), Sibiliants (absent from Hawaiian).

No known language entirely lacks either obstruent or sonorant. No known language entirely lacks either vowels or consonants, although Rotoras has only six consonants, certain North-West Caucasian languages such as Kabardian have only one vowel.

Languages are also classified into consonantal if the consonants are absolutely more than vowels and non-consonantal if the number of vowels is more, equal or even nearly equal (*A. Isachenko; T. Kovalev*).

Kramsky developed the theory of *A. Isachenko* analyzing the number of consonant-vocals in the text, when *T.Milevsky* analyses number correlation with quality of sounds-Eastern (Atlantic), Western (Pacific Oceanic) and Middle sound type American languages.

The first founders of phonetics were such outstanding linguists as *I.A.Badouin de Courtenay, N. Krushevsky, P.Passy, A.Sweet, F.de Saussure* and others.

The Prague linguistic school was the center of Phonological Typology in its time. *N.S. Trubetskoy* is considered as the founder of the typology of phonological system (theory of distinctive features).

There are other well-known linguists such as *R. Jacobson, C. G. Fant, M. Halle* (spectrographic/acoustic classification), *A. Isachenko, T. Kovalev, I. Kramsky, T. Milevsky, J. C. Pierce* (quantitative criterion), *A. Martine* (suprasegmental typological classification), *G. P. Melnikov, V. A. Vasilyev, E. D. Polivanov, A. M. Sherbak* and others.

The main achievement in the development of Phonological Typology is phonological universals. E.g. *All languages have vowels and consonants. If a language has voiced fricatives, it also has unvoiced fricatives, but not necessarily the other way round.*

Phonetics is the isolated and independent level in language hierarchy. It is more investigated science in Linguistics.

The following types of Phonetics may be distinguished:

1. ***General Phonetics*** which studies the human sound due to principles of Theoretical Phonetics. It is a part of General Linguistics.
2. ***Descriptive phonetics*** which studies the phonetic system of a certain language.
3. ***Historical (diachronical) phonetics*** which studies the sound undergoes in the development of a language.

4. ***Comparative-typological phonetics*** studies the phonetic features of two or more languages of different systems.

5. Comparison of phonetic-phonological units is carried out in ***Structural, Genetic, Areal and Comparative Typology*** (panchronic, diachronic and synchronic). The panchronic/diachronic comparison is not used because it is helpless and has no scientific value to compare genetically and areally distant non-cognate English and Uzbek.

Questions for self-control:

1. Phonetics and phonology as different sciences.
2. Who is the founder of Phonological Typology?
3. What types of Phonetics exist in Linguistics?
4. Differences between Segmental and Suprasegmental Phonology.
5. What kind of characterizing ways of vowels and consonants do you know?
6. Syllable division in English and compared languages.
7. The problem of interference in foreign language teaching acquisition (Phonetic and phonological levels).

RecommendedLiterature:

1. Abduazizov A.A. Theoretical Phonetics of Modern English. Tashkent, 1986.
2, Peter Roach. English Phonetics and Phonology. Cambridge UNI Press, 1994.
3. Leontyeva S.F. English Phonetics. A Theoretical Course. Moscow, 2002.
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2.2.Typological characteristics of English, Uzbek and Russian languages phonetic systems

2.2.1. English, Uzbek and Russian languages vowel phonemes

Vowels are normally made with the air stream that meets no obstruction in the mouth, pharyngeal and nasal cavities.

On the articulatory level in English the description of vowels notes changes:

1. in the stability of articulation

2. in the tongue position
3. in the lip position
4. in their length

In Uzbek and Russian they are described:

1. according to the lips position
2. according to the vertical movement of the tongue
3. according to the horizontal movement of the tongue

English has

1.) 10 monophthongs: /i/, /e/, /æ/, /u/, /ʌ/, /ə/, /a:/, /o/, /o:/, /ə:/.

2.) 8 diphthongs: glides to [i] -/ei/, /oi/, /ai/;
glides to [u] -/au/, /əu/, /uə/;
glides to [ə] - /iə/, /ɛə/

3.) 2 diphthongoids /i:/, /u:/

Thus, the phonemic inventory of English vowels includes 20 phonemes and 6 vowel letters a, i, e, u, o, y, Uzbek has 6 vowel phonemes [и], [э], [а], [у], [ў], [о] and letters i, e, a, u, o‘, o. Russian also has 6 vowel phonemes [и], [ы], [у], [э], [о], [а] and 10 vowel letters а, о, э, и, у, ы, е, ё, ю, я.

Tongue Position

According to the tongue position vowels divided into **forward, mid, backward, up, down** in all compared languages.

According to the tongue position English vowels divided into 5 types but in Uzbek and Russian languages they are in 3 types:

	front vowel	**front-retracted vowel**	**central vowels**	**back vowels**	**back-advanced vowel**
English	[i: e æ]	[i]	[ʌ ə: ə]	[a: o o: u:]	[u]
Uzbek	[и, э]	-	[ў]	[а, у, о]	-
Russian	[и], [э]	-	[ы], [а]	[у], [о]	-

Moving **up and down** in the mouth the tongue may be raised to different height towards the roof of the mouth.

1. When the front or the back of the tongue is raised high towards the palate the vowel is called ***close*** in English and Russian languages.

They are – **[i: I u u:].**

2. When the front or the back of the tongue is as low as possible in the mouth ***open*** **vowels** are pronounced in English and Russian languages.

They are – **[æ a: o o:].**

3. When the highest part of the tongue occupies the position intermediate between the close and the open one ***mid*** **vowels** are pronounced only in English.

They are – [e **Λ ə: ə].**

According to the vertical position of the tongue in Uzbek and Russian vowels are divided into narrow, mid and broad:

	narrow	**mid**	**broad**
Uzbek	[и, у]	[э, о, ў]	[а]
Russian	[и], [ы], [у]	[э], [о]	[а]

Lip Position

When the lips are neutral or spread the vowels are called ***unrounded.***

They are – [i:], [i], [e], [æ], [a:], [Λ], [ə:], [ə]in English**.** In Uzbek they are – [и], [э], [а], in Russian [а], [э], [и], [ы].

When the lips are drawn together so that the opening between them is more or less round the vowel is called ***rounded.***

They are – [o o: u u:].In Uzbek[у], [ў], [о]. InRussian [о], [у].

According to the **length,** English vowels are classified into short and long:

Long vowels are – [i: a: o: u: ə:]

Short vowels are – [i, e, o, u, Λ, ə].

But in comparison with English, there is no such division of vowels in Uzbek and Russian. But in Russian vowels are divided into ***stressed*** and ***unstressed*** vowels.

Prof. U.K. Yusupov describes some Uzbek geminis vowels such as [ш**уу**р, матб**аа**, Ш**оо**лим], which are alien to English. He classifies lacuna vowels in the compared languages as follows:

English lacuna vowels for Uzbek: [æ], [u:], [ə:], [a:], [ou], [oi], [ə:], [au], [iə], [uə], [εə], [ai].

There is only one Uzbek lacuna vowel for English. It is [ў]. And one Russian lacuna vowel for English. It is [ы].

The phonemic status of English diphthongs is still a question of discussion. Diphthongs are complex units of the two elements which are closely blended together. They are syllabically indivisible, the length of diphthongs is the same as that of English long vowels. In Uzbek and Russian, there are no diphthongs, only combinations of sounds where both elements are equally energetic and distinct.

English diphthongs consist of two elements, the first of which is a nucleus, strong and distinct; the second is a glide, which is very weak and indistinct.

2.2.2. English, Uzbek and Russian languages consonant phonemes

The inventory of phonemes is a starting point in the comparative-typological analysis. The typological analysis aims at describing structural units, i.e. phonemes which function as formal items in the identification and distinction of words and morphemes.

The inventory of the English consonants consist of 24 phonemes.

[p], [b], [t], [d], [k], [g], [m], [n], [ŋ], [f], [v], [θ], [ð], [s], [z], [ʃ], [ʒ], [h], [tʃ], [dʒ], [j], [w], [r], [l].

The inventory of the Uzbek consonants consist of 25 phonemes.

[б], [в], [г], [д], [ж1], [j2],[(dj)], [з], [й], [к], [л], [м], [н], [п], [р], [с], [т], [ф], [х], [ч], [ш], [қ], [ғ], [ҳ], [ц].

The inventory of the Russian consonants consist of 36 phonemes.

[б], [б'] [в], [в'] [г], [г'] [д], [д'] [ж] [з], [з'] [й'] [к], [к'] [л], [л'] [м], [м'] [н], [н'] [п], [п'] [р], [р'] [с], [с'] [т], [т'] [ф], [ф'] [х], [х'] [ц] [ч'] [ш] [щ'].

Consonant system of all compared languages is classified according to the articulatory and acoustic features.

General phonetic principles of classification of consonants in compared languages are as follows:

a.) The place of articulation
b.) the manner of production;
c.) the presence or absence of voice;
d.) the position of the soft palate;

Similarity and differences between them can be seen in the tables below:

The place of articulation		
English	**Uzbek**	**Russian**
bilabial	labial	labial
labiodentals	lingual	labial-dental
dental	glottal	foredental
alveolar		dental
postalveolar		
palatal		
velar		
uvular		
pharyngeal		
glottal		
retroflex		

The manner of production			
	English	**Uzbek**	**Russian**
1.	occlusive	explosive	Fricative: a) middle fricative b) side fricative
2.	constrictive (fricative)	affricates	Occlusive: a) explosive b) affricates c) implosive d) nasal
3.	occlusive-constrictive (affricates)	implosive	Vibrant
4.	rolled	nasal	
5.		vibrant	

The presence or absence of voice		
English	**Uzbek**	**Russian**
Voiced	Voiced	Voiced
Voiceless	Voiceless	Voiceless

The position of the soft palate		
English	**Uzbek**	**Russian**
Sonorant	Sonorant	Sonorant
Noise consonants	Noise consonants	Noise consonants

According to the palatalization of the tongue, only Russian language has ***soft*** and ***hard*** consonants.

Professor U. Yusupov differentiates some consonants in the following way. The English consonants **[t]** and **[d]** are alveolar speech sounds, whereas their Uzbek counterparts **[т]** and **[д]** are dental ones. The English **[w],** in contrast with Uzbek **[в],** is pronounced with protruded lips. Also, in Uzbek, the voiced consonants **[б]** and **[д]** become voiceless at the end of words, which is alien to English: *мактаб-мактап.*

The consonants **[ɵ,ð,w]** can't be found in Uzbek. Likewise, the Uzbek consonants **[х, ғ, қ]** do not exist in English. Moreover, Russian **[ж], [й']** phonemes also cannot be found in English phoneme system.

Questions for self-control:

1. What is a vowel sound?
2. What are the groups of vowels according to the articulatory level?
3. How do the consonants change on the articulatory level?
4. What are the four groups of consonants according to the manner of articulation?
5. What is the difference between occlusive and constrictives
6. How are the Russian rolled consonants [p, p'] are produced?
7. Name the consonant groups according to the place of articulation.
8. The problem of interference in foreign language teaching acquisition (Phonetic and phonological levels).

RecommendedLiteratures:

1. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков. Ленинград, 1979.
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2.3. Typological characteristics of English, Uzbek and Russian languages phonological systems

2.3.1. English, Uzbek and Rissian languages Stress

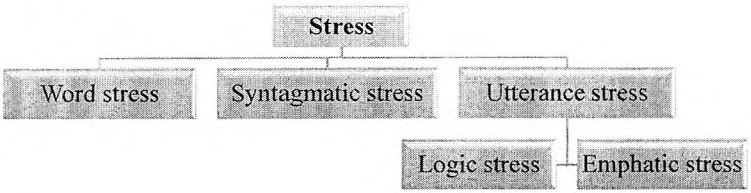
Word stress or accent is usually defined as the degree of force or prominence with which a sound or syllable is uttered. Languages differ with word stress placement and degrees of it.

In the Turkic languages, particularly in Uzbek, word stress usually falls on the final syllable.

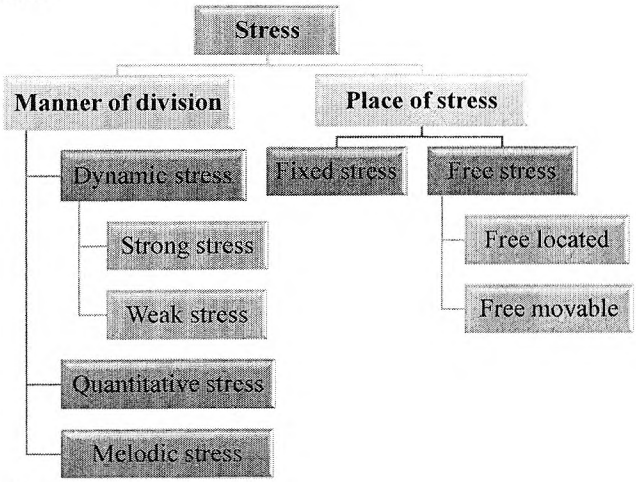
English, Uzbek, and Russian are called stress languages or languages with dynamic stress (force stress), in which intensity is more significant than the other correlates-duration and pitch.

Stress can be divided into all compared languages as follows:

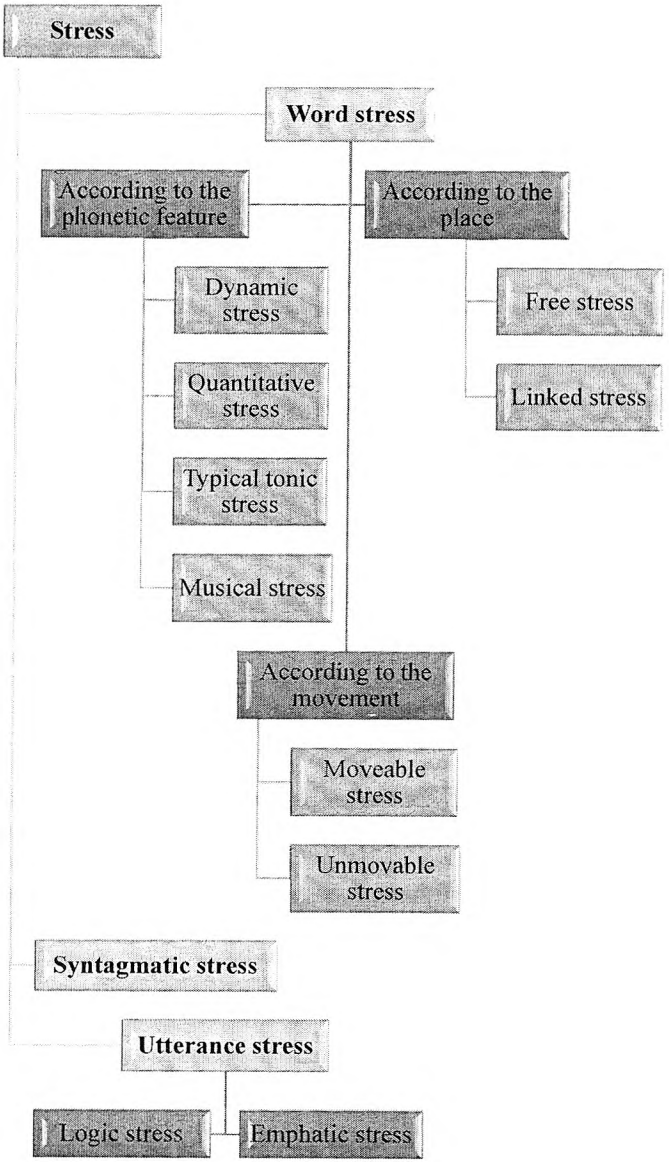
In English:



In Russian:



In Uzbek:



The features of these three languages can be seen from the tables above. In English, the word stress is fixed, while in Uzbek it is movable and it often falls to the right side to the suffixes:

Eng. *`teach - `teach +er, - `teach+ing*

Uzb. *`иш – иш+`чи – ишчи+`лар – ишчилар+`да – ишчиларда+`ми?*

Some words of collective pronouns (such as *ҳамма, барча*) of Uzbek are considered as exceptions because in these pronouns stress is fixed: *ҳ`амма – ҳ`амма+га –ҳ`амма+дан.*

On the contrary, with these two languages Russian stress can be distinguished with its free (can be in any part of a word: ***ку́хонный, экспе́ртный, проходно́й***) and mobility (can change its place in different forms of a word: ***нача́ть, на́чал, начала́, на́чали)*** features.

There are two equal stresses in all compared languages: *`mid`night, `black`board, `home`sick* etc., in Uzbek: *те`мир`йўл, бог`ишам`ол* etc., in Russian: ***кля́твопреступле́ние, о́колозе́мной, ви́це-президе́нт*** etc.

Stress is one of the ways of word building in these compared languages:

Eng.: **`present** (noun) – **pre`sent** (verb), **`expert** (noun) – **ex`pert** (verb).

Uzb.: **`олма** (noun) – **ол`ма** (verb), **`сузма** (noun) – **суз`ма** (verb).

Rus.: **заброни́ровать** (место в гостинице)– **забронирова́ть** (орудие), **сме́лый** (adj.) - **смела́** (noun).

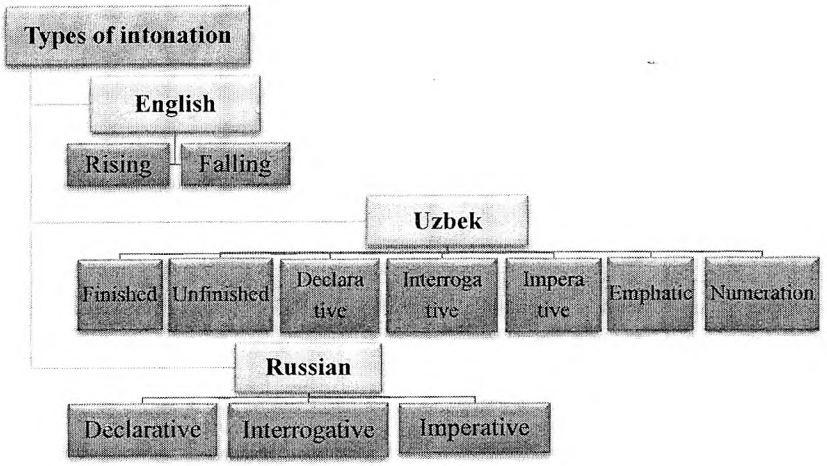
2.3.2. English, Uzbek and Russian languages intonation

In linguistics, intonation is the variation of pitch. Intonation and stress are two main elements of linguistic prosody. Intonation is a part of suprasegmental phonology. It helps to recognize the language that you hear in the same way as the melody of a song helps to recognize the song that you hear. That is why "Intonation" is the melody or music of a language. It consists of a number of components and comparing languages have adifference in the number of these components.

For instance:

Components of intonation		
English	**Uzbek**	**Russian**
Pitch	Melody	Stress
Sentence stress	Stress	Pause
Rhythm	Pause	Timbre
	Rhythm	Melody
	Temp	Temp
	Timbre	
	Intensity	

Considering above mentioned components intonation can be divided into the following types in all three languages.



Besides there are two basic types of intonation.Other main types of intonation include **high fall, low fall, fall-rise, high-rise, midlevel rise, low rise,** which is not classified in the other two languages.

Falling intonation is used for asking and giving information in normal, quiet, unemphatic style. Sounds are more categorical, confident and convincing than rising intonation.

Standard patterns:

In all compared languages, falling intonation is used on the last stressed syllable of the sentence in:

- **Statements** (declarative sentences): We live in London. Биз Лондонда яшаймиз.Мы живем в Лондоне.
- **Special questions**: Where do you live? Қаерда яшайсизлар? Где вы живете?
- **Commands (imperative sentences)**: Sit down! Ўтиринг! Садитесь!
- **Emphatic sentences**: What a wonderful news! Қандай ажойиб янгилик! Какая приятная новость!

Rising intonation in English is a complicated phenomenon. It can express a number of various emotions such as non-finality, surprise, doubt, politeness, interest, lack of confidence. Standard rising intonation in English first goes down a little and then up.

The similarity of rising intonation in standard patterns also can be observed:

Rising intonation is used in:

- **General questions**: Will you come? Келасиз**ми**? Вы придете?
- **Tag questions**: (When the speaker is not sure that the answer will be "Yes" or wants your opinion and confirmation): It is a beautiful \ TOWN, ISN'T it? Нақадар гўзал шаҳар, шундай эмас**ми?** Какой красивый город, не так ли?

In addition, there is a levelled intonation, which is used at the end of imperative sentences: Stop the car! Машинани тўхтатинг! Остановите машину!

As it is seen, there are no big differences in types of intonation in compared languages. But we can mention that English greeting and leave-taking sentences are pronounced with rising intonation, in Uzbek and Russian it is pronounced with falling intonation. Good day! Салом! Привет! Вуе! Хайр! Пока!

Moreover, English and Russian intonations have classification of functions of intonation.

English: attitudinal, accentual, grammatical, discourse.

Russian: semantic, expressive, syntactic, and euphonic.

In contrast with above-mentioned functions, **Uzbek** intonation has several roles in the sentences: a) as the means of expressing completeness of the sentence; b) participates in differentiating the types of sentences according to their purpose and emotionality; c) as an important phonetic means in expressing syntactic relations.

Questions for self-control:

1. What is syllable?
2. What classification of syllable do you know?
3. What types of word stress do you know according to its place?
4. What is the difference between movable and unmovable stress?
5. Tell similarities and differences between intonation types.
6. The problem of interference in foreign language teaching acquisition (Phonetic and phonological levels).

RecommendedLiteratures:

1. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков. Ленинград, 1979.
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9. Ranmatullayev Sh. Hozirgi adabiy O'zbek tili. Toshkent, 2007.

Topics for self-study

1. Classification of languages according to phonetic and phonological features
2. Typology of phonological systems
3. Theoretical foundation of phonetic and phonological typologies.
4. Differences between phonetics and phonology.
5. Stress, intonation, assimilation, dissimilation, reduction, accent, rhythm and pause.

LIST OF THE KEY WORDS OF UNDERSTANDING THE COURSE OF COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY OF ENGLISH AND NATIVE LANGUAGES

Typology of phonetic and phonological level of English and Native languages

1. The term **'phonetics'** is the greek word ("phone" - means sound, voice and "tika" - a science/box). It is a science which studies the phonetic substance and the expression area of the language, or otherwise a physical media of a language (sounds, syllables, stress, and intonation).
2. From the acoustic and articulator points of view, the phonemic system of any language may be divided into **vowels** and **consonants**.
3. **Segmental phonology** studies phonemes realized in avarious speech sound. Therefore, it may be called phonemics.
4. **Suprasegmental phonology** (prosodies) studies the distinctive features realized in syllables, stress, and intonation.
5. The Prague linguistic school was the center of **phonological typology** in its time. N.S. Trubetskoy is considered the founder of the typology of the phonological system (theory of distinctive features).

6. **Word stress** or **accent** is usually defined as the degree of force or prominence with which a sound or syllable is uttered. Languages differ with word stress placement and degrees of it.

7. **Intonation** is a complex unity of speech melody, sentence stress, the tempo of speech, the rhythm of speech, voice tember and pausation that enables the speaker to express his thoughts, feelings, and emotions.

8. When phonemes are pronounced in words, they change their place of articulation or their features, this process is called assimilation.

9. **Dissimilation** is the process by which one of two similar or identical sounds in a word becomes less like the other, such as the / in English *marble* (from French *marbre).*

10. **Reduction** refers to various changes in the acoustic *quality* of vowels, which are related to changes in stress, sonority, duration, loudness, articulation, or position.

11. **The accent** is a relative prominence of a particular syllable of a word by greater intensity or by variation or modulation of pitch or tone.

12. **Rhythm** is the pattern or flow of sound created by the arrangement of stressed and unstressed syllables in accentual verse or of long and short syllables in quantitative verse.

13. Pysiological-acoustic is a branch of acoustics that studies the structure and branch function of the sound-detecting and sound- forming organs of man and animals.

14. **Obstruent** is a speech sound such as [k], [d͡ʒ], or [f] that is formed by *obstructing* air flow.

15. **Sonorant** or **Resonant** is a speech sound that is produced with continuous, non-turbulent air flow in the vocal tract; these are the manners of articulation that are most often voiced in the world's languages.

16. **Unrounded** is a type of vowel sound that occurs in most spoken languages, represented in the International Phonetic Alphabet by the symbol.

17. **Mid vowels** The defining characteristic of a mid vowel is that the tongue is positioned midway between an open vowel and a close vowel.

18. **Phonology** is a branch of linguistics concerned with the systematic organization of sounds in languages.

19. **Linguistic prosody** is concerned with those elements of speech that are not individual phonetic segments (vowels and consonants) but are properties of syllables and larger units of speech.

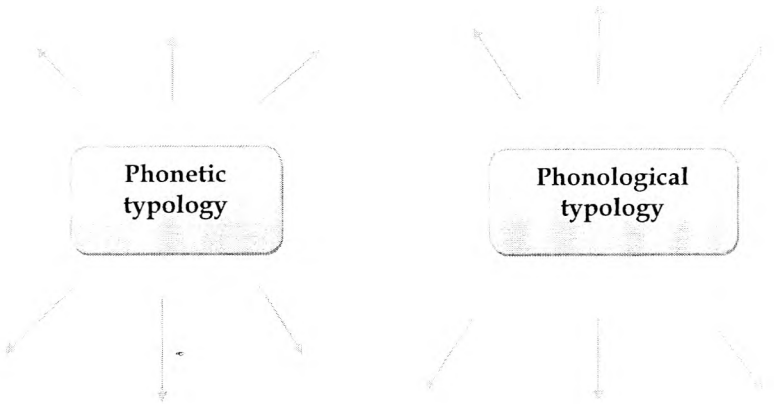
20. **The nasal cavity** is a large air filled space above and behind the **nose** in the middle of the face. Each cavity is the continuation of one of the two **nostrils**.

Seminar 3

Typology of phonetic and phonological level of English, Uzbek and Russian Languages

▶ Classroom activities

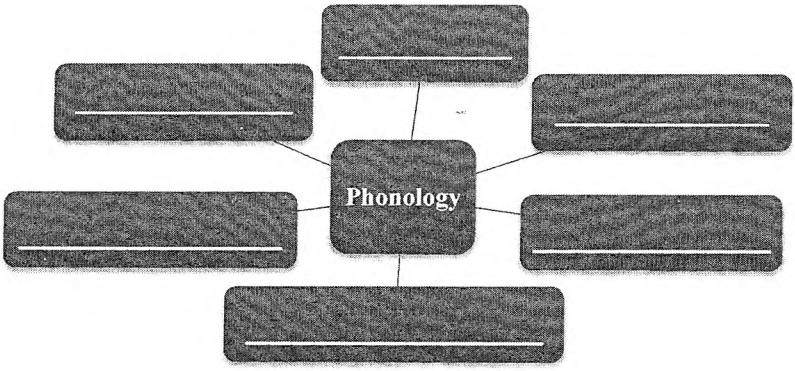
Exercise #1. Brainstorming. Give your own understanding and opinions concerning to following terms. Discuss it in 10 or 12 minutes.



Exercise #2. Answer the questions:

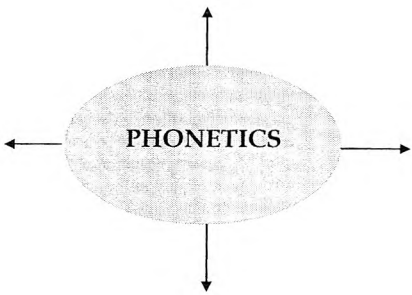
1. What is the theoretical foundation of phonetic and phonological typologies?
2. What kind of differences do phonetics and phonology have?
3. What is the typological comparison of vowel and consonant phonemes?
4. What are the stress, intonation, assimilation, dissimilation, reduction, accent, rhythm and pause?

Exercise #3. Complete the cluster "Phonology":



►Home activities

Exercise #1. Write 4 main aspects of PHONETICS and match them with the paragraphs below:



1. _____ investigates the functioning of one's speech apparatus and mechanism. It is based on profound knowledge of physiology and the structure of one's speech apparatus. While investigating the articulatory aspect of speech sounds both subjective and objective methods are employed: the method of direct observation (concerning the lips & the tongue movements) – subjective method and X-ray photography and X-ray cinematography (objective methods).

2. _____ studies the acoustic properties of sounds (quantity, timber/voice quality, intensity, the pitch of the voice and temporal factor) in terms of the frequency of vibration and the amplitude of vibration in relation to time. The analysis begins with a microphone, which converts the air movement into corresponding electrical activity. While investigating the acoustic aspect of speech sounds special laboratory equipment is employed: spectrograph, intonograph, sound analyzing and sound synthesizing machines.

3. _____ is aimed at investigating the hearing process which is the brain activity. This type of Phonetics and Acoustic Phonetics are very closely connected.

4. _____ presupposes investigating the discriminatory (distinctive) function of speech sounds.

Exercise #2. Read and fill in the gaps:

Comparative Phonetics, Segmental Phonology, Specific Phonetics, Suprasegmental Phonology and General Phonetics.

Phonetics can be divided into several types like:

1. _____ studies universal positions of sound articulation (for instance, identification of sounds according to the position the differences of labial, tongue and throat consonants, according to the ways of articulation of plosive, fricative and plosive-fricative features), although, general acoustic features of sounds.

2. _____ investigates above mentioned issues in the samples of certain languages. Specific phonetics researches phonetics in the shapes of historical and modern, synchronic and diachronic, descriptive and experimental sides.

3. _____ investigates vowel and consonant phonemes, their phonetic changes and others in the comparative aspect of several genetically related and non-related languages.

Phonetics and phonology have two levels: *segmental* and *suprasegmental.*

4. _____ studies phonemes realized in a various speech sound. So it may be called phonemics.

5. _____ (prosodics) studies the distinctive features realized in syllables, stress, and intonation.

►Activities for self-improvement

Exercise #1. Read the statements below and choose whether they are True or False.

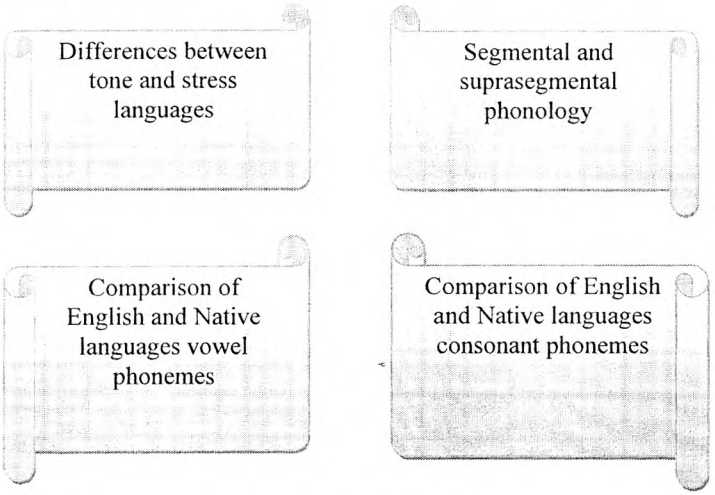
1. Vowels are not stressed syllables in compared languages.
   True / False
2. Two types of stress are distinguished in compared languages.
   True / False
3. Sentence stress is a feature of the phonetic structure of a word as a vocabulary unit.
   True / False
4. The morphological stress exists only in Uzbek.
   True / False
5. 'Olma (a noun) "apple".
   True / False
6. Stress is **free** in English.
   True / False
7. In English stress moves when suffixes are added.
   True / False
8. 4 degrees of stress exist in Uzbek.
   True / False
9. Stress does not have word-distinctive and form-distinctive functions in Uzbek.
   True / False
10. 'present-noun.
    True / False

Seminar 4

Typology of phonetic and phonological level of English, Uzbek and Russian Languages

►Classroom activities

Exercise #1. Group work. Work in small groups. Discuss and analyze the following topics. Compare the given topics and present their similarities and differences to others.

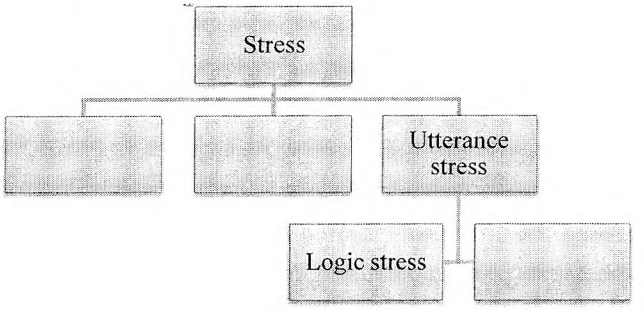


Exercise #2. Answer the questions and do the tasks.

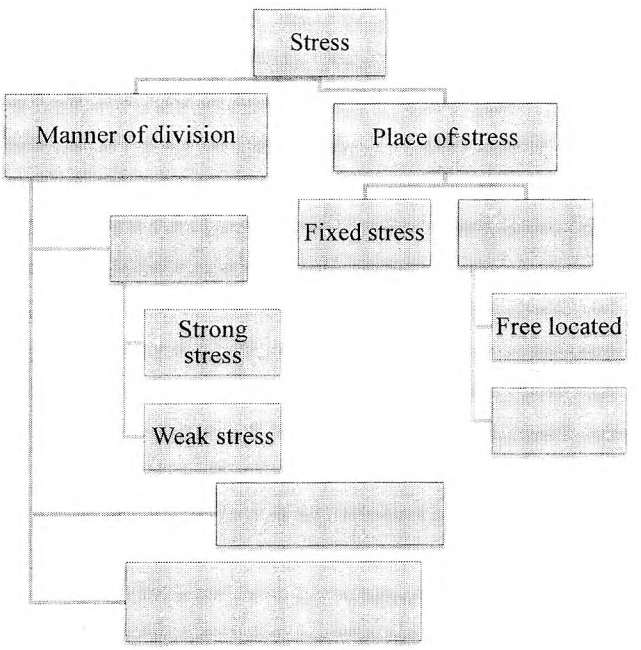
1. What is a vowel?
2. What is a consonant?
3. What kind of differences can be between vowels and consonants?
4. Tell about the principles of vowels' classification.
5. Find at least 3 similarities of English and Uzbek vowels.
6. Give 3 differences between English and Uzbek vowel phonemes.
7. Give 3 distinctive features of English and Uzbek vowel phonemes.

Exercise #3. Stress can be divided into types in all compared languages.
a) In small groups complete the clusters.

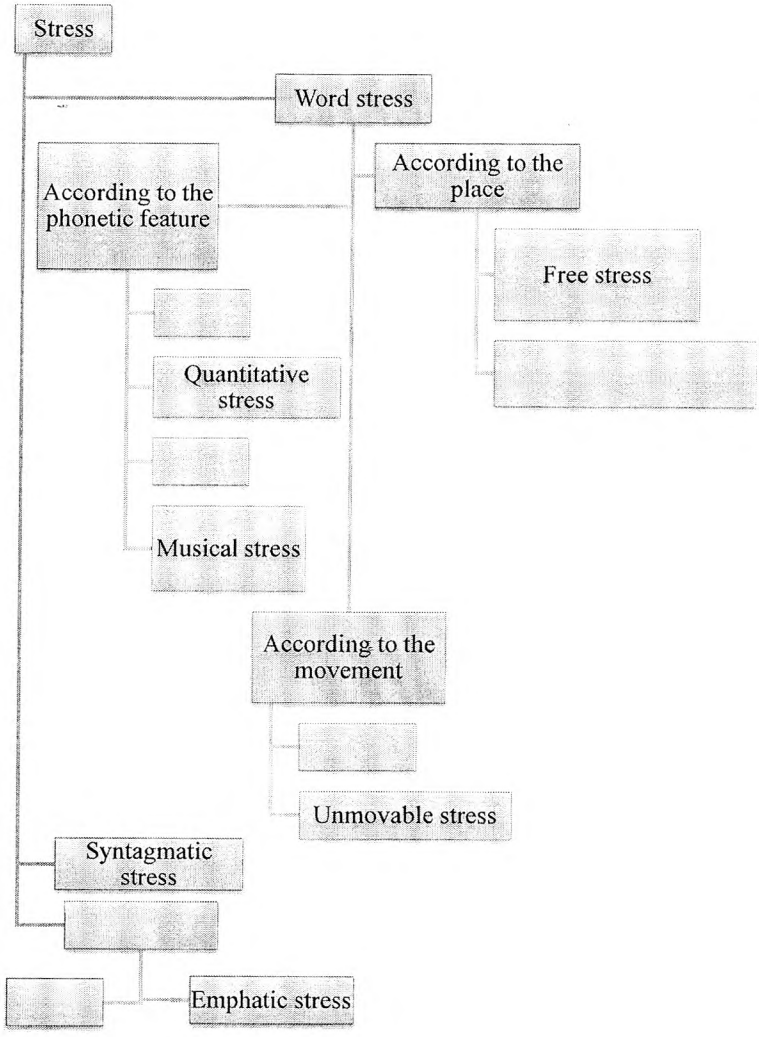
In English:



In Russian:



In Uzbek:



b) Compare completed clusters and find 3 similarities, differences and distinctive features of the stress in 3 languages.

►Home activities

Exercise #1. Complete the table and compare vowels according to the tongue position in 3 languages:

	front vowel	front-retracted vowel	central vowels	back vowels	back-advanced vowel
English					
Uzbek		-			-
Russian		-			-

Exercise #2. Compare Uzbek, Russian and English vowels according to the vertical position of the tongue.

	narrow	mid	Broad
Uzbek			
Russian			
English			

► Activities for self-improvement

Exercise #1. Do the following tasks.

1. Characterize the following syllables according to the distribution of vowels and consonants (open, close).
   Do, took, tree, lit, blue, stay, dog, pie, stamp, out, put, eye, act.
2. Group the following words according to the number of syllables.(1,2,3,4,5)
   Military, politics, problematic, machine, come, millet, communal, problem, coming, mechanical communist, politician, mechanize, probe.
3. Divide the following words into syllables:
   Cottage, family, pity, table, fishing, exam, education, January, parents, introduce.

4. Put the stress mark in the following words:
Apple-tree, examination, police, hatto, introduction, fourteen, house wife, ammo, barcha.

Test yourself on Typology of phonetic and phonological level of English and Native Languages

1. The smallest unit of sound distinguishing meaning is called a ...
a) phone
b) morpheme
c) phoneme
d) allophone

2. A fricative and an affricate differ in ...
a) pressure phase and friction phase
b) nothing
c) place of articulation
d) the manner of articulation

3. A voiced and a voiceless sound differ in ...
a) there is no difference
b) the direction of the air stream
c) aspiration
d) vocal chord action

4. In which of these words is the shortest vowel?
a) bean
b) bead
c) bee
d) beat

5. … is mainly concerned with the functioning of phonetic units in the language.
a) segmental phonetics;
b) practical phonetics;
c) suprasegmental phonetics;
d) theoretical phonetics.

6. The branch of phonetics that studies the linguistic function of consonant and vowel sounds, syllable structure, word accent and prosodic features, such as pitch, stress and tempo is called …

a) phonology;
b) instrumental phonetics;
c) practical phonetics;
d) theoretical phonetics;

7. … studies the larger units of connected speech syllables, words, phrases, texts.

a) segmental phonetics;
b) theoretical phonetics;
c) practical phonetics;
d) suprasegmental phonetics.

8. How many vowels are there in the English, Russian and Uzbek languages?

a) 20, 6, 6
b) 18, 6, 10
c) 19, 6, 6
d) 24, 10, 6

9. What language classifies vowels into short and long according to the **length**

a) Russian
b) English
c) Uzbek
d) Polish

10. According to the palatalization of the tongue, what language has **soft** and **hard** consonants?

a) English
b) Uzbek
c) Russian
d) Polish

11. According to the passive organs of speech, consonants are divided into:

a) Labial
b) Dental and alveolar
c) Sonorant
d) Fricative

12. A special prominence given to one more syllable in a word is:
a) The pause
b) The rhythm
c) The melody
d) The stress

13. Which language has free word stress?
a) Russian and English
b) Czeck and Slovak
c) French
d) Kazakh

14. What is a syllable?
a) Morphemic structure of the word
b) One of the speech sounds
c) The shortest segment of speech sounds
d) Segmental structure of the word

15. Find the correct answer where English and Uzbek stress position is correctly shown.
a) words in English have mostly 1st syllable stressed position and Uzbek last syllable stressed position
b) words in Uzbek have mostly 2nd syllable stressed position and English 1st syllable stressed position
c) there is no stable stress position in both languages
d) words in Uzbek and English have free syllable stressed position

TOPICS FOR PRESENTATIONS

1. The theoretical foundation of phonetic and phonological typologies.
2. Differences between phonetics and phonology.
3. Typological comparison of vowel and consonant phonemes.
4. Stress, intonation, assimilation, dissimilation, reduction, accent, rhythm and pause.
5. Comparison of English, Russian and Uzbek vowel phonemes.
6. Comparison of English, Russian and Uzbek consonant phonemes.
7. Comparative analysis of English, Russian and Uzbek intonation.
8. Comparative analysis of English, Russian and Uzbek stress.

III. Typology of morphological level of English and Native Languages

3.1. Theoretical basis of determining necessary constants in morphological level

Key points for discussion:
- The object of Morphological Typology
- Correlation of Morphological Typology with other branches of ComparativeTypology
- Morpheme and allomorph.
- The notion of analytical and synthetic languages
- Typological classification of languages

Morphological typology studies the units of the morphological level. Mainly it deals with two objects of comparison:

- morphological or typological classification of languages;
- parts of speech and their grammatical categories.

According to the morphological classification, the languages are classified due to the typical structural features or means of expression of synthetic relations between words.

Grammatical categories may be of 2 types:

- primary grammatical categories, which deal with parts of speech
- secondary grammatical categories, which deal with grammatical categories within every part of speech separately: number, case, gender for nouns, tense, voice, aspect, mood, person, degrees of comparison for adjectives and so on.

Besides, morphological typology studies morphological paradigm. It classifies languages into languages:

- with highly developed morphology
- with less developed morphology
- with non-developed morphology

A morpheme is an association of a given meaning with a given sound pattern. But unlike a word it is not autonomous. Morphemes occur in speech only as for constituent parts of words, not independently, although a word may consist of a single morpheme. Nor are they divisible into smaller meaningful units. That is why the morpheme may be defined as the minimum meaningful language unit.

The term morpheme is derived from Gr morphe 'form' + -eme. The Greek suffix -erne has been adopted by linguists to denote the smallest significant or distinctive unit. (Cf. phoneme, sememe.) The morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of form. A form in these cases is a recurring discrete unit of speech.

A form is said to be free if it may stand alone without changing its meaning; if not, it is a bound form, so called because it is always bound to something else. For example, if we compare the words *sportive* and *elegant* and their parts, we see that *sport, sportive, elegant* may occur alone as utterances, whereas *eleg-, -ive, -ant* are bound forms because they never occur alone.

Morphological typology

Morphological typology is a way of classifying the languages of the world that groups languages according to their common morphological structures. First developed by brothers Friedrich von Schlegel and August von Schlegel, the field organizes languages on the basis of how those languages form words by combining morphemes. Two primary categories exist to distinguish all languages: analytic languages and synthetic languages, where each term refers to the opposite end of a continuous scale including all the world's languages.

Analytic languages

Analytic languages show a low ratio of morphemes to words; in fact, the correspondence is nearly one-to-one. Sentences in analytic languages are composed of independent root morphemes. Grammatical relations between words are expressed by separate words where they might otherwise be expressed by affixes, which are present to a minimal degree in such languages. There is little to no morphological change in words: they tend to be uninflected. Grammatical categories are indicated by word order (for example, inversion of verb and subject for interrogative sentences) or by bringing in additional words (for example, a word for "some" or "many" instead of a plural inflection like English "-s"). Individual words carry a general meaning (root concept); nuances are expressed by other words. Finally, in analytic languages, context and syntax are more important than morphology.

Analytic languages include some of the major East Asian languages, such as Chinese, and Vietnamese. Additionally, English is moderately analytic (probably one of the most analytic of Indo-European languages).

Synthetic languages

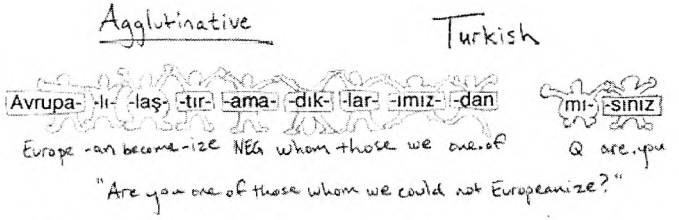
Synthetic languages form words by affixing a given number of dependent morphemes to a root morpheme. The morphemes may be distinguishable from the root, or they may not. They may be fused with it or among themselves (in that multiple pieces of grammatical information may potentially be packed into one morpheme). Word order is less important for these languages than it is for analytic languages since individual words express the grammatical relations that would otherwise be indicated by syntax. In addition, there tends to be a high degree of concordance (agreement, or cross-reference between different parts of the sentence). Therefore, morphology in synthetic languages is more important than syntax. Most Indo-European languages are moderately synthetic.

There are two subtypes of synthesis, according to whether morphemes are clearly differentiable or not. These subtypes are "agglutinative" and "fusional" (or "inflectional" or "flectional" in older terminology).

Agglutinative languages

Agglutinative languages have words containing several morphemes that are always clearly differentiable from one another in that each morpheme represents only one grammatical meaning and the boundaries between those morphemes are easily demarcated; that is, the bound morphemes are affixes, and they may be individually identified. Agglutinative languages tend to have a high number of morphemes per word, and their morphology is highly regular.

Agglutinative languages include Korean, Hungarian, Turkish, Japanese and Luganda.

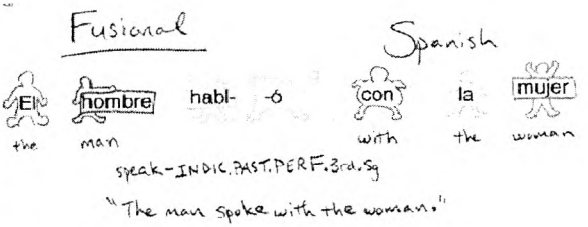


Fusional languages

Morphemes in fusional languages are not readily distinguishable from the root or among themselves. Several grammatical bits of meaning may be fused into one affix. Morphemes may also be expressed by internal phonological changes in the root (i.e. morphophonology), such as consonant gradation and vowel gradation,

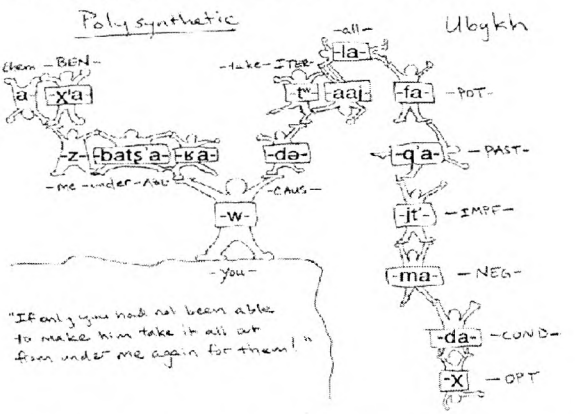
or by suprasegmental features such as stress or tone, which are of course inseparable from the root.

Most Indo-European languages are fusional to a varying degree. A remarkably high degree of fusionality is also found in certain Sami languages such as Skolt Sami.



Polysynthetic languages

In 1836, Wilhelm von Humboldt proposed a third category for classifying languages, a category that he labeled "polysynthetic". (The term "polysynthesis" was first used in linguistics by Peter Stephen DuPonceau who borrowed it from chemistry.) These languages have a high morpheme-to-word ratio, a highly regular morphology, and a tendency for verb forms to include morphemes that refer to several arguments besides the subject ("polypersonalism"). Another feature of polysynthetic languages is commonly expressed as "the ability to form words that are equivalent to whole sentences in other languages". Of course, this is rather useless as a defining feature, since it is tautological ("other languages" can only be defined by opposition to polysynthetic ones and vice versa).



Many Amerindian languages are polysynthetic. Inuktitut is one example, for instance, the word-phrase: "tavvakiqutiqarpiit" roughly translates to "Do you have any tobacco for sale?"

Note that no clear division exists between synthetic languages and polysynthetic languages; the place of one language largely depends on its relation to other languages displaying similar characteristics on the same scale.

Morphological typology in reality

Each of the types above is idealizations; they do not exist in a pure state in reality. Although they generally fit best into one category, "all" languages are mixed types. English is synthetic, but it is more analytic than Spanish and much more analytic than Latin. Chinese is the usual model of analytic languages, but it does have some bound morphemes. Japanese is highly synthetic (agglutinative) in its verbs, but clearly analytic in its nouns. For these reasons, the scale above is continuous and relative, not absolute. It is difficult to classify a language as absolutely analytic or synthetic, as a language could be described as more synthetic than Chinese, but less synthetic than Korean.

Morphology is the identification, analysis, and description of the structure of words (words as units in the lexicon are the subject matter of lexicology). While words are generally accepted as being (with clitics) the smallest units of syntax, it is clear that in most (if not all) languages, words can be related to other words by rules. For example, English speakers recognize that the words *dog, dogs*, and *dogcatcher* are closely related. English speakers recognize these relations from their tacit knowledge of the rules of word formation in English. They infer intuitively that *dog* is to *dogs* as *cat* is to *cats*; similarly, *the dog* is to *dogcatcher* as *the dish* is to *the dishwasher*. The rules understood by the speaker reflect specific patterns (or regularities) in the way words are formed from smaller units and how those smaller units interact in speech. In this way, morphology is the branch of linguistics that studies patterns of word formation within and across languages and attempts to formulate rules that model the knowledge of the speakers of those languages.

In linguistics, a morpheme is the smallest grammatical unit in a language. In other words, it is the smallest meaningful unit of a language. A morpheme is not identical to a word, and the principal difference between the two is that a morpheme may or may not stand alone, whereas a word, by definition, is free standing. When it stands by itself, it is considered a root because it has a meaning of its own (e.g. the morpheme *cat*) and when it depends on another morpheme to express an idea, it is an affix because it has a grammatical function (e.g. suffix *–s* in *cats* to indicate that it is plural). Every word comprises one or more morphemes.

General classification of the morpheme according to the role in the word is similar in compared languages. They can be classified as free and bound

morphemes. While in Uzbek and Russian, they are called root and affixed morphemes.

Free morphemes can function independently as words (e.g. *town, dog*) and can appear with other lexemes (e.g. *town hall, doghouse*).

Bound morphemes appear only as parts of words, always in conjunction with a root and sometimes with other bound morphemes. For example, *un- appears* only accompanied by other morphemes to form a word. Most bound morphemes in English are affixes, particularly prefixes and suffixes. Examples of suffixes are *-tion, -ation, -ible, -ing,* etc. Bound morphemes that are not affixes are called cranberry morphemes.

Bound morphemes in the compared languages can be compared as follows:

Bound morpheme		
English	**Russian**	**Uzbek**
Derived	Inflection	Lexical
Inflectional	Prefix	Affixed
	Suffix	Affixoid
	Postfix	
	Interfix	

According to the function of morphemes, they are subdivided into lexeme forming and form forming morphemes in Russian and Uzbek. The main function of lexeme forming morpheme is to form new lexeme from existing one (*бодр-ость, бодр-о; ishchi-, ishla-, ishchan).* Form forming morphemes serve for forming forms of the same word without changing its lexical meaning (*бодр-ый – бодр-ая – бодр-ое; ishchilar, ishchini).*

Allomorphy

In the exposition above, morphological rules are described as analogies between word forms: *the dog* is to *dogs* as *cat* is to *cats,* and as *the dish* is to *dishes*. In this case, the analogy applies both to the form of the words and to their meaning: in each pair, the first word means "one of X", while the second "two or more of X" and the difference is always the plural form *-s* affixed to the second word, signaling the key distinction between singular and plural entities.

One of the largest sources of complexity in morphology is that this one-to-one correspondence between meaning and form scarcely applies to every case in the language. In English, we have word form pairs like *ox/oxen, goose/geese*, and *sheep/sheep*, where the difference between the singular and the plural is signaled in

a way that departs from the regular pattern, or is not signaled at all. Even cases considered "regular", with the final *-s,* are not so simple; *-s* in *dogs* is not pronounced the same way as *-s* in *cats*, and in plural like *dishes*, an "extra" vowel appears before *-s*. These cases, where alternative forms of a "word" effects the same distinction, are called allomorphy.

Comparison of morphological level of the English and Native languages

For a full comparison of the typological characteristic in the category of the number, we have to find out in which place does this category take in the system of another language.

If we take as an example Russian language, we can easily find its characteristic features in numerals, in adjectives, pronouns, verbs. For example: *Я беру, ты берешь, вы береte, etc.*

In comparison with the Russian language, the sememe of the singularity of the English language is presented just with zero morphemes, for example: *town, play*, etc. However the sememe of singularity in Russian represented by morphemes: *-й*, ex: *сарай, край*; *-а, -я* ex: *река*; *-о,-е* ex: *окно*. But plurality in both languages can be represented with the sememe of the plurality by adding endings *–ы, -и, -а* for Russian and *–s, -es* for English.

In both languages, there are a lot of groups that are representatives of the sememe of plurality. Some of them are alike in both languages. Ex: *ножницы-scissors, брюки-trousers, весы-scales, очки-glasses*

In general English plurality model can be divided into 3 variants:

N-N+(e)s ex*: cup-cups, assistant-assistants, face-faces, photo-photos*

N-N+en ex: *ox-oxen, child-children*

N-Npl (with the changes of vowels in roots) ex: *man-men, foot-feet, mouse-mice, etc.*

In Uzbek suffix *–lar* may represent not only plurality but other meanings as well.

Ex: respect: *Hamid aka keldilarmi?*

Approximate time: *Soat o'nlarda kelish kerak.*

Besides that, it can express the meanings such as superlative, collective, irony and type.

Questions for self-control:

1. The morphological level is one of the main parts of language hierarchy. Prove it.
2. Can you explain the problem of typological classification in Linguistics?
3. What is the structural difference between analytical and synthetic languages?

4. Characterize 4 types of languages according to typologicall classification.
5. Compare English Russian and Uzbek morphemic structure
6. Is your native language analytical or synthetic? Prove it.

RecommendedLiteratures:

1. Аракин В.Д.Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков. Ленинград, 1979.
2. Буранов Ж.Б. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков. М, 1983.
3. Рождественский Ю.В. Типология слова. М, 1969.
4. Sh. Rakhmatullaev. Hozirgiadabiy o'zbek tili (darslik). Universitet. T, 2006.

3.2. Typology of parts of speech in English and Native Languages

A part of speech is a category of words (or, more generally, of lexical items) which have similar grammatical properties. Words that are assigned to the same part of speech generally display similar behavior in terms of syntax—they play similar roles within the grammatical structure of sentences—and sometimes in terms of morphology, in that they undergo inflection for similar properties.In grammar, a **part of speech** (also called **lexical categories, grammatical categories or word classes**) is a linguistic category of words.

According to their meaning, morphological characteristics and syntactical functions, words fall under certain classes called parts of speech. We distinguish between notional and structural parts of speech in English.

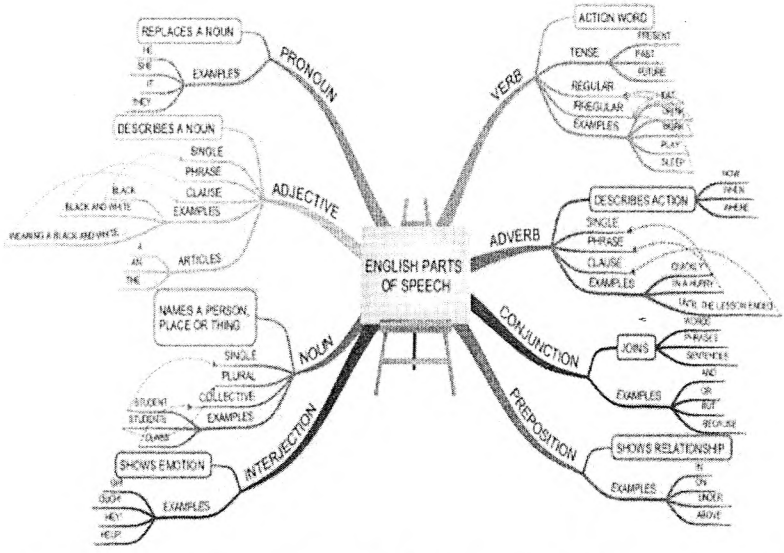
The notional parts of speech perform certain functions in the sentence. The notional parts of speech are:

1. noun
2. adjective
3. pronoun
4. numeral
5. verb
6. adverb
7. words of the category of state
8. modal words

9. interjection

The structural parts of speech either express relations between words or sentences or emphasize the meaning of words or sentences. They never perform any independent function in the sentence. Here belong:

1. preposition
2. conjunction
3. particle
4. article



Parts of speech in Russian and Uzbek are subdivided according to the grammatical meaning, group of morphological features and syntactic role in the sentence.

Grammatical meaning is the most generalized meaning inherent in the whole class of words. More subtle differences in meaning reflect ranks in importance, which are allocated to one or another part of speech. For example, let's take a noun as an example.

Grammatical meaning of the noun - "subject". It is expressed in other words, to answer the questions: *Who? What?*

Examples: *Who? What? - Leg, lamp, son, Moscow, gold, silver, nobility, young people, good, greed.*

These words, of course, convey different meanings: concrete and abstract, real, collective, private. For morphology, it is important that these differences are expressed in the value at the morphological level. For example, most nouns with a particular value are usually singular and plural: *foot - feet*, and all the rest - only one form, either singular or plural: *Moscow* (private) - singular, *gold* (real), *the nobility* (collective) - plural, *good* (abstract) – singular. But all these words are one class. They answer some questions, which distinguish them from other classes of words, for example, verbs answer the question: *What to do?* and express the grammatical meaning of "action": *to walk, jump, laugh, fight, learn.*

Morphological features - these are the characteristics of the grammatical nature of words. For morphology it is important to be known:

- do the words change or not,
- which forms sets have words,
- what inflections these forms are expressed
- what do these forms express.

Some morphological characteristics are common in several parts of speech, such as deaths, others peculiar to only one class of words, such as time. The same feature can be immutable, constant for any class of words and change in others, such as race. Each part of speech is a set of morphological traits. Not knowing them, it is impossible to produce a morphological analysis of the words and understand what unites words in one part of speech and distinguishes them from other parts of speech.

The syntactic role in the sentence - it is the role of a certain class of words plays in a sentence. Important:

- whether the word member suggestions
- what is its role in the grammatical device offers.

According to these main three characteristics, parts of speech in Russian are subdivided into primary, secondary parts of speech and interjections.

Primary parts of speech are:

1. Noun
2. Adjective
3. Numeral
4. Pronoun
5. Verb
6. Adverb.

Secondary (bound) parts of speech are:

1. Preposition
2. Conjunction
3. Particle

Interjections are:

1. Interjections
2. imitative words.

Classification of parts of speech in Uzbek is almost the same as in Russian. It also classified according to three main features of words such as semantic, morphological and syntactic characteristics.

Currently, in modern Uzbek, there are 12 parts of speech and they are subdivided into primary, secondary and interjections.

Primary parts of speech are:

1. Noun
2. Adjective
3. Numeral
4. Pronoun
5. Verb
6. Adverb.

Secondary (bound) parts of speech are:

1. Postposition
2. Conjunction
3. Particle

Interjections are:

1. Modal words
2. Interjection
3. Onomatopoeia (Imitative words).

Main characteristics of primary parts of speech are that they have lexical and grammatical meanings and can be expressed as any part of the sentence. While secondary parts of speech do not have such features like expressing lexical meaning, they do not have morphological changing and forming system and cannot express as a part of a sentence. They serve for connecting the sentences, expressing additional meaning for them, depending on words to each. Modal words, exclamations, and imitative words are unlike primary and secondary parts of speech in their functions.

As it is seen from the lists there is no article and the words of the category of state in Russian and Uzbek, no modal words in Russian. Functions of prepositions and postposition of the compared languages can be considered similar to each other with different naming.

Moreover, the singular form of English, Russian and Uzbek nouns has zero morpheme. We add suffix in all three languages in order to make a plural form. The adjectives in both languages have the category of degree. These features can be observed in all compared languages. At the same time we also can see some distinctive features of parts of speech in these languages like English that have root exchange in formation plural form: *woman – women, tooth – teeth*, English that also have root exchange in forming degrees (or irregular adjectives) of adjectives: *good – better – the best*, in Uzbek we have suffix *–лар* which means respect for adults: *онамлар* and so on.

It should be noted that classification of parts of speech is considered as problematic in all compared languages. Therefore, there are different approaches in classifying them into the groups.

Questions for self-control:

1. Give the definition of the term "parts of speech" in Linguistics.
2. Why do linguists name parts of speech as primary grammatical categories?
3. Who suggested this term?
4. Analyze different approaches to classification of parts of speech.What do you think about it? Give your own opinion.
5. What is the main criterion for uniting words into one and the same part of speech?
6. Different approaches to classification of parts of speech.
7. What parts of speech are there in English, Uzbek and Russian?
8. Reveal similarities and differences.
9. The problem of interference in foreign language teaching acquisition (Morphological level).

Recommended Literature:

1. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков. Ленинград, 1979.
2. Буранов Ж.Б. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков. М, 1983.
3. Рождественский Ю.В. Типология слова. М, 1969.
4. Sh. RakhmatullaevHozirgiadabiyo'zbektili (darslik). Universitet. T, 2006.

3.3. Typology of Grammatical Categories in English, Uzbek and Russian Languages

Grammatical category is a system opposed to each other grammatical forms with similar values. Members of the same grammatical category are the general grammatical meaning and differ in connotation.

Grammatical categories are subdivided into morphological and syntactic. Among the morphological categories are distinguished, for example, the following kind of grammatical categories, tense, mood, person, gender, number, case; consistent expression of these categories are characterized by the whole grammatical word classes (parts of speech).

Grammatical categories in different languages with a strong word formation, i.e. such members can be represented by the forms of the same word within its paradigm (for example, in the Russian language - the tense, the number of the verb; number, case, gender of the noun; degrees of comparison of adjectives).

Word changing, i.e.such members can not be represented by forms of the same word (for example, in the Russian language - the genus and animateness/inanimateness nouns).

Also, grammatical categories are distinguished as:

They revealed syntactically (relational), i.e. pointing especially to the combinability of the forms as part of the phrase or sentence (for example, in the Russian language - gender, case)

- non-syntactical detected (referential, nominative), i.e. expressed primarily different semantic abstraction, abstracted from properties,
- connections and relationships extralinguistic reality (for example, in the Russian language - the kind of time)

Such grammatical categoryas for example, the number or the person can combine features of both these types.

According to Dr. Buranov, grammatical categories can be divided into two:

- grammatical macrocategories or primary grammatical categories (the term suggested by Aristotle);
- grammatical microcategories orsecondary grammatical categories (the term suggested by Aristotle).

Parts of speech or lexico-grammatic classes of words are primary grammatical categories.

As it is known classification of parts of speech in compared languages can be identified according to the following features of lexemes:

- lexical and grammatical meaning
- generalization of morphologic forms for certain word groups

➢ according to the function of words in the sentences.

Every word of a certain part of speech has its own morphological forms, these forms contain morphological paradigm and can be connected with certain grammatical categories. For instance, in English the inflection –s can represent acategory of number and –ed of the verb can represent tense category and etc [Buranov, 1973, 101].

Secondary grammatical categories are the units of grammatical meaning and grammatical forms.

Any grammatical category (the category of gender, category number, category of case, etc.) in each word has a specific content. For example, the category of gender, a noun category, in the words of the *книга (book)* reveals that this noun is a feminine noun in Russian; category or type, for example, the verb *рисовать (to draw)* has specific content - a verb imperfective. These meanings of words are called **grammatical meanings**. Therefore, every word can have a number of grammatical meanings, for example, in the Russian verb *бежал* the following grammatical meanings can be observed: past tense meaning, singular, the masculine category of gender, unfinished form.

Grammatical meanings are expressed by a specific means of language. For example, the meaning of the 1st person singular of the Russian verb *пишу* is expressed by the ending *-у*, and the general meaning of the instrumental case of the word *лесом* is expressed by th ending ***-ом.***These expressions of grammatical meanings with external language means called **grammatical forms**. Consequently, the form of the word is a variation of the same word, differentiated from each other with grammatical meanings. Beyond the grammatical form, there is no grammatical meaning. Grammatical meanings can be expressed not only by morphological changes of words but also by means of other words, with which it is associated in the sentence. For example, in the Russian sentences*Он купил пальто* and *Он был в пальто* the form of the word *пальто (coat*) is the same, but in the first case it has the grammatical meaning of the accusative case, and in the second - the prepositional. These meanings are formed with different connections of the word with other words in the sentence.

Moreover, according to the structure grammatical forms can be subdivided into synthetic form and analytical form.

The main difference between synthetic form and analytical form is that synthetic forms can be formed with the help of affixal grammatic morphemes (like morphemes of aspect, tense, mood, voice, person, number and perfect categories) while analytic forms are formed with link verbs.

In the following examples of comparison of secondary grammatical categories, grammatical meaning and grammatical forms can be identified.

In English, Russian and Uzbek languages, plurality is the category of the noun, pronoun, and verb, which means a great number of something or someone. For example, *these books are interesting – бу китоблар қизиқарли – эти книги интересны.*

All compared languages have some nouns, which are never used in plural form such as *love, friendship, hate – любовь, дружба – муҳаббат, дўстлик.*

The verbs of compared languages are able to indicate the plurality.

English	**Russian**	**Uzbek**
She is beautiful. They are beautiful.	Он пошёл в школу. Дети пошли в школу.	Бола мактабга борди. Болалар мактабга боришди.

Nevertheless, in English and Russian indefinite pronouns *some, any* and their *derivatives* don't have plural forms. But in Uzbek they have.

English	**Russian**	**Uzbek**
somebody anything	кто-то что-нибудь	кимлардир, аллакимлар алланималар

In English, some borrowed words keep their original plural forms. But in Russian and Uzbek borrowed words follow the rules of making plurality.

English	**Russian**	**Uzbek**
phenomenon – phenomena datum – data	Феномен – феномены Компьютер – компьютеры	Стол – столлар Компьютер – компьютерлар

Although, in English, there are nouns which form the meaning of plurality by changing the root vowel. But in Russian and Uzbek there is no such phenomenon. This feature can be considered as a distinctive feature of English plural form of the category of plurality *(man- men, woman – women, foot – feet, ox – oxen and etc.).*Moreover, in English and Russian, there are also some nouns, which have only the plural form (spectacles, trousers, scissors - очки, брюки, ножницы), and they are not characterized in Uzbek. Thus, they can be considered as similarity in English and Russian and as distinctive feature in comparison with Uzbek.

Therefore, typology of grammatical categories of the languages can serve in identifying language universals and at the same time to clarify their distinctive peculiarities. These phenomena can be helpful in the deep understanding of any language and teach them as a foreign language as well as in translation processes too.

Questions for self-control:

1. Who is the founder of morphological typology?
2. What grammatical categories of noun do you know in compared languages?
3. Characterize them and reveal their similarities and differences.
4. What grammatical categories of the verb do you know in compared languages?
5. Characterize them and reveal their similarities and differences in compared languages.
6. The problem of interference in foreign language teaching acquisition (Morphological level).

Recommended literature:

1. Yusupov U.K. Contrastive Linguistics of the English and Uzbek languages. Tashkent, 2013.
2. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков. Ленинград, 1979.
3. Буранов Ж.Б. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков. М, 1983.
4. Буранов Ж.Б. Инглиз ва ўзбек тиллари қиёсий грамматикаси. Т, 1973.
5. Мухитдинова Х., Худойберганова Д., Умиров И., Жиянов Н., Юсупова Т. Ҳозирги ўзбек адабий тили Т., 2004.

Topics for self-study

1. Classification of languages according to their morphological structure
2. Agglutinative languages
3. Comparative - historical method
4. Flexional languages
5. Morphological structure of a word
6. Typology of Parts of Speech

LIST OF THE KEY WORDS OF UNDERSTANDING THE COURSE OF COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY OF ENGLISH AND NATIVE LANGUAGES

Typology of morphological level of English and Native Languages

1. **Morphology** is the main part of grammar that studies parts of speech, their categories and word systems.

2. **Morphological level** studies the smallest meaningful unit of a language – morpheme. The term m o r p h e m e is derived from Greek morphe 'form' + -eme.The Greek suffix -erne has been adopted by linguists to denote the smallest significant or d i s t i n c t i v e u n i t.

3. **Morphological typology** is a way of classifying the languages of the world that groups languages according to their common morphological structures.

4. **Analytic languages** show a low ratio of morphemes to words; in fact, the correspondence is nearly one-to-one. Sentences in analytic languages are composed of independent root morphemes.

5. **Synthetic languages** form words by **affixing** a given number of dependent morphemes to a root morpheme.

6. Due to the presence and absence of word forms (prefixes, infixes, suffixes) languages are divided into those, which have affixes, and those, which do not have them.

7. Language that does not have affixes is called **Isolate:** Chinese, Japanese.

8. When a word is a whole sentence, this type is called **Polysynthetic** (American-Indian languages). These languages have a high morpheme-to-word ratio, a highly regular morphology, and the tendency for verb forms to include morphemes that refer to several arguments besides the subject.

9. **Agglutinative languages** have words containing several morphemes that are always clearly differentiable from one another in that each morpheme represents only one grammatical meaning and the boundaries between those morphemes are easily demarcated; that is, the bound morphemes are affixes, and they may be individually identified.

10. Morphemes in **fusional languages** are not readily distinguishable from the root or among themselves. Several grammatical bits of meaning may be fused into one affix. Morphemes may also be expressed by internal phonological changes in the root (i.e. morphophonology), such as consonant gradation and vowel gradation, or by suprasegmental features such as stress or tone, which are of course inseparable from the root.

11. The term **grammatical category** is based on grammar. It means the combination of the meaning and its form. (eg. Work+s =works / cat.of tense).

12. The term "morphology" is a Greek word ("morphe" – a form and "logos" a word/science.

13. A morpheme which has bilateral phenomenon – the form and its meaning is the main unit of the morphological level.

14. V.V.Humboldt was the founder of morphological typology.

15. The noun is a word expressing substance in the widest sense. The concept substance includes the names of living beings, lifeless things, abstract notions and etc.

16. The noun has the category of number – singular and plural.

17. Nouns have two cases in English, six in Uzbek and Russian.

18. Nouns have agrammatical category of gender in Russian but not in English and Uzbek.

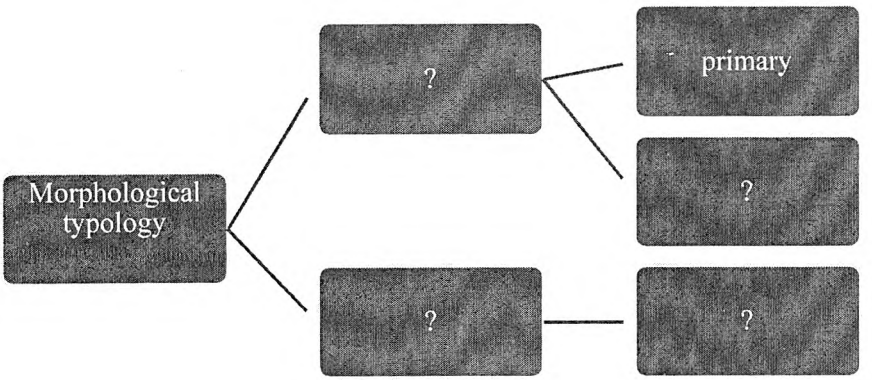
Seminar 5

Typology of morphological level of English and Native Languages

▶Classroom activities

Exercise #1. Complete the diagram with the words in the box and describe it to the group.

Morphological typology, typological classification of languages, grammatical categories, features of thesynthetic relation of words, grammatical categories, primary, secondary.



Exercise #2. Pair work. Work on the following topics in pairs. Share with group your analysis and understanding.

Different viewpoints in typological classification

Difference between analytic and synthetic language categories

Four types of world languages due to morphological classification

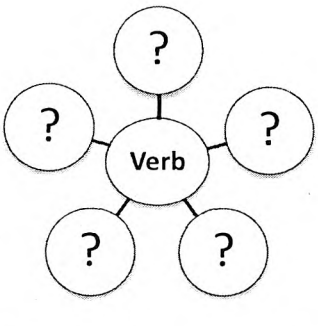
Difference between agglutinative and fusional languages

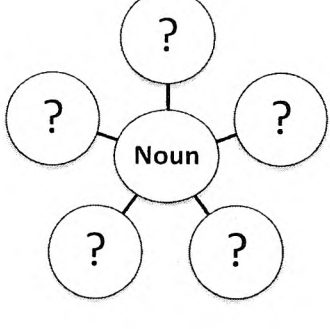
Identifying difference between isolating and polysynthetic languages

Comparison of parts of speech in compared languages

►Home activities

Exercise #3. Brainstorming. Choose one primary part of speech. Clarify its secondary grammatical categories and make acomparison with their Native languages. Find out differences and similarities among them.



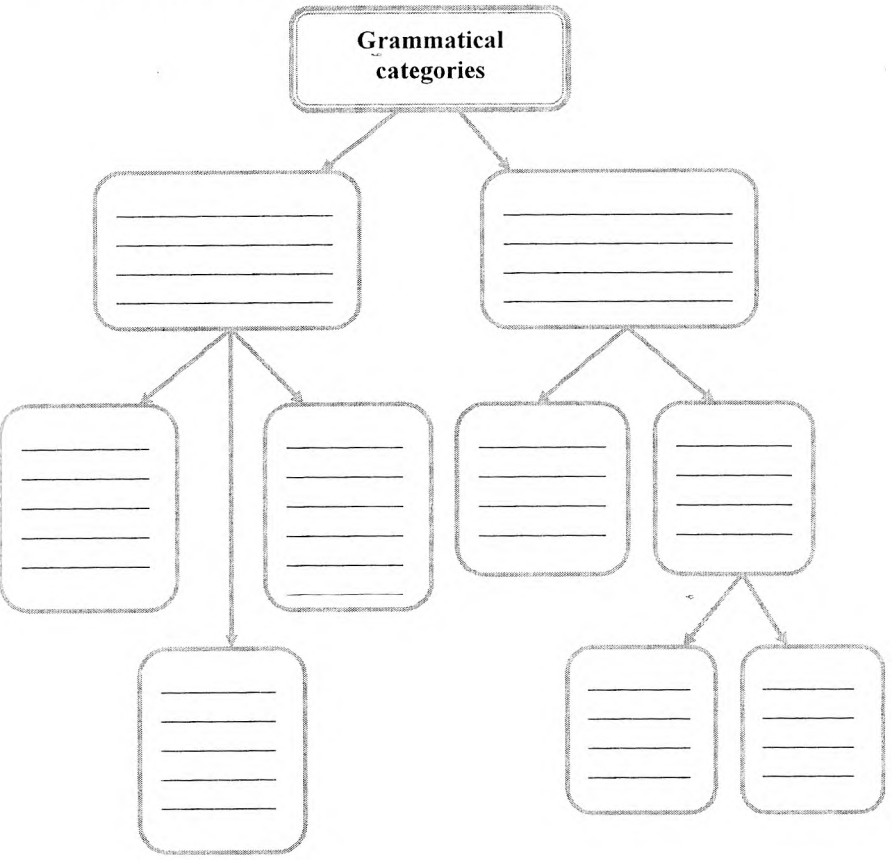


Exercise #4. Answer the questions.

1. What do you understand by grammatical categories?
2. What do you know about its subdivisions?
3. Give examples from different languages that you know.

► Activities for self-improvement

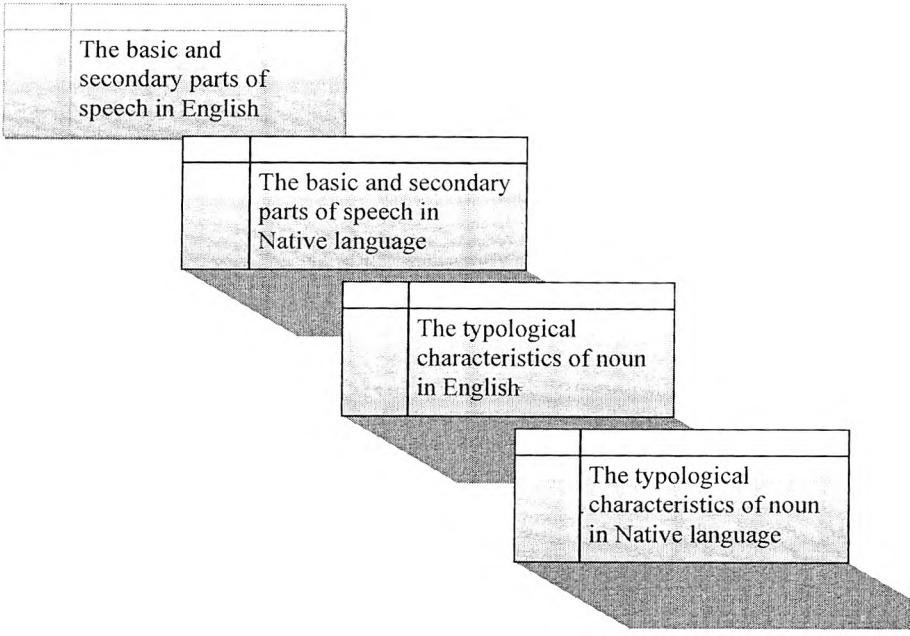
Exercise #1. Complete the following chart with the divisions of grammatical categories according to professor Buranov.



Seminar 6
Typology of morphological level of English and Native Languages

►Classroom activities

Exercise #1. Round table discussion. Divide into four groups and discuss these problems in groups. In 10 minutes, present your topic, after all, make an overall conclusion.



Exercise #2. Work in pairs. Give a definition to the terms. Then compare your definitions with the group. The first one is done as an example:

a) **Morphological typology** *is a way of classifying the languages of the world that groups languages according to their common morphological structures.*

b) **Analytic languages** _____

_____

_____

c) **Synthetic languages** _____

_____

_____

d) **Agglutinative languages** _____

_____

_____

e) **Fusional languages** _____

_____

_____

f) **Polysynthetic languages** _____

_____

_____

Exercise #3. a) Complete the prefix box with proper words.

Un- **(not)** **Ex: Unhappy**	**Mis-** **(wrong)** **Ex:**	**Re-** **(do it again)** **Ex: Redo**	**Pre-** **(before)** **Ex:**

b) Go round the class and add by one word from your classmates.

► Home activities

Exercise#1. Circle the right answer.

1. **How many types of categories of grammar may be?**
   a) Three
   b) One
   c) Two

2. **Find the difference between primary and secondary categories of grammar.**
   a) Secondary grammar categories study number, case, gender for nouns, tense, voice, aspect, mood, person, degrees of comparison for adjectives and so on and primary grammar categories study synthetic relations between words.
   b) primary grammatical categories deal with parts of speech, whereas secondary grammatical categories deal with within every part of speech separately
   c) None

3. **What is a morpheme?**
   a) the units of themorphological level
   b) grammatical category within every part of speech
   c) an association of a given meaning with a given sound pattern

4. **Find right parts of words *sportive* and *elegant.***
   a) sport, sportive; elegant: eleg-, -ive, -ant
   b) sport, sportive; elegant, elegative
   c) sport, sportive; elegant, eleg.

5. **Who developed first the morphological typology?**
   a) Wilhelm von Humboldt
   b) Peter Stephen Du Ponceau
   c) brothers Fredrick von Schlechel and August von Schlechel

Exercise #2. Read the statements below and choose whether they are True or False.

1. _____ Morphological typology studies the units of the morphological syntactic level.
2. _____ Morphological typology is a way of classifying the languages of the world that groups languages according to their common morphological structures.

3. _____ Morphemes occur in speech only independently, not as constituent parts of words.
4. _____ Brothers Friedrich von Schlechel and August von Schlechel distinguished two types of languages which form words by combining morphemes.
5. _____ In analytic languages grammatical categories are not indicated by word order or by bringing in additional words.
6. _____ Synthetic languages form words by affixing a given number of dependent morphemes to a root morpheme.
7. _____ In synthetic languages context and syntax are more important than morphology.
8. _____ Agglutinative languages tend to have a high number of morphemes per word, and their morphology is highly regular.
9. _____ Wilhelm von Humboldt proposed a third category for classifying languages, a category that he labeled "fusional".
10. _____ A feature of polysynthetic languages is commonly expressed as "the ability to form words that are equivalent to whole sentences in other languages".

►Activities for self-improvement

Exercise #1. Distinguish the difference between meaning and form of grammar. Support your ideas with examples comparing them to different languages.

Grammatical meaning

English	Russian	Uzbek

Grammatical forms

English	Uzbek	Russian

Test yourself on Typology of morphological level of English and Native Languages

1. According to the relations of elements, languages are classified into…
a) Flexional, Agglutinative, Polysynthetic, Monosynthetic
b) Agglutinative, Flexional, Isolating, Polysynthetic
c) Polysynthetic, Flexional, Non-flexional, Isolating
d) Isolating, Non-agglutinative, Polyflexional, Polysenthetic

2. Category of plurality can be expressed in Modern English by…
a) Morphological means, Phono-morphological
b) Syntactic means, Lexical
c) Morphological means, Syntactic means, Phono-morphological, Lexical
d) Phono-morphological, Lexical

3. Choose the right answer:
a) Gender is a lexical-grammatical category
b) Gender is used to denote biological notions
c) Gender is a lexical-grammatical category. Sex is used to denote biological notions and it is usually used for animate objects
d) Sex is usually used for animate objects

4. Choose the variant with grammatical category of gender
a) Very big house
b) пожилой мужчина

c) Her beautiful face
d) Гўзал актриса

5. Primary grammatical categories are…
a) The category of gender
b) Verbal categories
c) Parts of speech
d) Degrees of comparison

6. Secondary grammatical categories are…
a) Noun
b) Verb
c) Categories within every part of speech
d) Article

7. Choose the correct answer with the category of plurality that is expressed by morphological means

a) boy - boys
b) much milk
c) class - people
d) foot – feet

8. Where the category of plurality is expressed by phono-morphological means…
a) Class – people
b) tooth – teeth
c) Girl - girls
d) a lot of students

9. Where the category of plurality is expressed by syntactic means…
a) Goose – geese
b) flower - flowers
c) class – people
d) A lot of English books

10. Traditional grammatical categories consist of:
a) Grammatical categorization
b) Grammatical form and grammatical meaning

c) Analysis and synthesis
d) Grammatical analysis

11. What are the types of languages due to typological classification?
a) Isolating, polysynthetic, agglutinative, flexional
b) Diachronic and synchronic
c) Polysynthetic, isolating, agglutinative, flexional
d) Isolating, agglutinative

12. What is the type of language that is characterized by the absence of inflections and affixational morphemes expressing word relations?
a) Isolating
b) Agglutinative
c) Flexional
d) Polysynthatic

13. What language has non-developed morphology?
a) Uzbek
b) Latin
c) English
d) Chinese

14. What languages does dual number exist in?
a) Sanscrit, Greek, Old English
b) Modern English, French, Uzbek
c) Russian, German, Chinese
d) English, Chinese, French

15. What are genetically differently related languages given below?
a) Russian and Uzbek
b) English and Russian
c) Uzbek and Kazakh
d) Kirgiz and Russian

TOPICS FOR PRESENTATIONS

Typology of morphological system

1. Defining morphological level of language.

2. Different viewpoints (approaches) on thetypological classification of languages.
3. Four types of world languages due to typological classification.
4. The problem of parts of speech in compared languages.
5. Comparison of English, Russian and Uzbek morpheme structure.
6. The problem of typological classification in Comparative Typology.
7. The understanding structural difference between analytic and synthetic languages.

Comparison of morphological level

1. Types of morphological typology.
2. Criteria classifying words to parts of speech.
3. The primary and secondary parts of speech in English and Native languages.
4. Comparison of the primary and secondary grammatical categories.
5. Typology of thenoun in English and Native languages.
6. Typology of secondary grammatical categories of Verb in compared languages.
7. Comparison of primary parts of speech in English and Native languages.
8. Comparison of the category of case in English and Native languages.
9. Typology of adjective and its categories in English and Native languages.
10. Typology of pronouns in English and Native languages.
11. Typology of thecategory of voice in English and Native languages.
12. Typology of thecategory of plurality in English and Native languages.

IV. Typology of syntactic level of English and Native languages

Key points for discussion:

- Definition of syntax.
- Classification of syntactic level
- Typology of English, Russian and Uzbek syntactic level.

The syntax of a language studies the units more complicated than the word. These are the phrase (word-combination) and the sentence, their combinations, types, structures of sentences and parts of the sentences.

The Syntactic typology is engaged into a comparison of syntactic level units. The basic units for comparison are the phrase and the sentence. Depending on the character of research the Syntactic typology may fall into several sections: comparison of units of a word-combination, the level of the sentence, as well as comparison of units of various levels with regards to their syntactic functioning. The Syntactic typology usually compares languages on the basis of a transformational syntax.

Phrase is a combination of two or more notional words syntactically related to each other and having a nominative function. It is the smallest speech pattern and consists of two notional words which are grammatically and lexically connected to each other. Phrases, like words, denote objects, phenomena, action or process. However, unlike words, they represent them as complicated phenomena.

A sentence is an integral unit of speech having a communicative purpose; it expresses a statement, a question or inducement. The sentence expresses predication, i.e. shows whether the event is real or unreal, desirable or obligatory, stated as truth or asked about, etc. The sentence can consist of one or several notional words. In Uzbek the sentence is characterized as a smallest communicative unit with the following features:

- it has predication which consists of modality and time. It may have the meanings of person and number;
- it is addressed to a hearer;
- it has a new information;
- it has the speaker's intention;
- it is related to certain speech situation;

➢ it has definite intonation.

Phrases and sentences are universal linguistic phenomena. Their structures can be used as a basis for typological comparison.

For identifying the type of a phrase, the following criteria have been established:

a) the type of syntactical connection in a phrase;

b) the means of expressing the syntactical connection;

c) the position of the elements of the phrase.

The elements of a phrase can be syntactically **equal or unequal**. In the former case, neither of the elements modifies the other. We can change their position without any change of meaning. Such combinations are called equipotent. For example: father and son; son and father.

If the elements are syntactically unequal, one of them modifies the other. The principal element is called the "kernel" or "head word". The subordinate element is called "the adjunct". Their respective positions are different for different types of phrases and different languages. Such phrases are called *dominational.*

The connections between the elements of a dominational phrase can be further grouped into:

predicative	attributive	objective	adverbial
the combination of the subject and the predicate of a sentence	the combination of a noun with its attribute expressed by an adjective or a noun	the combination of a verb with a subordinate element expressed by a noun, pronoun or a verbal	the combination of a verb and an adverbial modifier or the combination of an adjective or an adverb and the subordinate element expressed by an adverb
e.g. the train arrived	e.g. an emerald ring; a woman of strong character	e.g. to read the book; to read it; to decide to stay	e.g. to talk quickly; extremely quick; extremely quickly

These syntactic connections can be formally expressed in different ways:

Government. The form of the adjunct is influenced by the head-word. (e.g. позвала брата; сказать брату)

Agreement. The kernel and the adjunct have the same number, gender, case, person (e.g. большая комната, в большой комнате).

Contact. The elements are combined with one another by sheer contact, without the help of any grammatical forms. (e.g. бежать быстро)

The adjunct can be in **pre-position** or **in post-position** to the head-word.E.g. a health certificate; справка о здоровье.

The typology of the sentence has been investigated nearly as closely as the typology of the morphological structure. The first scholar who made a considerable contribution to this part of typology was I.I. Mestchaninov. He created a new typological classification of languages based on their syntactic structure, mainly on the typology of sentences.He classifies the languages into **nominative, ergative** and **passive.** They are considered too general. For example, according to his classification, isolating, agglutinational and inflexional languages all belong to the nominative type.

Such characteristics were supplied by Vladimir Skalichka. According to him, fixed word order is characteristic of agglutinational and isolating types. The former has the Subject - Object - Predicate word order, and the latter has the Subject - Predicate - Object word order. In inflexional languages, word order is not fixed, but the most common variant is Subject - Predicate - Object.

Skalichka's typology is more detailed but it has also been criticized. Linguists have pointed out that some of the inflexional languages have fixed word order (e.g. Persian, Armenian) and it is similar to the word order of agglutinational languages.

Another typology of the sentence was set up by Joseph Greenberg. He based it on three criteria:

- the existence of prepositions or postpositions;
- the word order of declarative sentences;
- the position of attributes expressed by adjectives.

J. Greenberg classified about 30 languages. He found only three variants of word order: S+P+O, S+O+P, P+S+O.

According to Greenberg's classification, the English and Russian languages belong to the group having prepositions, adjectives in preposition to nouns and SPO word order. But Uzbek language belongs to an inflectional group of languages and SOV word order.

At the same time, the facts of the languages show that these languages are not identical in their syntactic structure. There is evidently need for more subtle syntactic classifications.

Questions for self-control:

1. What is the object of Syntactic Typology?
2. What basic unitsfor comparison in Syntactic Typology do you know?
3. Give the definition of thr term "sentence"
4. How can the sentence be characterized in the syntax of compared languages? (I. I. Mestchaninov, V. Skalichka, and J.Greenberg's viewpoints).
5. Characterize and compare types of syntactic relations in English, Uzbek and Russianlanguages.
5. The problem of interference in foreign language teaching acquisition (Syntactic level).

Recommended literature:

1. Yusupov U.K. Contrastive Linguistics of the English and Uzbek languages. Tashkent, 2013.
2. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков. Ленинград, 1979.
3. Буранов Ж.Б. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков. М, 1983.
4. МухитдиноваХ., ХудойбергановаД., УмировИ., ЖияновН., ЮсуповаТ. Ҳозиргиўзбекадабийтилиҭ., 2004.

4.1. Typology of a word combination/phrase in English and Native languages

Key points for discussion:

- Definitions of word combinations/phrases in compared languages
- Structure and classification of word combinations of English, Russian and Uzbek languages.
- Criteria of connection of words in word combinations.

The definition given by the scholar Ilyish to the phrase ("every combination of two or more words which is a grammatical unit but is not an analytical form of some word") leaves no doubt as to its equivalence to the term "word combination".

The word combination, along with the sentence, is the main syntactic unit. The smallest word combination consists of two members, whereas the largest word combination may theoretically be indefinitely large though this issue has not yet

been studied properly. In Russian, it is described as non-communicative units served for theconcretization of object naming, actions, features and etc. In Uzbek it is defined as awider conception than a word, expressing description of object and action and even identifying the object of theaction. Distinctively, as a substitution of word expressed with word combinations is called descriptive expressions (тасвирийифода) in Uzbek. Descriptive expressions are used for clarification of word meaning, making the text more literary, and avoiding repetition. They basically exist in nouns. E.g., *пахта – оқ олтин (cotton – white gold), нефть – қора олтин (oil – black gold), маккажўхори – дала маликаси (corn – queen of field).*

According to the structure, word combinations are divided into:

English	**Simple** all elements are obligatory	**Expanded** to read and translate the text – expanded elements are equal in rank	**Extended** a word takes a dependent element and this dependent element becomes the head for another word: *a beautiful flower – a very beautiful flower*
Russian	**Simple** (two notional words) *белый плащ, готовиться к поездке*	**Complex** (three and more notional words) *очень старый плащ, готовится к завтрашней поездке*	-
Uzbek	**Simple** (consists of two notional words) *оқ қоғоз, кўм-кўк осмон*	**Complex** *(consists of extending the members of simple word combination) осмондаги уч ўрдак, ҳаммадан аълочи ўқувчи*	-

In compared languages combinations of words can be classified according to the type of syntagmatic relations as follows:

English	Coordinate *you and me*	Subordinate *to see a house, a nice dress*	Predicative *him coming, for him to come*
Russian	Syntacticallyfree*вы сокий дом, идти в школу.*	Syntacticallybound*m ри сестры, анютины глазки.*	-
Uzbek	Independent *китоб ва дафтар.*	Dependent *опамнинг китоби.*	-

As it is seen in the table above there are some differences in classifying and naming the word combinations in compared languages. In independent relation, words have equal independent meaning. On the contrary, in dependent relations words are divided into thehead (kernel) element (word) and adjunct. In this kind of combinations, one of the words clarifies and fulfils another word.

Word combinations with the head element are represented by word groups that form a grammatically organized structure with one element sub-ordinate to the other element. The subordinating element is called the head of the word combination. In the following examples, the head elements are underlined: green leaves, to type a letter, quite simple. According to the head element word combinations have the following types in compared languages:

English → noun-phrases – *a cup of tea,* verb-phrases – *to run fast, to see a house,* adjective phrases – *good for you,* adverbial phrases – *so quickly,* pronoun phrases – *something strange, nothing to do.*

Russian → verbphrase - *прыгатьчерезверёвочку, бегалподвору,* adverbialphrase - *совсемблизко,наединестобой,* nominal phrase: substantial - *красноепальто, столстумбочкой,* adjective - *почтисерьёзный, полныйсомнения, красныйотнатуги,* pronoun - *кто-нибудьизнас, ястоварищем,* quantitative - *одинизнас, второйпопорядку.*

Uzbek→ verb phrase – *вазифани бажармоқ, тез ўқиш,*nominal phrase: noun phrase – *кенг дала,* adjective phrase – *тухумдан кичик,*quantitative phrase – *одамларнинг бири,* pronoun phrase – *ўқувчиларнинг ҳаммаси.*

Types of dependent relation in Russian and Uzbek languages can be in three types: agreement, government, and adjoining (contact).

Agreement is not often found in Modern English, but it is widely used in Modern Russian and Uzbek. The agreement is agreeing with thehead word and dependent word in number and person (this room-these rooms, that room-those rooms, I have a book-he has a book). Agreement in Modern Russian is found in such grammatical categories as gender, number, case, and person, and in Uzbek only in person and number: 1) Full forms of adjectives in Russian agree with corresponding nouns in gender, number and case *(широкий залив, широкая река,*

широкое озеро – gender; *широкий залив – широкого залива* – case; *широкий залив – широкие заливы* – number). In theplural, no agreement in gender is observed (широкие заливы – no gender). 2) Short forms of adjective do not agree in case. In singular they agree in gender, number *(город красив, площадь красива – gender; город красив – города красивы – number).* In Plural they agree only in number. Cardinal-numerals in case *(пяти домов, пятью домами).* Verbs in Future and Present Tenses agree in number and person *(ученик пишет, ученики пишут).*In Uzbek, only two combinations can be connected in agreement: predicative and possessive connection. The predicative connection consists of subject and predicate and considered as a sentence. In this relation subject and predicate should be in same person and number *(мен келдим, сиз келдингиз, у келди)*; in possessive connection, the head word is expressed with possessive inflection, thedependent word takes inflection of genitive case *(бизнинг китобимиз, менинг китобим, Навоий газали).*

Government is a variety of syntactical connection in accordance with which the use of the oblique case is dependent upon the grammatical meaning of the head word. The governmentcan be found in all compared languages ERU. In English government is used to join together 2 nouns: the noun-attribute usually is used in the possessive case. *(A boy's book – boys' books, a day's holiday, an hour's absence).* Government is used in verbal combinations where the object is expressed by a personal pronoun *(Believe me, help him).*The prepositional government is more frequently used in English*(to rely on him, to depend upon him).* The verb governments through the preposition. In Russian governing words may be expressed by different parts of speech: 1) by a noun *(крыло птицы);* 2) by an adjective *(склонный к шуткам);* 3) by a numeral *(двадцать деревьев);* 4) by a pronoun *(кто-то из братьев);* 5) by an Infinitive *(поливать улицу);* 6) by an adverb *(жарко от солнца).* A noun or a noun-equivalent usually expresses governed words *(извлекать полезное, уважение к старшим).* In accordance with the part of speech the governing word belongs to, government in Russian is subdivided into: substantial *(осмотр здания – gen. case),*adjectival *(интересный для зрителя – gen. case with a prep.),* adverbial *(делать весело, ему приятно),* verbal *(осматривать здание* – accusative case, *доверить врагу* – dative case). In Uzbek according to the expression of thehead word government can be called as noun government and verb government. And according to the dependent word government in Uzbek can be subdivided into case government (dependent word is expressed with inflections of dative, accusative, locative and ablative cases: *мактабга бор, уйда ўтир, доскадан ёз, дарсингни тайёрла*); auxiliary government (dependent word is connected with head word with the help of auxiliaries: *умр бўйи кутдим, қуш сингари учди, укам билан ишладик*); mixed

government (both grammatical forms exist: *сиз томонга қаради, бозорга қараб кетди, сой бўйига тушдик*).

Adjoining is a variety of syntactical connection when the dependence of one word upon head word is expressed not morphologically but semantically *(my room-my rooms, a small room-small rooms; читатьлёжа, тихосидеть, чересчургромкий, сапогивсмятку, скромноулыбающаяся; хушбўй гул, биринчи босқич, терилган пахта, тахта кўприк, қайси юрт)*. Adjoining in all three compared languages are divided into three types:

- Attributive phrases (object and its feature, they can be expressed by different parts of speech: *to be happy, to seem delighted, to stay calm, любящийсын, третьегочисла, горькийвкус, тоза сув, ўнта пиёла, келган меҳмон).*
- Objective phrases (action, feature and the object, in the relation of carrying out the action or feature: *to live a miserable life, to smile a happy smile, to die a violent death, слушатьмузыку, встречатьсясдрузьями, похожийнадеда, достойныйнаграды, мактабдаўқимоқ, уйга бормоқ, боғ орқали кетмоқ).*
- Adverbial phrases(the way of the action / feature,its measure of the degree, time, place, reason: *to drive slowly, to arrive in time, to travel north, работается по вечерам, дышать легко, купить втридорога, нарядный по праздникам, тез юрмоқ, берилиб тингламоқ*).

The *types of syntactic connection* coincide in English and Native language phrases. All languages have combinations of a noun with its attribute, a verb with an object, an adverb with the headword expressed by a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. At the same time, there are some differences in the structure of attributive phrases.

In Russianand Uzbek, the adjunct of the attributive phrase (adjective phrase) is frequently expressed by an adjective. In the same cases, many English phrases are made up of two nouns.

One of the reasons for that is the fact that there are fewer relative adjectives in English. Therefore, when the kernel and the adjunct denote two connected objects (e.g. the thing and the material it is made from; the factory and the product made by it, etc.) the English-speaking person uses a noun as an attribute.

E.g. *silver spoon - серебряная ложка – кумуш қошиқ*

sugarindustry - сахарная промышленность – шакар саноати

Sometimes it is difficult to determine whether the adjunct in such phrases is a noun or an adjective. Lack of grammatical markers of the parts of speech makes English similar to the isolating languages. Sometimes it is difficult to say whether such combinations are phrases or compound words.

e.g. schoolboy, school-teacher, school building

In these cases, English has some features of incorporating languages, which don't have a borderline between the word and the phrase.

Some types of phrases cannot be found only in one of the languages.

In English and Uzbek, the adjunct of an attributive phrase can be expressed by a passive infinitive.

E.g. *a letter to be sent, юбориладиган хат.*

This type of phrase in non-existent in Russian. The idea is rendered by a subordinate clause.

E.g. *письмо, которое нужно отослать*

In Russian, the adjunct of an attributive phrase can be expressed by an adverb.

E.g. *взгляд исподлобья; шапка набекрень*

This type of phrase in non-existent in English. The idea is rendered by lexical semantics.

E.g. *a scowl at somebody, with one's hat on one side*

b) The English and the Russianand the Uzbek languages differ significantly in *the means of expressing syntactical connections* in a phrase. In Russian and Uzbek all the three ways of connection are used. In English, the use of government and agreement is restricted to the phrases with pronouns.

E.g. *to see him; these books*

In most cases, the elements of the phrase are combined by adjoining.

In English attributive phrases denoting objects in numerical order, the adjunct expressed by a cardinal numeral is in postposition to the kernel expressed by a noun.

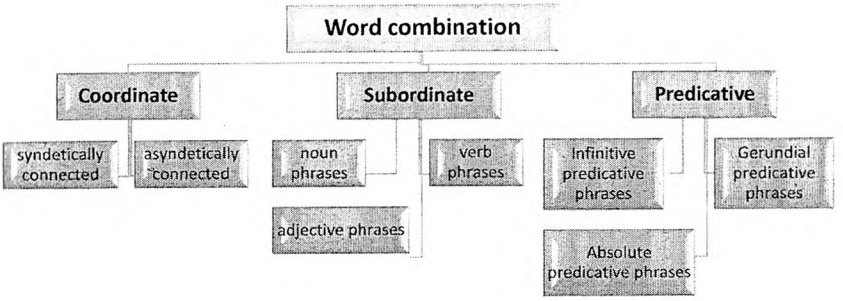
e.g. *Room 15*

In the corresponding Russian and Uzbek phrases, the adjunct expressed by an ordinal numeral is in preposition to the headword.

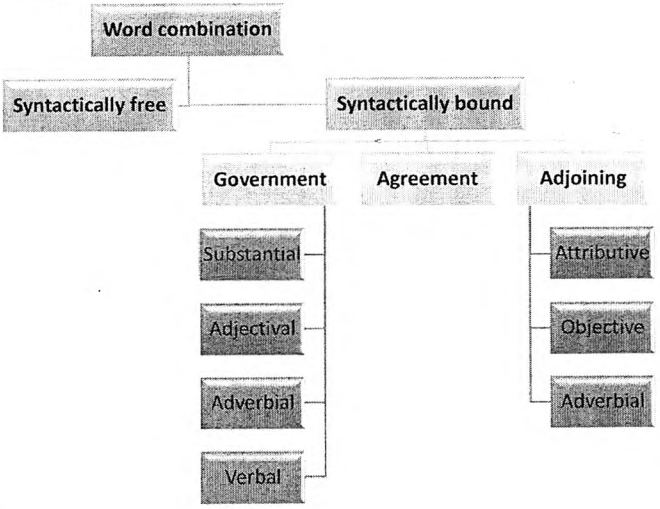
e.g. *пятнадцатая комната, ўн бешинчи хона.*

General differences of word-combinations of three compared languages can be seen in these clusters below:

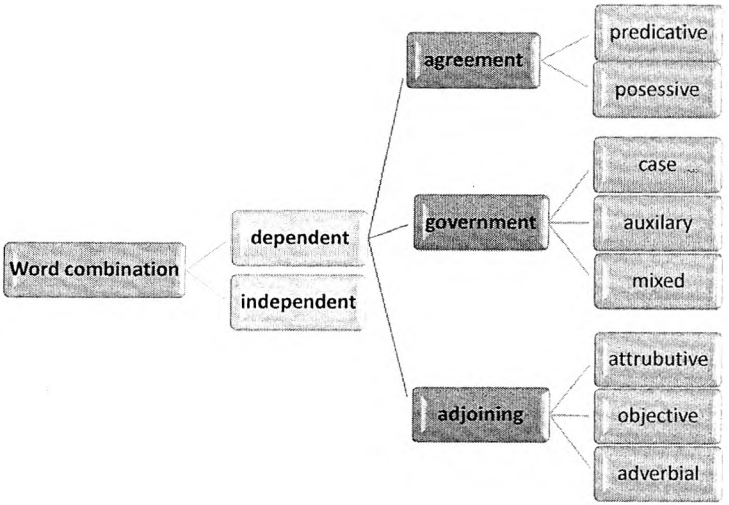
In English:



In Russian:



In Uzbek:



Questions for self-control:

1. What does thesyntactic level study?
2. Whythe difference between a phrase and a sentence is fundamental?
3. What is aphrase in compared languages?
4. What criteria of defining phrase types exist in Grammar?
5. Types of syntactic relations in phrases.
6. Are there any distinctive features of English, Uzbek and Russian phrases?
7. Tell about general ways of syntactic connectionof phrases in compared languages?
8. The problem of pre-position and post-position in phrases.
9. The problem of interference in foreign language teaching acquisition (Syntactic level).

Recommended literature:

1. Yusupov U.K. Contrastive linguistics of the English and Uzbek languages. Tashkent, 2013.

2. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков. Ленинград, 1979.

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4.2. Typology of a sentence in English and Native languages

Key points for discussion:

- Definition of thesentence.
- Criteria of dividing sentences into types.
- Classification of sentences
- Typology of English, Russian and Uzbek sentence types.

It is rather difficult to define the sentence as it is connected with many lingual and extra lingual aspects – logical, psychological and philosophical. There are many definitions of the sentence and these definitions differ from each otherbecause that the scientists approach from different viewpoints to this question. Some of themconsider the sentence from the point view of phonetics, others - from the point of view ofsemantics (the meaning of the sentence) and so on.

Some of the definitions of a sentence are given below.

TheNotional Definition of a Sentence: "It is sometimes said that a sentence expresses a complete thought. This is a notional definition: it defines a term by the notion or idea it conveys. The difficulty with this definition lies in fixing what is meant by a 'complete thought.' There are notices, for example, that seems to be complete in themselves but are not generally regarded as sentences: *Exit, Danger, 50 mph speed limit.*"On the other hand, there are sentences that clearly consist of more than one thought. Here is one relatively simple example:*This week marks the 300th anniversary of the publication of Sir Isaac Newton's Philosophiae Naturalis Principia Mathematica, a fundamental work for the whole of modern science and a key influence on the philosophy of the European Enlightenment.*

Jespersen's Definition of a Sentence: "Traditional attempts to define the sentence were generally either psychological or logical-analytic in nature: the former type spoke of 'a complete thought' or some other inaccessible psychological phenomenon; the latter type, following Aristotle, expected to find every sentence made up of a logical subject and logical predicate, units that themselves rely on the sentence for their definition. A more fruitful approach is that of Otto Jespersen (1924: 307), who suggests testing the completeness and independence of a sentence, by assessing its potential for standing alone, as a complete utterance."

According to **B.A.Ilyish**"The sentence is the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntacticpattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose". The definition proves that is quite right when he writes: "Thenotion of thesentence has not so far received a satisfactory definition".

"A sentence is a unit of speech whose grammatical structure conforms to the laws of the language andwhich serves as the chief means of conveying a thought. A sentence is not only a means of communicatingsomething about reality but also a means of showing the speaker's attitude to it.

The train moved out of the city.

Are you ready?

Put down the book.

Thus, concluding the above mentioned conceptions, there can be said that in any act ofcommunication there are three factors:

1. The act of speech;
2. The speaker;
3. Reality (as viewed by the speaker).

B. Khaimovich and **Rogovskaya** state that these factors are variable since they change with every actof speech. They may be viewed from two viewpoints:

1) From the point of view of language are constant because they are found in all acts ofcommunication;

2) They are variable because they change in every act of speech.

Every act of communication contains the notions of time, person, and reality.

The events mentioned in the communications are correlated in time and time correlation isexpressed by certain grammatical and lexical means.

Any act of communication presupposes theexistence of the speaker and the hearer. Themeaning of person is expressed by the category of theperson of verbs. They may be expressedgrammatically and lexico-grammatically by words: I, you, he...

Reality is treated differently by the speaker and this attitude of the speaker is expressed bythe category of mood in verbs. They may be expressed grammatically and lexically (may, must,probably...)

According to the same authors the three relations - to the act of speech, to the speaker andto reality - can be summarized as the relation to the situation of speech.

The relation of the thought of a sentence to the situation of speech is called predicativity.

Predicativity is the structural meaning of the sentence while intonation is the structural form of it.Thus, a sentence is a communication unit made up of words /and word-morphemes/ in conformitywith their combinability and structurally united by intonation and predicativity.

Within a sentence, the word or combination of words that contain the meanings ofpredicativity may be called the predication.

My father used to make nets and sell them.

My mother kept a little day-school for the girls.

Nobody wants a baby to cry.

A hospital Nursery is one of the most beautiful places in the world.

You might say, it's aroom filled with love.

According to academician **G.Pocheptsov**, the sentence is the central syntactic construction used as the minimal communicative unit that has its primary predication, actualizes a definite structural scheme and possesses definite intonation characteristics. This definition works only in case we do not take into account the difference between the sentence and the utterance. The distinction between the sentence and the utterance is of fundamental importance because the sentence is an abstract theoretical entity defined within the theory of grammar while the utterance is the actual use of the sentence. In other words, a sentence is a unit of language while the utterance is a unit of speech.

The most essential features of the sentence as a linguistic unit are a) its structural characteristics – subject-predicate relations (primary predication), and b) its semantic characteristics – it refers to some fact in the objective reality.

Thus, by sentence, we understand the smallest communicative unit, consisting of one ormore syntactically connected words that have primary predication and that have a certain intonationpattern.

There are many approaches to classify sentences. Below we shall consider only some ofthem.

B. Ilyish classifies sentences applying two principles:

1) Types of communication. Applying this principle he distinguishes 3 types of sentences: **declarative, interrogative, imperative**.

2) According to thestructure. Applying this principle he distinguishes two main types ofsentences: **simple and composite**.

Ch. Fries gives an original classification of types of sentences. All the utterances are divided by him into **Communicative** and **Non-communicative**.

The Communicative utterances are in their turn divided into 3 groups:

I. Utterances regularly eliciting "oral" responses only: **greetings,calls,questions**.

II. Utterances regularly eliciting "action" responses, sometimes accompanied by one of alimited list of oral responses: **requests** or **commands**.

III. Utterances regularly eliciting conventional signals of attention to continuous discoursestatements.

L.Barkhudarov compares source (kernel) sentences with their transforms, he distinguishes several types of sentences from their structural view-point. His classification willrepresent binary oppositions where the unmarked member is the source kernel sentence andmarked one is the transformed sentence.

The most important oppositions within the limits of simple sentences are the followingtwo:

1. Imperative (request) and non-imperative sentences.

2. Elliptical and non-elliptical sentences.

Summarizing the issue about the classification of sentences in the English language, wecan say that this can be done from different points of view. But the most important criteria so areas follows:

1. The criterion of the structure of sentences.

2. The criterion of the aim of the speaker.

3. The criterion of the existence of all parts of the sentence.

From the point of view of the first criterion, sentences fall under two subtypes: **simple** and **composite**.The difference between them is in the fact that simple sentences have one primary predication in their structure while composite ones have more than one.

According to the criterion of the aim of the speaker, sentences fall under **declarative, interrogative, imperative** and **exclamatory**.

From the point of view of the existence of all parts of the sentence, we differentiate**elliptical** and **non-elliptical** sentences.

Generally, in all three compared languages sentences may be classified according to:

- types of communication
- structure.

According to the types of communication sentence in compared languages are divided into:

- ✓ declarative,
- ✓ interrogative
- ✓ imperative.

A **Declarative** sentence states a fact in the affirmative or negative form. There are a number of difference between English and Russian, Uzbek negative sentences. An English sentence may have only one negation while the Russian sentence one may have more than one. *(Nobody was late. - Никтонеопоздал,Ҳеч ким кеч қолмади).*Similarly, there can be observed a list of the ways of expressing negation in all three compared languages:

	Means	English	Russian	Uzbek
1.	Grammatical morpheme	do+not *I don't go*	не *Я не пойду*	-ма *Мен бормайман*
2.	Lexical units	Neither…nor *It is neither good nor bad*	Не…не *Это и не хорошо и не плохо*	Эмас, на …на *Бу на яхши ва на ёмон*
3.	Negative pronouns and adverbs	Nobody, nowhere, never, none *None of them is here*	Никто, нигде, никогда, ни один *Ни один из них не здесь*	Ҳеч ким, ҳеч қаер, ҳеч қачон, ҳеч бири *Уларнинг ҳеч бири бу ерда эмас*
4.	Phraseological	*When*	*Жди у моря*	*Қизил қор*

	units	*Ethiopian changes his skin*	*погоды*	*ёққанда*
5.	Rhetoric questions	*Whoever can win us?!*	*Да кто может нас победить?!*	*Ким ҳам бизни енга оларди?!*

The examples in the table can show some detailed difference in expressing the negation in compared languages.

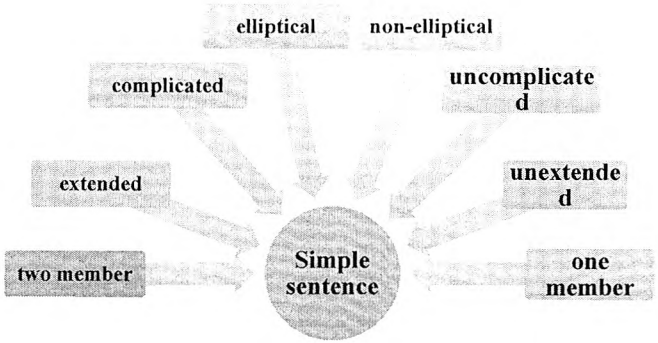
An **Interrogative** sentence asks a question. In English, there are four types of questions: general, special, alternative and disjunctive. (*Do you want...?, Where do you want...?, Do you want ...or...?, You want..., don't you?).* Russian interrogative sentence may be divided into 2 groups: 1) Interrogative sentence having no interrogative words, sometimes they may contain such particles as *ведь, как, что, неужели, разве, ли,* and etc. In such cases, they differ from adeclarative sentence in intonation. (*Инженер поехал в Москву? Его здесь нет? Разве он вамписал? Неужелионушел?*); 2) Interrogative sentences having interrogative words, such as*кто, что, куда, откуда, почему (Ктопришел? Чтовычитаете?).* Special attention must be paid to the indirect questions the rules of sequence of tenses must be observed. Uzbek interrogative sentences are also divided into 2 groups: 1) absolute interrogative sentences which require the answers *(сиз эртага келасизми?)*; 2) rhetoric interrogative sentence with the obvious hidden answer in it (*Мен унинг тўсатдан келиб қолишини қаердан билай?! Бу ватанда нималар йўқ?! Ўзинган чиққан балога қайга борасан давога?! Бу нимаси?!).*

Imperative sentences serve to induce a person to do something. They express a command, a request, an invitation, a wish, a demand, and a call and so on. Declarative, interrogative and imperative sentences may be exclamatory when they express a strong emotion (happiness, delight, anger, etc). *(What a lovely day it is! How wonderful!) (Москвакакмноговэтомзвуке...) (Аввал ўйла кейин сўйла!).*

There is no great difference of sentences in compared languages according to the structure sentences. Due to the grammatical structure, they are divided into two-member and one-member sentences. A two-member sentence has two members: the subject and the predicate. *(Pete reads. Mary writes.)* A two-member sentence may be: complete and incomplete 2 member sentences. The complete has both the subject and the predicate. The incomplete is a sentence then one of the principle parts or both of them are missing, but can be easily understood from the sentence. Such sentences are called elliptical. *(Where are you going? – To the cinema.)* Elliptical sentences are usually met in colloquial speech and dialogues. A one-member sentence is a sentence, which has only one member, which is neither the subject nor the predicate. One member makes the sentence complete.

One-member sentences are generally used in thedescription and in anemotional speech. If the main part of a one-member sentence is expressed by a noun and the sentence is called nominal. (*Dusk-of the summer night. Зима, крестьянин торжествует*).A simple sentence may be extended (has both the principle parts of the sentence and the secondary parts. E.g. Pete reads book every day.) And unextended (has only the subject and the predicate).

Classification of asimple sentence in all three languages according to the grammatical meaning can be seen as follows:

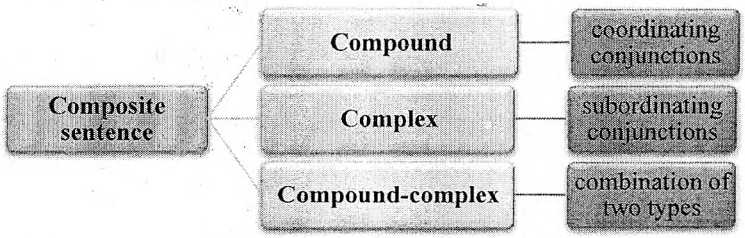


As a distinction complicated and uncomplicated types of sentences in Uzbek are regarded complex sentences. The rest types of sentences can be considered as thesimilarity of these languages.

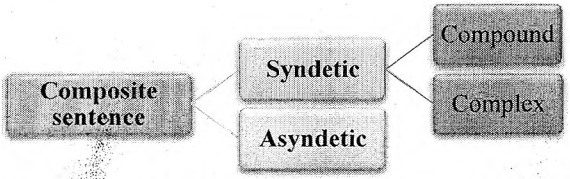
Sentences in compared languages may be also composite. In general composite sentences in compared languages are divided intocompound, complex and compound-complex. A compound is a sentence which consists of two or more clauses coordinated with each other. (*The darkness was thinning, but the street was still dimly lighting. Картошка жарилась на сковорде, от неё ўёл ароматнқй запах. Осмонга булут чиқди ва ёмғир ёға бошлади*). A complex sentence consists of a principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses. (*He steps quicken as he set out from the hotel. Многие видели как фокусник это сделал. Хонага шундай жимлик чўкканки, гўё бу ерда \аёт бутунлай сўнган).*Subordinated clauses may be of different types: subject (Where I am going is unknown), object, predicative (with link-verb), attributive, adverbial and etc. A compound-complex sentence is made from two independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses. (*We decided that the movie was too violent, but our children, who like to watch scary movies, thought that we were wrong. Баҳор келди, майсалар кўкарди ва далалар кўм-кўк тусга кирди).*

Hence, general differences and similarities of acomplex sentence of three compared languages can be seen from their classification according to its structure below:

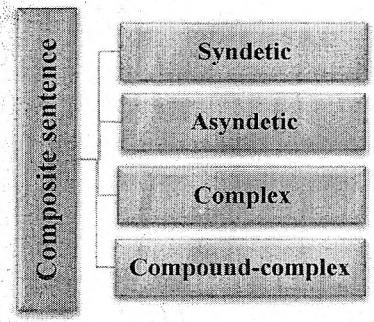
In English they are divided into three big groups:



In Russian they may be classified into two big groups which contain several subgroups according to its structure, meaning, interconnection and head part:



In Uzbek they are divided into 4 big types which some types also can have several subdivisions according to the conjugations:



Generally, there can be observed differences, similarities and distinctive features in thedeep comparative analysis of the types above. Such as compound-complex features are typical only for English and Uzbek languages and cannot be found in Russian. Or else Russian and Uzbek have syndetic and asyndetic features of dividing sentences into types while English has another criterion for this.

Additionally, as a similarity can be considered the following characteristics like in all three languages there are two or more subjects and predicates in thecompound and complex sentences. Two or more sentences in compound sentences are combined with coordinative conjunctions in compared languages*(and, but, or, и, но, или, лекин, ва, ёки).* While in the complex sentence two or more sentences are combined with subordinate conjunctions in all three languages *(if, because, если, потомучто, агар, чунки).* And the difference can be observed in English interrogative pronouns can make asubordinate sentence. But in Uzbek, such sentences are considered as simple ones *(A scientist is a person who studies a lot. Олим кўп ёқийдиган киши).*Distinctively, in the English language in theunrealconditionals, plural form of verbs are used for both singular and plural subjects. But Russian and Uzbek languages don't have such phenomenon*(If he were here, he would help us).*

Thus another number of brief differences in syntactic level also can be listed in comparison of sentences of compared languages:

- Russian and Uzbek sentences are longer than English ones, Russians and Uzbeks are fond of long and colorful phrases while the English text is composed of comparatively short sentences, it is "ethical" to use short words and brief structures. In translation, Russian and Uzbek sentences can be divided into 2-3 short ones.
- The order of words in a sentence plays a great semantic role, the most important word stands at the beginning. E.g.:

Russian	Uzbek
Вам *этого не понять.* ***Этого*** *вам не понять.* ***Не понять*** *вам этого.*	***Сиз*** *буни тушуна олмайсиз* ***Буни*** *сиз тушуна олмайсиз* ***буни тушуниш*** *сизгаэмас.*

In English the word order isfixed, semantic shades ofmeaning are expressed byother means. In English,there can be one variant but with different intonation: *You won't understand this.*

- In English and Uzbek, the sentence beginswith the subject as a rule.The rhematic (new)information is placed atthe beginning of the sentence: *Van Cliburn was the best musician.ВэнКлайберн энг яхши мусиқачи эди.* Whilein Russian a lot of sentences begin not with thesubject but, an object.The rhematic (new)information stands at theend of the sentence: *ЛучшиммузыкантомбылВэнКлайберн.*

Questions for self-control:

1. What is a sentence?
2. According to what criteria the definition of asentence can be identified?
3. What types of sentences are known in syntax?
4. The difference between anominal and verbal sentence in compared languages.
5. Composite sentence and its main types.
6. Distinctive features of thecompound and complex sentences.
7. The problem of word order in typology.
9. The problem of interference in foreign language teaching acquisition (Syntactic level).

Recommended literature:

1. Yusupov U.K. Contrastive linguistics of the English and Uzbek languages. Tashkent, 2013.
2. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков. Ленинград, 1979.
3. Валгина Н.С. Современный русский язык. М., 2003.
4. Мухитдинова Х., Худойберганова Д., Умиров И., Жиянов Н., Юсупова Т. Ҳозирги ўзбек адабий тили Т., 2004.
5. Соловьёва Н. Ң. Весь русский язык в таблицах: От фонетики до синтаксиса М., 2009.
6. D. J. Allerton. Essentials of Grammatical Theory. Routledge, 1979
7. Stanley Fish, "Devoid of Content." The New York Times, May 31, 2005. Also How to Write a Sentence and How to Read One. HarperCollins, 2011
8. William Croft. *Typology and Universals*. Cambridge UNI Press, 2003.
9. Hawkins, John A. *The Comparative Typology of English and German: Unifying the Contrasts*. London/Sydney: Croom Helm, 1986.
10. АбдураҳмоновҒ., ХолиёровХ. ваб. Ҳозиргиўзбекадабийтили (Синтаксис). – Т., 1979.

Topics for self-study

7. Criteria of connection of words in word combinations.
8. Syntactic connection in compared languages.
9. Different definitions of the term “sentence”.
10. Classification of the sentence due to different criteria.

Typology of syntactic level of English and Native Language

1. **The syntax** is the set of rules, principles, and processes that govern the structure of sentences in a given language, specifically word order. The term *syntax* is also used to refer to the study of such principles and processes.[3] The goal of many syntacticians is to discover the syntactic rules common to all languages.

2. **Syntactic typology** is concerned with discovering cross-linguistic patterns in the formation of particular constructions, whether those constructions are phrasal, clausal, or sentential.

3. **Nominative language** is a languagewhere the single argument of an intransitive verb and the agent of a transitive verb (both called the subject) are treated alike and kept distinct from the object of a transitive verb.

4. **Ergative language** is a language in which the single argument ("subject") of an intransitive verb behaves like the object of a transitive verb, and differently from the agent ("subject") of a transitive verb. For instance, instead of saying "she moved" and "I moved her", speakers of an ergative language would say the equivalent of "she moved" and "by me moved she".

5. **Word order** in linguistics typically refers to the order of subject (S), verb (V) and object (O) in a sentence. The arrangement of words in a phrase, clause, or sentence. In many languages, including English, word order plays an important part in determining meanings expressed in other languages by inflections.

6. **Word order typology** is the study of the order of the syntactic constituents of a language, and how different languages can employ different orders.

7. **Adjunct** is an optional, or structurally dispensable, part of a sentence, clause, or phrase that, if removed or discarded, will not otherwise affect the remainder of the sentence. Example: In the sentence, *John helped Bill in Central Park*, the phrase *in Central Park* is an adjunct.

8. **Syntactic connections** are syntagmatic relations observed between syntactic units. They can be of three types – coordination, subordination, and predication.

9. **Adjective phrase** (or **adjectival phrase)** is a phrase whose head word is an adjective, *e.g. fond of steak, very happy, quite upset about it,* etc.

10. **Asyndetic** is a linguistic construction) having no conjunction, as in *I came, I saw, I conquered.*

11. **Syndetic** denotes a grammatical construction in which two clauses are connected by a conjunction.

12. The **sentence** is the basic unit of syntax. It is different from other language units because it is a unit of communication. It is very difficult to give a definition of the sentence because it has many aspects. Every definition reflects this or that aspect but it cannot be considered as a universal one.

13. The **sentence** is central syntactic construction used as the minimal communicative unit that has its primary predication, which is actualized by definite structural scheme and intonation characteristics.

14. A sentence is **a unit of speech** whose grammatical structure conforms to the laws of the language and which serves as the chief means of **conveying a thought**. A sentence is not only a means of communicating something about reality but also a means of showing the speaker's attitude to it.

15. According to structural features, sentences are divided into **simple** and **composite**; one-member and two-member sentences. Elliptical and non-elliptical ones.

16. According to the purpose of utterance, we distinguish four kinds of sentences: **declarative**, **interrogative**, **imperative** and **exclamatory**.

17. **A complex sentence** is a sentence that contains an independent clause and at least one dependent clause.

18. **Coordinating conjunction** is a conjunction (such as and) that joins two similarly constructed and/or syntactically equal words, phrases, or clauses within a sentence. Also called a **coordinator**.

19. **Subordinating conjunction** is a conjunction (a connecting word or phrase) that introduces a dependent clause, joining it to the main clause. Also called a **subordinator**.

20. **Rhematic** is related to word formation having a verb as a base.

Seminar 7

Typology of syntactic level of English and Native Languages

▶Classroom activities

Exercise #1. Write some features of a term sentence of Uzbek, Russian and English languages and compare them with your classmates.

Uzbek	Russian	English

Exercise #2. Discuss with your partner the following questions.

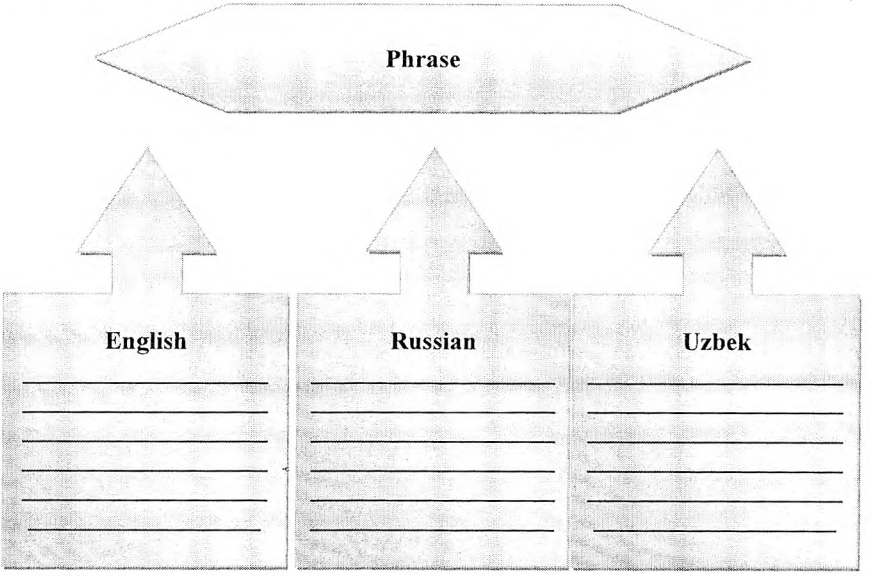
1. What is a phrase?
2. What is a sentence?
3. What is syntactic typology?

Exercise #3. Give examples to syntactical connections: agreement, government, and contact in English, Uzbek and Russian languages.

Languages	agreement	government	contact
English			
Russian			

Uzbek			

Exercise#4. Brainstorm the definitions of phrases in compared languages.



Exercise #5. Discuss with your group some differences in classifying and naming the phrases in compared languages according to the type of syntagmatic relations.

English			
Russian			

Uzbek			

Exercise #6. Work in small groups. Compare and find similarities, differences and distinctive features of three types of dependent relation in compared languages: agreement, government, and adjoining (contact). Share your analysis with other groups.

	Similarities	**Differences**	**Distinctive features**
Agreement			
Government			
Adjoining			

Exercise #7. Proof with your own examples the following comparative analysis of phrase.

1. In English and Uzbek, the adjunct of an attributive phrase can be expressed by a passive infinitive.

Example:_____

_____

_____

This type of phrase in non-existent in Russian. The idea is rendered by a subordinate clause.

Example:_____

_____

_____

2. The English, the Russianand the Uzbek languages differ significantly in *the means of expressing syntactical connections* in a phrase. In Russian and Uzbek all the three ways of connection are used. In English, the use of government and agreement is restricted to the phrases with pronouns.

Example:_____

_____

_____

3. In English attributive phrases denoting objects in numerical order, the adjunct expressed by a cardinal numeral is in postposition to the kernel expressed by a noun.

Example:_____

_____

_____

4. In the corresponding Russian and Uzbek phrases, the adjunct expressed by an ordinal numeral is in preposition to the headword.

Example:_____

_____

_____

►Home activities

Exercise #1. Read the statements. Circle the true or false.

1. Sentence is universal linguistic phenomenon while phrase is not.

True / False

2. According to I. Mestchaninov languages are classified into nominative, ergative and passive.

True / False

3. The element of a phrase can be morphologically equal or unequal.

True / False

4. Greenberg found out only two variants of word order: S+P+O, S+O+P.

True / False

5. According to Greenberg, the English and Russian languages belong to the SPO word order type.

True / False

6. If the elements are syntactically unequal, one of them modifies the other.

True / False

7. According to Vladimir Skalicka, fixed word order is characteristic of agglutinational and isolating types.

True / False

8. The principal element is called the "adjunct" or "head word".

True / False

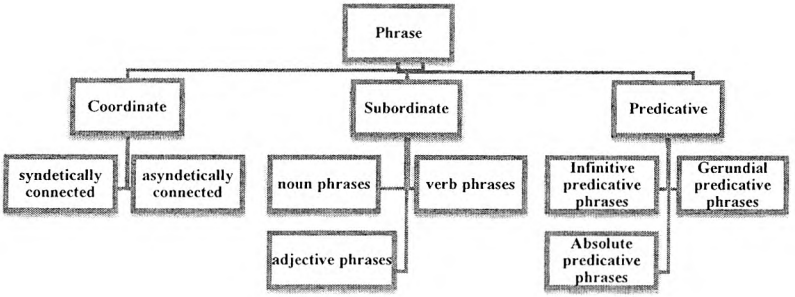
Exercise #2. Fill the table below. Write the types and definitions of phrases in the missed places according to its structural feature.

English	_____ **all elements are obligatory**	Expanded **to read and translate the text – expanded elements are equal in rank**	Extended _____ _____ _____ _____ __: *a beautiful flower – a very beautiful flower*
Russian	**Simple** _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____	**Complex** (three and more notional words) *Example:*____ _____ _____ _____	-
Uzbek	**Simple** (consists of two notional words) *Example:*_____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____	_____ *(consists of extending the members of simple word combination) осмондаги уч ўрдак, ҳаммадан аълочи ўқувчи*	-

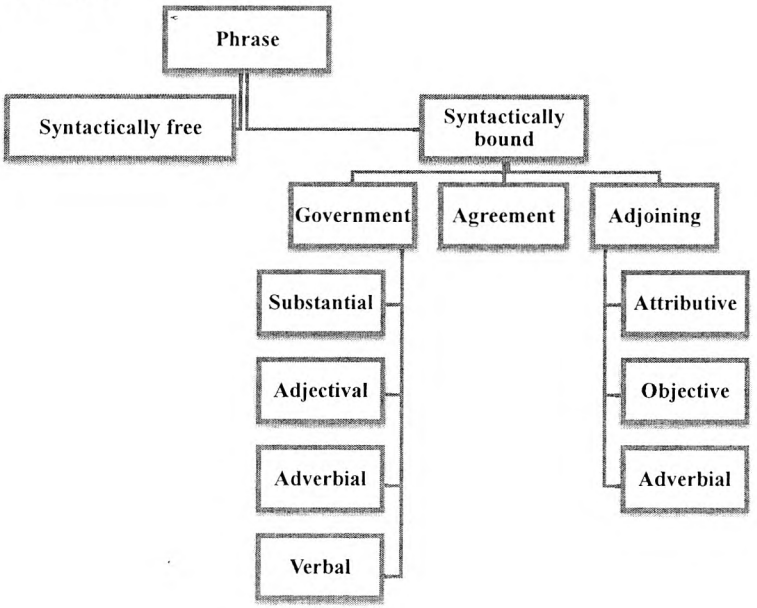
► Activities for self-improvement

Exercise #1. Work in pairs. Learn carefully the clusters below. Find general differences of word-combinations of three compared languages and compare them with your partner.

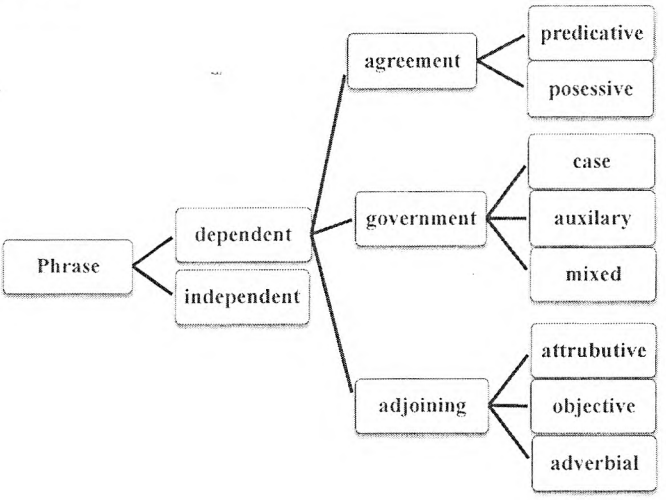
In English:



In Russian:



In Uzbek:



TOPICS FOR PRESENTATIONS

1. Definitions of phrases in compared languages.
2. Structure and classification of phrases of English, Russian and Uzbek languages.
3. Criteria of connection of words in phrasess.
4. Syntactic connection in compared languages.
5. Comparison of the structure of phrases in compared languages.
6. Comparison of thedistinctive feature of Uzbek, English and Russian phrases.

Seminar 8

Typology of syntactic level of English and Native Languages

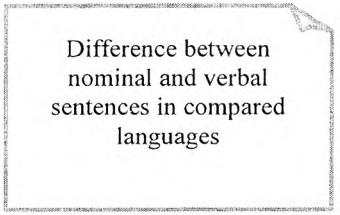
► Classroom activities

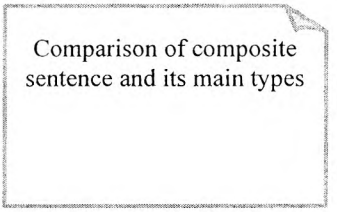
Exercise #1. Discuss the questions with your partner.

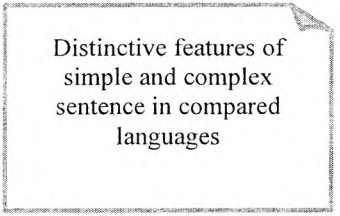
1. Different definitions of the term "sentence".
2. Classification of the sentence due to different criteria.
3. Nominal and verbal sentences.

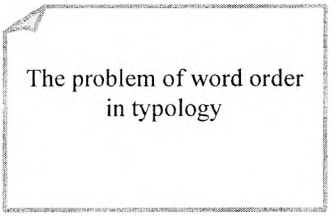
4. Main characteristics of acompound sentence.
5. Word order typology.

Exercise #2. Work in small groups. Compare the given topic. Identify similarities, differences, and distinctive features and prepare a poster presentation to other group members.









Exercise #3. Classify and do a comparative analysis of types of the sentence according to communication. Complete the table below and share your analysis with your partner.

	Declarative	**Interrogative**	**Imperative**
English			
Russian			
Uzbek			

Exercise #4. Discuss the following questions with your partner.

1. What does the term "composite" mean?
2. What types of composite sentences do you know in both English and Uzbek?
3. Specify the compound, complex and mixed type of composite sentences.
4. What are the problems connected with compound sentences?
5. How are the complex sentences classified in Uzbek?
6. What is the structural approach to the problem of composite sentences?

Exercise #5. Choose one of the topics below. Make a comparative analysis and prepare 10-minute demonstrative presentation on it.

- Comparison of English /Russian/ Uzbek simple sentences.
- Comparative analysis of composite sentence in compared languages.
- Typology of English/ Russian/ Uzbek nominal and verbal sentences.
- Comparison of English / Russian / Uzbek word order system.

▶Home activities

Exercise #1. Read the statements. Circle the true or false definition of "sentence".

1. The sentence is the basic unit of syntax.

True / False

2. Sentence is different from other language units because it is a unit of speech.

True / False

3. The sentence is central syntactic construction used as the minimal communicative unit that has its primary predication, which is actualized by definite structural scheme and intonation characteristics.

True / False

4. A sentence is a unit of speech whose grammatical structure conforms to the laws of the language and which serves as the chief means of conveying a thought. **True / False**

5. A sentence is only a means of communicating something about reality and also a means of showing the speaker's attitude to it.

True / False

6. A sentence does not express a complete thought.

True / False

Exercise #2. Read the given main criteria about the classification of sentences. Classify and write types of sentences according to these criteria in the table.

The criterion of the structure of sentences	The criterion of the aim of the speaker	The criterion of the existence of all parts of the sentence

Exercise#3. Fill the table with examples of thenegative form of adeclarative sentence of compared languages. Analyze similarities and differences between them.

Means		English	Russian	Uzbek
1.	Grammatical morpheme	do+not *I don't go*	не *Я не пойду*	-ма *Мен бормайман*
2.	Lexical units			
3.	Negative pronouns and adverbs			
4.	Phraseological units			
5.	Rhetoric questions			

► Activities for self-improvement

Exercise #1. What languages have these types of thecomposite sentence? Fill the table below. The first is done as an example.

Types of composite sentences	Languages
Compound-complex	*English, Uzbek*
Complex	
Compound	
Syndetic	
Asyndetic	
Coordinating conjunction	
Subordinating conjunction	

Exercise #2. Read the statements below and choose whether they are true or false.

1.The sentence is the immediate group of words.

True / False

2. The sentence should always consistof a verb, noun and secondary parts of sentences.

True / False

3. The sentence is divided into four according to the purpose.

True / False

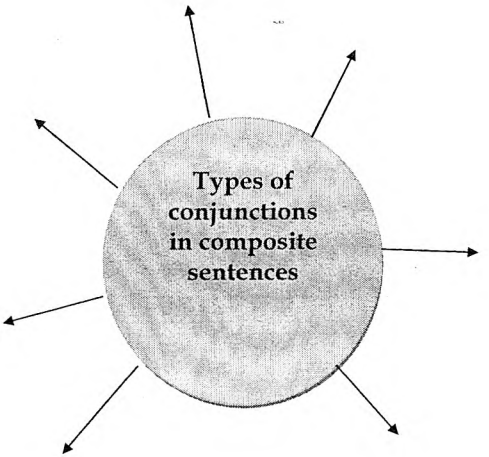
4.Rhetorical questions do not fall into the category of interrogative sentences.

True / False

5.According to the structure, the sentence is divided into simple and composite.

True / False

Exercise#3. Write different kind of conjunctions, which are used to combine sentences.



Test yourself on Typology of syntactic level of English and Native Languages

1. Which of these is the best definition of syntax?

a) The study of the rules governing specifically the sounds that form words.

b) The study of the rules governing sentence formation.

c) The study of the rules governing word formation.

d) The study of the rules governing supra-segmental elements of the language?

2. Which Typology studies the syntactic structure of different languages?

a) Syntactic

b) Lexical and grammatical

c) Phonetic and phonological

d) Semantic and formal

3. Syntactic typology studies...

a) parts of speech

b) word level

c) phoneme level
d) sentence level and phrase level

4. Which of these morphemes can be added to the majority of English nouns?
a) –ing
b) –er
c) –s
d) un-

5. In which sentence do a noun replace the dots?
a) They can ... them
b) They can ...
c) He has no ...
d) They … him

6. Identify this sentence according to its type: "*The old hotel at the end of the street is going to be knocked down at the beginning of next year.*"
a) complex
b) compound
c) simple
d) compound-complex

7. What must every correct sentence have a ...?
a) transition word
b) subject and predicate
c) conjunction and verb
d) dependent and independent clause

8. Russian nouns can show gender (among other features). What feature(s) can English nouns show?
a) Case only
b) Number only
c) Case and number
d) Number and person

9. What is the smallest speech pattern?
a) Morpheme
b) Phrase
c) Phomeme

d) Semime

10. What is word order in the language?
a) The agreement of words in a phrase
b) The arrangement of words in a phrase, clause, or sentence
c) Subordination of clauses
d) Structure of a phrase

11. Define the sentence
a) It is the smallest speech pattern
b) It is smallest meaningful unit
c) It is the basic unit of syntax
d) It is an important communicative unit

12. Subordinator…
a) joins two similarly constructed and/or syntactically equal words
b) contains an independent clause and at least one dependent clause
c) is a unit of communication
d) introduces a dependent clause, joining it to the main clause

13. What language's word-combination has extended type according to the structure?
a) Russian
b) English
c) Arabic
d) Uzbek

14. Independent and dependent are types of word combinations of…
a) English language
b) French language
c) Russian language
d) Uzbek language

15. What languages are fond of long and colorful phrases?
a) Russian and Uzbek
b) Russian and English
c) English and Uzbek
d) English and French

TOPICS FOR PRESENTATIONS

1. Different definitions of the term "sentence".
2. Classification of the sentence due to different criteria.
3. Nominal and verbal sentences.
4. Main characteristics of acompound sentence.
5. Word order typology.
6. Comparison of English /Russian/ Uzbek simple sentences.
7. Comparative analysis of composite sentence in compared languages.
8. Typology of English/ Russian/ Uzbek nominal and verbal sentences.
9. Comparison of English / Russian / Uzbek word order system.

V. Typology of lexical level of English and Native Languages

5.1. Lexical Typology and its branches

Key points for discussion:

- Object and aim of lexical typology
- Relations of lexical typology with other branches of comparative typology
- The notion of lexicon in Linguistics
- Sections of lexical typology
- Typological categorization within lexical fields and conceptual domains

The term "typology", as is well known, has many different uses. What primarily matters for the present volume is typology understood as "the study of linguistic patterns that are found cross-linguistically, in particular, patterns that can be discovered solely by cross-linguistic comparison". Typology can also refer to thetypological classification of languages into (structural) types on the basis of particular patterns for particular phenomena. Typological research is driven by the persuasion that the variation across attested (and, further, possible) human languages is severely restricted, and aims therefore at unveiling systematicity behind the whole huge complex of linguistic diversity. In pursuing their tasks, typologists raise – and often try to answer – important theoretical questions, such as:

- According to what parameters does a specific phenomenon vary across languages, in what patterns do these parameters (co-)occur?
- What generalisations can be made about attested vs. possible patterns?
- What is universal vs. language particular in a given phenomenon, what phenomena are frequent vs. rare?
- How are various linguistic phenomena distributed across the languages of the world?
- Which phenomena are genetically stable and which are subject to contactinduced change?
- How can the attested distribution of the different patterns across languages be explained?

- How can the attested cross-linguistic patterns /generalizations be explained?

The papers in the present volume do in fact focus on linguistic patterns that can be discovered only by cross-linguistic comparison – cross-linguistically recurrent patterns of polysemy, heterosemy and semantic change – and are therefore examples of typological research. The domain of research shared by the papers in the volume is, however, somewhat outside of the main interests of modern typological research, that has so far primarily focused on grammatical and, to a lesser degree, phonetic / phonological phenomena under the labels of "grammatical typology", "syntactic typology", "morphological typology", "morphosyntactic typology" (or, quite often, just "typology"), "phonetic typology" and "phonological typology". None of those would suit the direction of the volume. We are dealing here with lexical, with semantic phenomena – which is the primary objects of lexical typology. The term "lexical typology" is often used as if there was self-explanatory, but is only rarely explicitly defined. What can be meant by lexical typology is, however, less clear, apart from the evident fact that it involves cross-linguistic research on the lexicon. Many linguists will probably agree with the definition that lexical typology is concerned with the "characteristic ways in which language packages semantic material into words". Viewed as such, lexical typology can be considered a sub-branch of semantic typology concerned with the lexicon. Other definitions of lexical typology focus on "typologically relevant features in the grammatical structure of the lexicon" or on typologically relevant vs. language-specific patterns of lexicon-grammar interaction.

Lexical typology deals with the units of lexical levels. It studies *inter-lingual* paradigms of words, inter-lingual *invariance* of **meanings** expressed by words and phrases. Some linguists combine lexical and semantic typologies. *Lexical typology* must be studied as an independent branch of linguistic typology, because it deals with lexical units, while semantic typology concerns to every level of language hierarchy. The terms **"semantic typology"** and **"lexical typology"** are often used as if there were self-explanatory, but are only rarely explicitly defined. Semantic typology is ***"the systematic cross-linguistic study of how languages express meaning by way of signs"***. Many linguists will probably agree with the definition that lexical typology is concerned with the "characteristic ways in which language packages semantic material into words". Viewed as such, lexical typology can be considered a **sub-branch** of semantic typology concerned with the lexicon. Other definitions of lexical typology focus on ***"typologically relevant features in the grammatical structure of the lexicon"***.

A reasonable way of defining what can be meant by "lexical typology" is to view it as the cross-linguistic and typological dimension of lexicology. The

probably most updated overview of lexicology as a field is found in the two volumes, the title of which "underlines the special orientation towards the two core areas which makes of lexicology an autonomous discipline, namely, the characterization of words and vocabularies, both as unitary wholes and as units displaying internal structure with respect both to form and content". In the same vein as lexicology, in general, is not restricted to lexical semantics, lexical typology can include phenomena that are not of primary interest for semantic typology. Likewise, since lexicology is not completely opposed to either phonetics/phonology, morphology or syntax, cross-linguistic research on a number of theword- and lexicon-related phenomena is – or can be – carried out either from different angles and with different foci, or within approaches that integrate several perspectives, goals, and methods. There are different kinds and groups of questions that can be addressed in typological research on words and vocabularies, or lexical typology, and that can, therefore, be considered as the different foci of lexical typology. Some of them are listed below, but there are undoubtedly many others. What is a possible word, or what can be meant by a word? Possible vs. impossible words in different languages, different criteria for identifying words and interaction among them, universal vs. language-specific restrictions on possible, impossible, better and worse words.

- What meanings can and cannot be expressed by a single word in different languages? Lexicalisations and lexicalisation patterns, "universal" vs. language-specific lexicalizations, categorization within, or carving up of lexical fields / semantic domains by lexical items, the architecture of the lexical fields / semantic domains (e.g. basic words vs. derived words).
- What different meanings can be expressed by one and the same lexeme, by lexemes within one and the same synchronic word family (words linked by derivational relations) or by lexemes historically derived from each other? Cross-linguistically recurrent patterns in the relations among the words and lexical items in the lexicon – a huge and heterogeneous category with many different subdivisions, a large part of which can be subsumed under the various aspects of motivation, e.g. semantic motivation (polysemy, semantic associations / semantic shifts) and morphological motivation (derivational patterns, including compounding).
- What cross-linguistic patterns are there in lexicon-grammar interaction?

The lexicon of a language is, of course, a dynamic and constantly changing complex structure where new words emerge, old words disappear or change in one or another way. Lexical-typological research has, thus, both *synchronic* and *diachronic* dimensions. *Historically oriented lexical typology* studies semantic

change, grammaticalization and lexicalization processes as examples of diachronic processes showing cross-linguistically recurrent patterns.

The lexicons of most languages show different layers of origin with many words coming from "outside" – as direct loans, loan translations, etc. A particularly interesting aspect of historical lexical typology is the search for cross-linguistically recurrent patterns in contactinduced lexicalization and lexical change, e.g., differences in borrowability among the different parts of the lexicon and the corresponding processes in the integration of new words, or patterns of lexical acculturation (i.e., how lexica adjust to new objects and concepts).

Lexical-typological research can also be more *local*, e.g., restricted to a particular lexical field, a particular derivational process, a particular polysemy pattern, or more *general*, with the aim of uncovering patterns in the structuring of the lexicon that is supposed to have a bearing on many essential properties of the language. The latter includes various approaches to the issues of "basic" vs. non-basic vocabulary, or suggestions as to how to characterize, compare and measure the lexical-typological profiles of different languages. In fact, some people prefer using the term "typological" (e.g., typological properties) for referring to what is considered as the more essential, central, or general properties of a language. In this understanding, a large portion of cross-linguistic research on words and vocabularies will not count as typological (this applies, among others, to what is called "local" lexical-typological research immediately above).

Lexical typology consists of following branches:

* Lexical typology of words
* Word-building typology
* Comparative lexicology
* Lexical-statistic typology
* Lexical typology of borrowings
* Lexical typology of phraseology
* Lexical typology of proverbs and sayings and etc.

Types of words and phrases can be studied and compared in these types of branches of lexical typology. As an example lexical typology of borrowings in English, Russian and Uzbek can be analyzed below:

Lexical typology of borrowings

Borrowed words are the words adopted from other languages. Borrowing is a consequence of cultural contact between two language communities. Borrowing of words can go in both directions between the two languages in contact, but often there is an asymmetry, such that more words go from one side to the other. According to the nature of borrowings, they can be classified in all languages into:

- A loan word taken over from another proper language can be modified in phonetic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the language. Example:

English→Russian→Uzbek: club, pop, abest-seller, show, CD-Rom.

Russian→Uzbek: журнал, театр, роман, армия, сюжет, автобус.

- A translation loans are the words and expressions formed I one language after the patterns characteristic of it but under the influence of some foreign words and expressions. For example:

Latin: "tinge maternal" → mother tongue;

English: "Periodical journals" →периодическиежурналы;

Russian: "Дом престарелых"→қариялар уйиandetc.

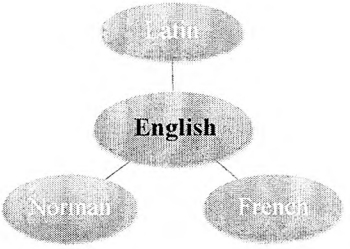
- Semantic borrowings are the appearance of a new meaning due to the influence of a related word in another language. For instance:

English: mother → Mutter (German) → Madre (Spanish).

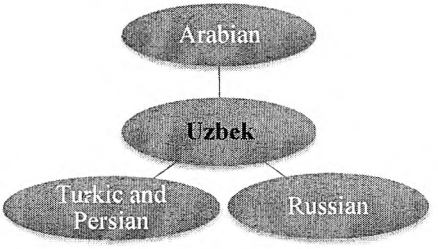
Russian: noktь(night) (protoSlavic) →ночь(Russian) →ніч(Ukrainian)→ноч(Belarusian) →noc (Polish) →noc (Czech) →noc (Slovak) →noč (Slovene) →ноћ/ noć(Serbo-Croatian)→нощ (*nosht*) (Bulgarian).

Uzbek: бош (Uzbek)→ бас (Kazakh, Kharakhalpak)→ баш(Kirgiz, Turkmen), тоғ(Uzbek)→ тоо(Kirgiz) → тав, тау(Kazakh, Kharakhalpak)→ дағ(Turkmen, Azerbaijan).

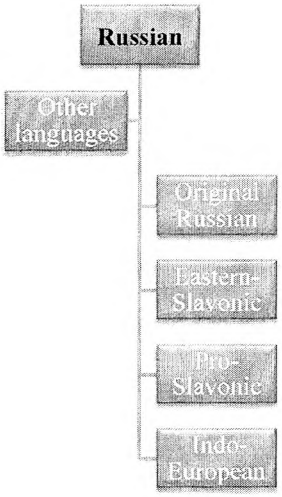
During XV centuries of its written history, the English language comes in long and close contacts with several other languages, mainly, Latin, French and Norman (Scandinavian). The great influence of borrowings in English is explained by a number of historical causes: Latin was for a long time used as a language of learning and religion; Norman was the language of conquerors in the IX-XI centuries; French was the language of other conquerors in the XI-XIV centuries.



The Uzbek language also has had and old and long contacts with many nations in its history, especially with Arabians, Persians, Turkish and Russians. It is known from the history of Uzbek language that Arabian was the language of religion and science as Latin in English, Turkic and Persian were mostly the languages of poetry in the middle ages and other languages were the languages of the conquerors of several historical periods.



Different from English and Uzbek languages Russian language did not acquire words from any kind of conquerors, but as other languages, it also has a group of words which acquired from various genetically related and non-related languages. This language started to enlarge its vocabulary from ancient times. For instance, from VI-VII centuries words which connected with floras taken from Pro-Slavonic language, in VI-IX centuries influence of Eastern-Slavonic and Russian national language formed in the period of XVII-XVIII centuries. Besides, it expands its vocabulary from Indo-European languages too.



Borrowings enter the language in two ways:

- Through oral speech (by immediate contact between the people);
- Through written speech (by indirect contact through books, writings, etc.)

Orally borrowed words are usually short and they undergo considerable changes in the act of adoption. Written borrowings preserve their spelling and some peculiarities of their sound form, their assimilation is a long and difficult process.

Oral borrowings due to personal contacts are assimilated more completely and more rapidly than literary borrowings, i.e. borrowings through written speech. For instance, in English:

Oral borrowings:	**Written borrowings:**
Inch, meel, street (L.)	Sombrero (Mex.)
Husband, gate, take, die, fellow (Scand.)	Sari, riksha (Ind.)
Table, face, figure, chair, sport (Fr.)	Formula,phenomena (Gr.)

Typological categorization within lexical fields and conceptual domains.

The basic idea underlying cross-linguistic research on categorization within lexical fields and conceptual domains (coherent segments of experience and knowledge about them) is that human experience is not delivered in nicely pre-packed units, categories, and types, but has to be chunked, organized and categorized by human beings themselves. Categories correspond to experiences that are perceived to have features in common. When experiences are systematically encoded by one and the same linguistic label (e.g., by the same word) they are, most probably, perceived as being fairly similar to each other; that is they are taken to represent one and the same class or to correspond to one and same concept or lexical meaning.

A simple example of what can be meant by different ways of categorizing, or carving up a conceptual domain across languages is given in Table 1, which shows how the inventories of body-part terms in six languages differ in the extent to which they distinguish between hand vs. arm, foot vs. leg, and finger vs. toe by conventionalised, lexicalised expressions ("labels").

Table 1: Hand vs. arm, foot vs. leg, finger vs. toe in English, Russian,Uzbek, Italian, Rumanian,Estonian and Japanese.

English	Russian	Uzbek	Italian	Rumanian	Estonian	Japanese
hand	рука	қўл	mano	mină	käsi	te
arm			braccio	brat	käsi(vars)	ude
foot	нога	оёқ	piede	picior	jalg	ashi
leg			gamba			
finger	палец	бармоқ	dito	deget	sõrm	yubi
toe					varvas	

The table above follows the same practice of representing "lexicalization" in a fairlyunsophisticated way without asking the question ofwhether *рука*in Russian or *yubi* in Japanese are polysemous or semantically general.

What matters here is simply how many different lexemes there are and how theypartition the domain. A somewhat more complicated example is given in Table 2, which shows the verbs used for talking about waterrelatedmotion ("aqua-motion") in three languages – Swedish, Dutch and Russian.The table includes both motion of water itself ("flow" in English) and motion/location of other entities (other figures) with water as ground. Here, again, theRussian verbs *плыть / плавать*are treated as one semantic unit, rather than two sets ofdifferent senses.

Flyta in Swedish appears, however, at two different places – thisdoes not per se imply any strong conviction that the case is much different from theRussian verb couple, but shows rather problems with two-dimensionalrepresentations.

Table 2: A part of the aqua-motion domain in Russian, Swedish, and Dutch.

Language	**Agent-driven, active motion: type of figure**					**Passive location /motion**		**Motion of water**
	Animate entities	Sailing boats	Rowing boats	Canoes	Other vessels	Stationary or neutral motion	Motion out of control	
Swedish	simma	segla	ro	paddla	(no specific acquamotion verbs)	flyta	driva	flyta, rinna
Dutch	zwemmen	zeilen	roeien	paddelen		drijven		stromen
		varen						
Russian	плыть / плавать							течь, литься
		(плыть / плавать под парусами)	грести				нестись	

As these examples show, languages differ considerably as to how many different lexemes they have for talking about comparable domains and how exactly these words partition the domains. It is, therefore, reasonable to ask whether there is any systematicity underlying the obvious cross-linguistic variation. Whatever the answer is, it requires explanation.

Only a handful of conceptual domains typically encoded by words (rather than by grammatical means) have been subject to systematic cross-linguistic research on their semantic categorization, primarily *colour, body, kinship, perception, motion, events of breaking and cutting, dimension.* The list can be made slightly longer, if we include words and expressions with more grammatical meanings, such as *indefinite pronouns*, various *quantifiers*, *interrogatives*, *phrasal adverbials* and*spatial adpositions*.

Questions for self-control:

1. What kind of relations does lexical typology have with other types of Comparative Typology?
2. What can lexical typology be dealt with?
3. How can you define the term "lexicon"?
4. What branches of lexical typology do you know?
5. The problem of interference in foreign language teaching acquisition (Lexical level).

RecommendedLiteratures:

1. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительнаятипологияанглийскогоирусскогоязыков. Ленинград, 1979.

2.Буранов Ж.Б. Сравнительная типологи яанглийского и тюркских языков. М, 1983.

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4. ArnoldV.I. The EnglishWord. M, 1973.

5.2. Comparative analysis of English and Native languages words

Key points for discussion:

- Word as a basis unit of a language
- Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of words
- Semantic classification of words
- Classification of words according to their structure

The main unit of the lexical system of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning is a word. This unit is used in grammatical functions characteristic of it. It is the smallest language unit which can stand alone as a complete utterance. A word, however, can be divided into smaller sense units - morphemes. The morpheme is the smallest meaningful language unit.

The morpheme consists of a class of variants, allomorphs, which are either phonologically or morphologically conditioned, e.g. please, pleasant, pleasure. Morphemes are divided into two large groups: lexical morphemes and grammatical (functional) morphemes. Both lexical and grammatical morphemes can be free and

bound. Free lexical morphemes are roots of words which express the lexical meaning of the word, they coincide with the stem of simple words.

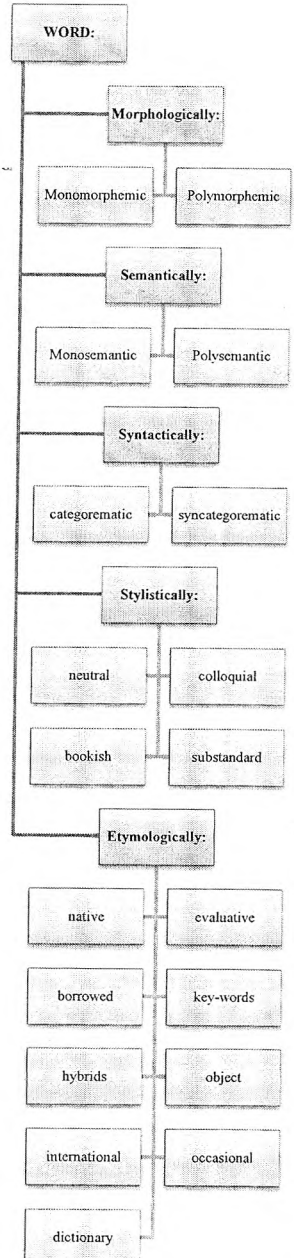
Free grammatical morphemes are function words:

- articles
- conjunctions
- prepositions(the,with, and).

Bound lexical morphemes are affixes:

- prefixes (dis-)
- suffixes (-ish)
- blocked (unique) root morphemes (e.g. Fri-day, cran-berry).

Word is a basic two sided and independent unit of a language. It has been attracted the attentions of many linguists from ancient times. Thus, thewordis the basis unit of a language, directly corresponds to the object of thought (referent)-which is a generalized reverberation of a certain 'slice', 'piece' of objective reality and by immediately referring to it names the thing meant. Words in all languages can be distinguished as followings:


WORD:
Morphologically:
Monomorphemic
Polymorphemic
Semantically:
Monosemantic
Polysemantic
Syntactically:
categorematic
syncategorematic
Stylistically:
neutral
colloquial
bookish
substandard
Etymologically:
native
evaluative
borrowed
key-words
hybrids
object
international
occasional
dictionary

Typologically denotational meaning suggests the distribution of general and special meanings (hyperonyms and hyponyms) in languages. In general, it is more natural for English and Uzbek to use a hyperonym, while Russian typically favours hyponym:

English	Russian	Uzbek
box	коробка коробочка шкатулка ящик ящичек	қути қутича
flask	фляга фляжка склянка пузырёк	фляга
pot	горшок котелок банка кружка кринка	тувак

Naturally, it is possible to show opposite examples in which Russian and Uzbek words are more general in meaning than its counterparts in English:

English	Russian	Uzbek
finger toe	палец	бармоқ
hand arm	рука	қўл
watch clock	часы	соат

Depending on the context Russian uses a special prefixed derivatives where English and Uzbek have a general word:

English	Russian	Uzbek
to cut a finger	порезать палец	бармоқни кесмоқ
to cut a road	перерезать дорогу	йўлни кесиб ўтмоқ
to cut a grass	срезать траву	ўтни кесмоқ
to cut one's throat	зарезаться, перерезать кому та горло	Кимнидир сўймоқ (томоғини кесмоқ)

Every word has two aspects: the outer aspect (its sound form) and their inner aspect (its meaning). Sound and meaning do not always constitute a constant unit even in the same language. E.g. in English the word "temple" may denote "a part of human head" and "a large church"; or in Russian the word "ручка" can denote "a part of human body (hand)", "a writing tool (pen)" and "a part of the door (handle)" and Uzbek word "ўт" may give the meanings of "fire", "grass", "movement". In such cases, there are exist homonyms. Homonyms are words different in meaning but identical in sound or spelling, or both in sound and spelling.

Homonyms can appear in the language not only as the result of the split of polysemy but also as the result of leveling of grammar inflexions when different parts of speech become identical in their outer aspect, e.g. "care" from "caru" and "care" from "carian". They can be also formed by means of conversion, e.g. "to slim" from "slim", "to water" from "water". They can be formed with the help of the same suffix from the same stem, e.g. "reader" a person who reads and a book for reading.

One and the same word in different syntactical relations can develop different meanings, e.g. the verb in English "treat" in the sentences:

- He treated my words as a joke;
- The book treats of poetry;
- They treated me so sweet;
- He treats his son cruelly.

In all these sentences the verb "treat" has different meanings and we can speak about polysemy. The word "polysemy" means "plurality of meanings" it exists only in the language, not in speech.

A word which has more than one meaning is called polysemantic. Different meanings of a polysemantic word may come together due to the proximity of notions which they express. E.g. the English word "blanket" has the following meanings: a woolen covering used on beds, a covering for keeping a horse warm, a covering of any kind "a blanket of snow", covering all or most cases (used attributively), e.g. we can say "a blanket insurance policy". There are some words in the language which are monosemantic, such as most terms, "synonym", "molecule", "bronchitis", some pronouns (this, my, both), numerals.This feature can be observed in all types of languages. It is obvious in the Uzbek language too, e.g. the noun "кўз" (an eye) which is a part of thehuman face, in the following phrases can show polysemy in this language:

- Ёғочнинг кўзи;
- Узукнинг кўзи;
- Булоқнинг кўзи;

➢ Ишнинг кўзи;

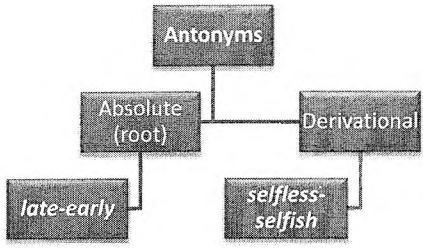
➢ Деразанинг кўзи.

On the other hand, one and the same meaning can be expressed by different sound forms, e.g. in English "pilot" and "airman", "man", "mankind", "human", "person"; in Uzbek "мўйсафид", "қари", "ёши улуғ"; in Russian "кушать", "есть", "съедать"; "симпотичный", "приятный", "славный", "милый". In such cases, synonyms can be developed. Synonyms are words different in their outer aspects, but identical or similar in their inner aspects. In English there are a lot of synonyms because there are many borrowings, e.g. hearty (native) – cordial (borrowing); куч (native) – қувват(borrowed). After a word is borrowed it undergoes desynonymization, because absolute synonyms are unnecessary for a language. However, there are some absolute synonyms in the language, which have exactly the same meaning and belong to the same style, e.g. to moan, to groan; homeland, motherland etc. In cases of desynonymization, one of the absolute synonyms can specialize in its meaning and we get semantic synonyms, e.g. "city" (borrowed), "town" (native). The French borrowing "city" is specialized. There are also phraseological synonyms in the compared languages, these words are identical in their meanings and styles but different in their combining with other words in the sentence, e.g. "to be late for a lecture" but "to miss the train", "to visit museums" but "to attend lectures" ; "боши осмонга етди" and "терисига сиғмади" (to be very happy).

In each group of synonyms, there is a word with the most general meaning, which can substitute any word in the group, e.g. "piece" is the synonymic dominant in the group "slice", "lump", "morsel". The verb "to look at" is the synonymic dominant in the group "to stare", "to glance", "to peep". The adjective "red" is the synonymic dominant in the group "purple", "scarlet", "crimson". Same as in the Uzbek language the word "осмон" is dominant in the group "само", "кўк", "фалак", "гардун".

Moreover, one of the types of words according to the meaning is called antonym, a group of words which have opposite meaning to each other. Antonyms are words belonging to the same part of speech, identical in style, expressing contrary or contradictory notions.

V.N. Comissarov in his dictionary of antonyms classified them into two groups:



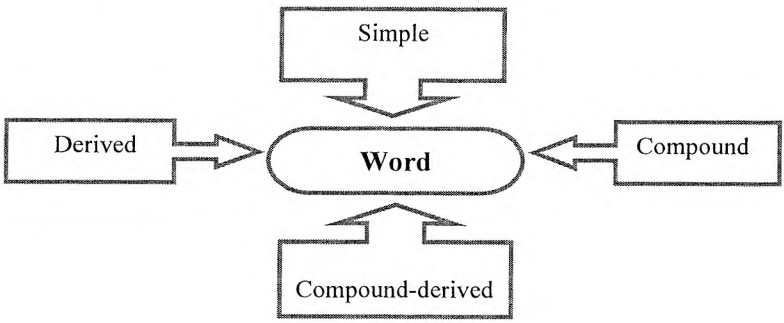
Absolute antonyms have different roots and derivational antonyms have the same roots but different affixes. In most cases, negative prefixes form antonyms (un-, dis-, non-). Sometimes they are formed by means of suffixes -ful and -less. The number of antonyms with the suffixes ful- and -less is not very large, and sometimes even if we have a word with one of these suffixes its antonym is formed not by substituting -ful by less-, e.g. "successful" –"unsuccessful". The difference in the Uzbek language this type of antonyms is called morphological, e.g. "ақлли-ақлсиз". The same is true about antonyms with negative prefixes, e.g. "to man" is not an antonym of the word "to unman", "to disappoint" is not an antonym of the word "to appoint"in English. The difference between derivational and root antonyms is not only in their structure but in semantics as well. Derivational antonyms express contradictory notions, one of them excludes the other, e.g. «active»- «inactive». Absolute antonyms express contrary notions. If some notions can be arranged in a group of more than two members, the most distant members of the group will be absolute antonyms, e.g. «ugly» , «plain», «good-looking», «pretty», «beautiful», the antonyms are «ugly» and «beautiful».E.g. in English "short-long", "rich- poor", "wise –fool"; in Uzbek "катта–кичик", "узоқ–яқин", "яхши–ёмон"; in Russian "умный-глупый", "старый-новый", "высокий-низкий". Besides antonyms in all languages can be root and derived. For instance, good-bad (root), like-**dis**like (derived with prefix ***dis-***); дўст–душман (root), доно–нодон (derived with prefix ***но-***), богатый-бедный (root), толстый-нетолстый (derived with negative particle ***не***).

Both the meaning and the sound can develop in the course of time independently. E.g. the Old English "luvian" is pronounced [l^v] in Modern English. On the other hand "board" primarily means "a piece of wood sawn thin". It has developed the meanings: a table, a board of theship, a stage, a council etc.

Syntacmatics–linear (simultaneous) relationship of words in aspeech as distinct from theassociative (non-simultaneous) relationship of words in thelanguage.

Paradigmatics– 1) associative (non-simultaneous) relationship of words in language as distinct from linear (simultaneous) relationship of words in speech (syntagmatics); relation of units in absentia (e.g. synonymic, antonymicrelationships); 2) an approach to language when the elements of its system are regarded as associated units joined by oppositional relationship.

According to the structure, English words can be subdivided into:



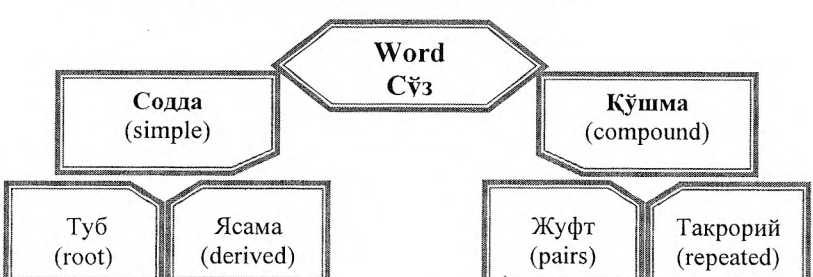
Simple words consist of one root morpheme and an inflexion (in many cases the inflexion is zero), e.g. "red", "ask", "leg";

Derived words consist of one root morpheme, one or several affixes and an inflexion, e.g. " aimless", "unemployed", "disbelief";

Compound words consist of two or more root morphemes and an inflexion, e.g. "foreign-made", "red-haired", "to daydream";

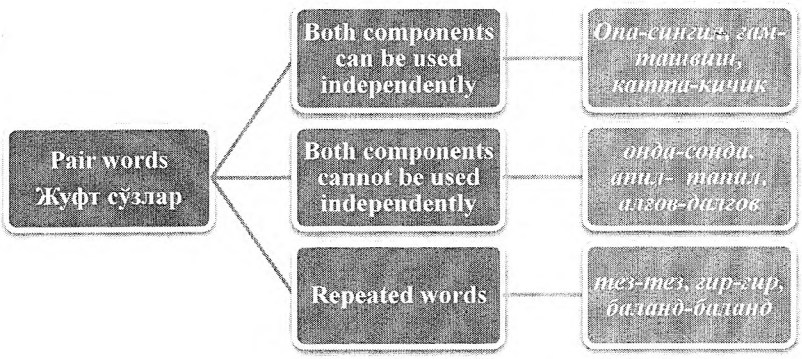
Compound-derived words consist of two or more root morphemes, one or more affixes and an inflexion, e.g. "a stay-slim diet","an out-of-town performance", "do-it-your-self principle".

In the Uzbek language they can be classified into:



Simple words in Uzbek can be subdivided in to root " ўқи", "келди", and derived "билим", "улғай", "серзавқ".

A distinctive feature of Uzbek language is having the types of words such ***pairs*** and ***repeated*** ones which can be formed by a hyphen and give one meaning. Pair words in Uzbek can be formed as followings:



The way of forming English, Uzbek and Russian short compounds are the same. There are three ways of forming short compounds:

1. The solid or closed form in which two usually moderately short words appear together as one. Solid compounds most likely consist of short (monosyllabic) units that often have been established in the language for a long time. Examples are; housewife, lawsuit, and wallpaper.

Uzbekexamplesare: сувилон, тоғолча, гултувак.

Russian examples are: водовоз, , сумасшедший.

2. The hyphenated form in which two or more words are connected by a hyphen. Compounds that contain affixes, such as house – builder and single – mind (ed) (ness) but if these words are written in Uzbek and Russian they will be written without ahyphen: single – mindedness→хурфикрлилик, честолюбие.

As well as anadjective - adjective compounds and verb – verb compounds, such as blue – green and freeze – dry, are often hyphenated. Some Uzbek verb – verb compounds are not hyphenated: сотиболди, борибкелди.And such Russian compounds also are not hyphenated, e.g. adjective-adjective: драгоценный.

Compounds that contain particles, such as mother – of – pearl and salt – and – pepper, mother – in – law, merry – go – round, are also hyphenated.

The open or spaced form consisting of newer combinations of usually longer, such as distance learning, player piano, lawn tennis.

In Uzbek and Russian there are also such kind of open compounds: стол тенниси, масофавий ўқитиш, дистанционноеобучение, гарантийныйталон, настольныйтеннис.

In Uzbek the relationship between the components of compound words are different: They show:

1. Comparison: карнайгул, откулоқ туяқуш, шерўрак, қўйкўз.

2. Relevance, purposed for something: гултувак (vase for flower), молқўра, оловкурак, токқайчи,қийматахта. In English and Russian washing – machine, blood – vessel (a tube through which blood flows in the body), стиральнаямашина, гладинаядоска.

3. Connection to some places: сувилон (a snake which lives in water), тоғолча, чўлялпиз, қўқонарава like in English zookeeper, postman, house keeper, head – dress, ear – ring.

4. The mark of something: аччиқтош, олақарға, шўрданак, қизилиштон, Қизилтепа. In English long – legged, bluebell, slow – coach.

5. Relationship to quantity: бешбармоқ, мингоёқ, қирқоғайни, Бешариқ. This rule is also relevant to Englishand Russian compounds such as: three – cornered, fifteen – fold, six – fold, five – sided polygon, пятиэтажный, треугольный, шестикратный.

Uzbek compound words are classified:

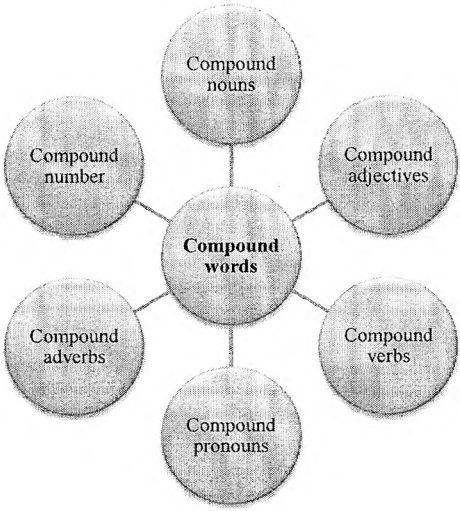
a) from the point of view of the way the components of the compound are linked together: ҳомкалла, кўксултон, искабтопар.

b) from the point of view of agreeing:

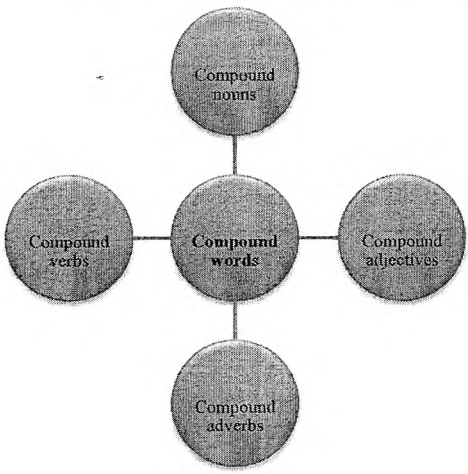
тўйбоши, китобсевар, дунёқараш.

c) from the point of therelationship between subject and predicate: first elements of such kind compound will be predicate: гўшткуйди, келинтушди.

There are 6 types of compound words in Uzbek:



Most frequently spread English and Russian compound words are:



Comparison of languages in the level of lexicology from theoretical points requires comparing the lexical units and their systematic relations. As it mentioned above thelexical unit of the languages can be compared to various levels of language. We tried to show some analysis of a word in several levels as its meaning, structure, and branches.

Questions for self-control:

1. How can you define the main unit of lexical level?
2. Howa word can be distinguished in all languages?
3. What can be understood in the terms of hyperonyms and hyponyms?
4. How can words be subdivided according to their meaning?
5. What kind of types of a word can be found in compared languages?
6. The problem of interference in foreign language teaching acquisition (Lexical level).

Recommended Literature:

1. Akhmanova O.S. Lexicology: Theory and Method. M. 1972
2. Arnold I.V. The English Word. M. 1986.
3. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков. Ленинград, 1979.
4. Виноградов В. В. Лексикология и лексикография. Избранные труды. М. 1977.

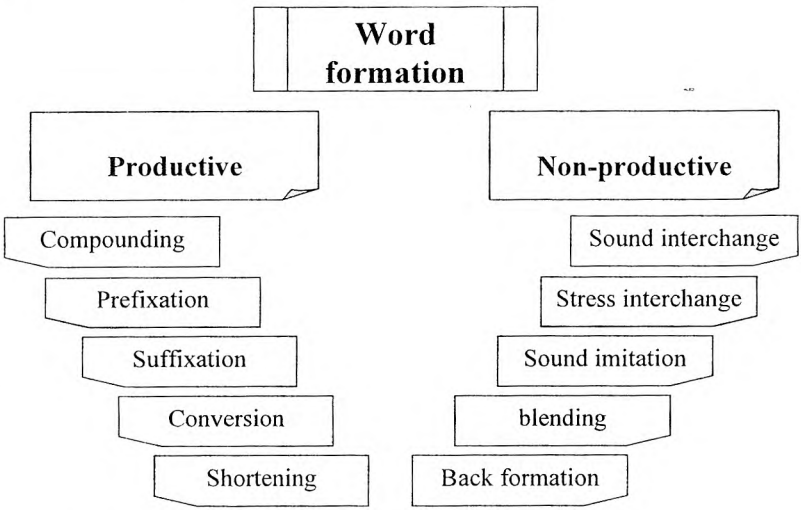
5.3. Comparative analysis of English and Native languages word-formation types

Key points for discussion:

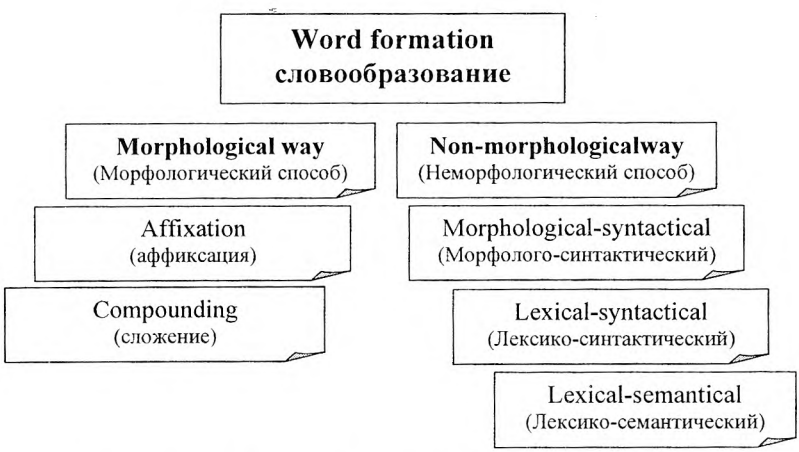
- Word formation in linguistics
- Types of word formation in compared languages
- Similarities in word formation ways of compared languages
- Differences in word formation ways of compared languages

In linguistics, word formation is the creation of a new word. Word formation is sometimes contrasted with semantic change, which is a change in a single word's meaning. The line between word formation and semantic change is sometimes a bit blurry; what one-person views as a new use of an old word, another person might view as a new word derived from an old one and identical to it in form. Word formation can also be contrasted with the formation of idiomatic expressions, though sometimes words can form from multi-word phrases. Word-building is one of the main ways of enriching vocabulary.As it is known morpheme can be subdivided into root and derived types. These features of

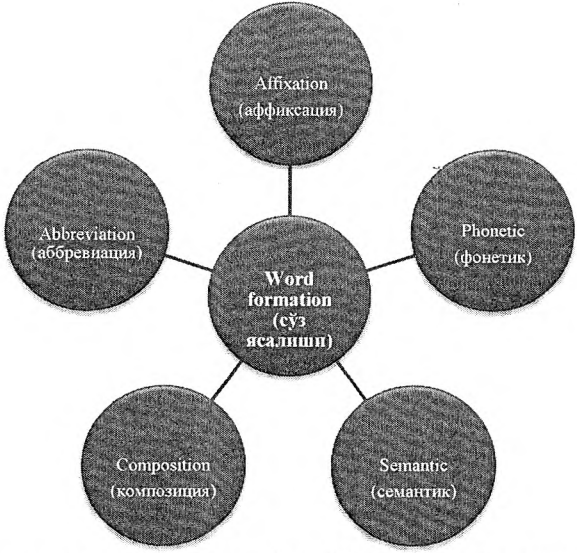
morphemes are characterized all types of languages. There are two major groups of word formationin Modern English:



Two main ways of word formation can be observed in Russian too:



Different from English and Russian languages there are five main ways of word formation in modern Uzbek:



As it is seen from the schemes of word formation in the compared languages some similarities and differences can be observed.

The main similarity of forming words is having the way of affixing in all compared languages. And all of them have the subtypes, such as pefixing, suffixing and prefix-suffix. For instance, English prefixes are such particles that can be prefixed to full words and it is mostly characteristic for forming verbs. Prefixes can be considered more independent than suffixes in English. They can be classified according to the nature of words in which they are used: prefixes used in notional words and prefixes used in functional words. Prefixes used in notional words are proper prefixes which are bound morphemes, e.g. *re- (rewrite).* Prefixes used in functional words are semi-bound morphemes because they are met in the language as words, e.g. *over- (overprotected) (cf. over the book).*

Prefixes can be classified according to different principles:

1. Semantic classification:

a) prefixes of negative meaning, such as : *in- (invaluable), non- (non-morphological), un- (unhappy)* etc.

b) prefixes denoting repetition or reversal actions, such as: *de- (deregulate), re- (redo), dis- (disappear).*

c) prefixes denoting time, space, degree relations, such as : *inter- (international) , hyper- (hypertension), ex- (ex-friend), pre- (pre-reading), over- (overhead)* etc.

2. Origin of prefixes can be classified as follows:

a) native (Germanic), such as: ***un-, over-, under-*** etc.

b) Romanic, such as : ***in-, de-, ex-, re-*** etc.

c) Greek, such as:***sym-, hyper-*** etc.

Besides, there are a lot of borrowed prefixes in English:

Auto-

Demi-

Mono-

Multi-

Semi-

Post-

On the contrary with English prefixes Russian and Uzbek have not any classifications in prefixes but they also can show negative meaning such as ***не-*** *неприятный, недоступный,*or in Uzbek ***но-*** *номаълум, номуносиб.* But there are many other types of prefixes in Russian and Uzbek languages such as ***с-, не-, сверх-, при-, раз-*** for forming words such *спутник, неприятель, сверхранний, придавать, раздавать.* There is such verb in Russian which can combine with almost all prefixes:

Ехать	**Говорить**
По-ехать	По-говорить
В-ехать	За-говорить
На-ехать	На-говорить
За-ехать	Вы-говорить
До-ехать	Недо-говорить
С-ехать	
Вы-ехать	
Недо-ехать	
Пере-ехать	
При-ехать	

бе-, ба-, но-, сер-, ҳам- *бебаҳо, баобрў, серҳосил, ҳамшаҳар*and etc. All prefixes in the Uzbek language are borrowed from Tajik and Persian languages.

Thus, prefixation is a productive way of word formation in all languages. And they can form nouns and adjectives besides verbs. For example, in difference from English and Russian Uzbek language prefixes cannot form verbs, they are used for nouns and adjectives. Even though nouns, verbs, and adjectives can be formed in English in the same way as in Russian, the difference between English and Russian is that the adverbs cannot be formed by prefixation in English.

Moreover, there is another similarity of compared languages in aproductive way of forming words is suffixing. The main function of suffixes in compared

languages is to form one part of speech from another, the secondary function is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech. (e.g. *"govern"* is a verb, *"government"* is a noun, and *"music"* is a noun, *"musician"* is also a noun or *"учи"*is a verb, *"учитель"* is a noun,*"суҳбат"* is a noun, *"суҳбатлашди"* is a verb).

Therearedifferentclassificationsofsuffixes:

1. Part-of-speech classification. Suffixes which can form different parts of speecharegivenhere:

a) noun-forming suffixes, such as : ***-er****(criticizer),****-dom****(officialdom),* ***-ism*** *(ageism),****-ник****(работник),****-ец****(продавец),****-увчи****(ўқитувчи),* ***-чилик****(сотувчилик).*

b) adjective-forming suffixes, such as : ***-able****(separable),* ***-less****(useless),-****ous****(glamorous),****-ный****(сильный),****-ной*** *(глазной),* ***-ли*** *(чиройли),* ***-сиз*** *(тузсиз).*

c) verb-forming suffixes, such as***-ize*** *(modernize) ,* ***-ify*** *(modify),* ***-а-ть*** *(завтракать),* ***-нича-ть*** *(умничать),* ***-а*** *(туна),* ***-лан*** *(фахрлан).*

d) adverb-forming suffixes , such as : ***-ly*** *(likely),* ***-о*** *(привычно),* ***-и*** *(дружески),-****лаб****(челаклаб),****-она****(мардона).*

e) numeral-forming suffixes, such as: ***-teen*** *(sixteen),* ***-ty*** *(seventy),* ***-надцать*** *(пятнадцать),* ***-ой (-ый)*** *(шестой),****-та*** *(иккита),* ***-нчи*** *(еттинчи).*

2. Semantic classification . Suffixes changing the lexical meaning of the stem can be subdivided into groups, e.g. noun-forming suffixes can denote:

a) the agent of the action, e.g. ***-er*** *(experimenter),* ***-ist*** *(taxïst),* ***-ent*** *(student),* ***-ок****(игрок),****-чи****(ишчи).*

b) nationality, e.g. ***-ian*** *(Russian),* ***-ese*** *(Japanese),* ***-ish*** *(English).*On the contrary with English Russian and Uzbek can show place of thenation: ***-вич*** *(москвич),-****лик****(Тошкентлик).*

c) quality, e.g. ***-ness*** *(copelessness),* ***-ity*** *(answerability),* ***-увчан*** *(қизиқувчан).*

d) collectivity, e.g. ***-dom*** *(moviedom),* ***-ry*** *(peasantry,* ***-ship*** *(readership),* ***-ati****(literati).*

e) diminutiveness, e.g. ***-ie*** *(horsie),* ***-let*** *(booklet),* ***-ling*** *(gooseling),* ***-ette*** *(kitchenette).*

3. Lexico-grammatical character of the stem. Suffixes which can be added tocertaingroupsofstemsaresubdividedinto:

a) suffixes added to verbal stems, such as: ***-er*** *(commuter),* ***-ing*** *(suffering),* ***- able*** *(flyable),* ***-ment*** *(involvement),* ***-ation*** *(computerization);* ***-ство*** *(правительство),* ***-ация*** *(модернизация);* ***-кич*** *(кўрсаткич),* ***-ги*** *(супурги).*

b) suffixes added to noun stems, such as : ***-less*** *(smogless),* ***-ful*** *(roomful),* ***-ism*** *(adventurism),* ***-ster*** *(pollster),* ***-nik*** *(filmnik),* ***-ish*** *(childish);* ***-ый*** *(гордый),* ***-ный****(умный);****-кор****(пахтакор),****-гар****(заргар).*

c) suffixes added to adjective stems, such as: ***-en*** *(weaken),* ***-ly*** *(pinkly),* ***-ish*** *(longish),* ***-ness*** *(clannishness);* ***-ость*** *(глупость),* ***-и-е*** *(веселье);* ***-лик*** *(гўзаллик), (ёшлик).*

Besides other productive ways such as conversion, compounding and shortening also can be found in the compared languages' word forming system.

Sound interchange is one of the ways of non-productive word formation. And this characterizes only in the English language.The causes of sound interchange can be different. It can be the result of Ancient Ablaut which cannot be explained by the phonetic laws during the period of the language development known to scientists., e.g. *to strike - stroke, to sing - song* etc. It can be also the result of Ancient Umlaut or vowel mutation which is the result of palatalizing the root vowel because of the front vowel in the syllable coming after the root (regressive assimilation), e.g. *hot - to heat (hotian), blood - to bleed (blodian)* etc.

However, stress interchange is occurred in all compared languages:to af`fix - `affix, to con`flict- `conflict, to ex`port -`export, to ex`tract - `extract, `игры-игр`ы, п`оля- пол`я, `янги(adv.) - янг`и (adj.), х`озир(adj.) - ҳоз`ир (adv.) .

Sound imitationis the way of word-building when a word is formed by imitating different sounds. And this type of forming words can be observed in all languages. There are some semantic groups of words formed by means of sound imitation:

a) sounds produced by human beings, such as:*to whisper, to giggle, to mumble, to sneeze, to whistle etc; шептать, чихатьхихикать, бормотать; пичирламоқ,ғўнғирламоқ,мингирламоқ.*

b) sounds produced by animals, birds, insects, such as:*to hiss, to buzz, to bark, to moo, to twitter etc; лаять, мычать, щебетать, вовулламоқ, миёвламоқ,сайрамоқ.*

c) sounds produced by nature and objects, such as:*to splash, to rustle, to clatter, to bubble, to ding-dong, to tinkle etc;звякать, звенеть,греметь, тақилламоқ, шитирламоқ, тарақ-туруқ.*

Blends are words formed from a word-group or two synonyms. In blends, two ways of word-building are combined: abbreviation and composition.Blends formed from two synonyms are:*slanguange, to hustle, gasohol* etc. Mostly blends are formed from a word-group, such as : *acromania (acronym mania), cinemadict (cinema adict), chunnel (channel, canal), dramedy (drama comedy), detectifiction (detective fiction), faction (fact fiction) (fiction based on real facts), informecial (information commercial) , Medicare (medical care) , magalog (magazine catalogue) slimnastics (slimming gymnastics), sociolite (social elite), slanguist (slang linguist)* etc.As it is seen this type of non-producting way of word formation characterizes mostly in English, but in Russian also can be observed

such kind of way of forming words. In this language it is called lexical-syntactic way of forming words e.g. *сумасшедший (сумасшедший), тяжелораненый (тяжелораненный), четыреста (четыреста), наконец (наконец), сейчас (сейчас).*

The back formation is the way of word-building when a word is formed by dropping the final morpheme to form a new word. It is opposite to suffixation, that is why it is called back formation.E.g. it is typical of English to form nouns denoting the agent of the action by adding the suffix -er to a verb stem *(speak-speaker).* So when the French word *"beggar"* was borrowed into English the final syllable "ar" was pronounced in the same way as the English -er,and Englishmen formed the verb "to beg" by dropping the end of the noun.Another example, *babysitter, to bach (from bachelor), to compute (from thecomputer), to emote (from emotion).* Andthis type of forming theword is one of the distinctive features of English among Russian and Uzbek.

One of the Russian non-morphological ways of word formation is lexical semantic, which can express the similar function with Uzbek semantic way of forming words. This type in Russian is explained as homonymous meaning of words which are already existed in the language, e.g. *кулак (кисть руки, сжатая для удара) и кулак (эксплуататор); бабка (то же, что бабушка), бабка (надкопытный сустав ноги у животных), бабка (одна из парных частей токарного станка), бабка (несколько снопов хлеба, уложенных определенным образом);* in Uzbek : *юпқа- қалин эмас(юпқа -сифат, юпқа – от, овқатнинг номи), кўк (ранг,- сифат, кўк-от, осмон).*

The last distinctive feature of Uzbek language word formation way is composition, which cannot be found in other compared languages. This type of forming words is formed by combining two or more words to each other. With the help of this type of word formation compound, pair and repeated words in Uzbek can appear.

Finally, from the analysis of compared languages can be found several similarities and differences in word formation process in these languages. For instance, as a similarity, it is possible to show theexistence of types of affixation in all languages, or amount of derived words and suffixes, which can change the meaning from one part of speech in to another. On the contrary, as a difference can be presented some ways of forming words in English, Russian and Uzbek, which cannot be found in word forming system of other languages. Moreover, the main way of word formation in English is considered compounding, while in Russian and Uzbek it is affixation. Derived words in English mostly can be formed with compounding, affixation and conversion, and in Russian and Uzbek can be

observed two of them besides conversion. In these languages, conversion is not well developed.

Question for self-control:

1. What kind of differences are there in word formation of compared languages?
2. Tell the main types of morphological way of word formation?
3. How can you define adistinctive feature of English word formation?
4. Is there any distinctive feature of Uzbek word formation?
5. Tell about general ways of word formation in compared languages.
6. The problem of interference in foreign language teaching acquisition (Lexical level).

RecommendedLiteratures:

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5. Adams V. Introduction into English Wordformation. Lnd., 1983.
6. Canon G. Historical Changes and English Wordformation: New Vocabulary items. N.Y., 1986.

Topics for self-study

1. Typology of word formation system of the English and Uzbek (Russian) languages.
2. Typology of lexical systems.
3. Theoretical foundation of Lexical typology.
4. Typology of word.

Typology of lexical level of English and Native Languages

1. **Typology** is the study and classification of languages according to structural features, especially patterns of phonology, morphology, and syntax, without reference to their histories.
2. **Cross-language** means relating to languages of different families and types; *especially*: relating to the comparison of different languages; a plural of phenomenon,
a fact, occurrence, or circumstance observed or observable:
to study the phenomena of nature.
3. **Generalisation** is the act or process whereby a learned response is made to a stimulus similar to but not identical with the conditioned stimulus.
4. **Sememe** is the capacity for a sign (such as a word, phrase, or symbol) to have multiple meanings (that is, multiple semes or sememes and thus multiple senses), usually related by contiguity of meaning within a semantic field.
5. **Heterosemy** can be seen as a special case of polysemy, with the difference that in polysemy, the related meanings of a form is associated with the same lexeme.
6. **Semantic**s relating to, or arising from the different meanings of words or oth er symbols: semantic change, semantic confusion;
7. **Explicitly** is something that's said or done explicitly is clear and direct, like an explicitly told story about terrible poverty in India — it leaves out no disturbing details, even if it upsets the listener.
8. **Lexicon** in linguistics, a lexicon is a language's inventory of lexemes
9. **Paradigm** is a set of forms all of which contain a particular element, especially the set of all inflected forms based on a single stem or theme.
10. **Invariance** is the condition or quality of being unchanging; constancy.
11. **Heterogeneous** means different in kind; unlike; incongruous.
12. **The profile** is a brief written description that provides information about someone or something.
13. **Asymmetry** is having two sides or halves that are not the same: not symmetrical.
14. **Assimilation** is the act or process by which a sound becomes identical with or similar to a neighboring sound in one or more defining characteristics, as aplace ofarticulation, voiced or voicelessor manner of articulation.

15. **Conventionalise**isa cause to change; make different; cause a transformation.
16. **Hyphenated** is relating toor designating a person, group or organization of mixed origin or identity.
17. **Semi-bound/semi-free morphemes (or semi-affixes)** are morphemes that stand midway between roots and affixes. A semi-bound morpheme can function as an affix (a prefix or a suffix) and at the same time as an independent full-meaning word (cf.: ill-fed, ill-dressed, ill-mannered - to speak ill of somebody; water proof, kiss-proof, foolproof - proof against).
18. **Prefixation** is a morphological process whereby a bound morpheme is attached to the front of a root or stem.
19. **Conversion** is a kind of word formation involving the creation of a word (of a new word class) from an existing word (of a different word class) without any change in form, which is to say, derivation using only zero.
20. **Blend word** or **ablend** is a word formed from parts of two or more other words. These parts are sometimes, but not always, morphemes.

Seminar 9
Typology of lexical level of English and Native Languages

►Classroom activities

Exercise #1. Work in two small groups. Discuss the following question.

Clarify the terms "semantic typology" and "lexical typology"

Exercise #2. Fill the chart below. What branches of lexical typology do you know?

Lexical typology:

Go round the class and compare your list with other classmates.

Exercise #3. Explain with your own words the following terms to your classmates.

Phonetic typology
Phonological typology
Morphological typology
Syntactic typology
Lexical typology

Exercise #4. Discuss the following questionswith class.

1. How can you define the main unit of lexical level?
2. How can a word be distinguished in all languages?
3. What can be understood in the terms of hyperonyms and hyponyms?
4. How can words be subdivided according to meaning?
5. What kind of types of a word can be found in compared languages?

Exercise #5. Match the terms with their definitions.

1. _____ Simple words
2. _____ Derived words
3._____ Compound words
4._____ Compound-derived words

a) consist of two or more root morphemes, one or more affixes and an inflexion, e.g. "a stay-slim diet", "an out-of-town performance", "do-it-your-self principle".
b) consist of one root morpheme and an inflexion (in many cases the inflexion is zero), e.g. "red", "ask", "leg";
c) consist of one root morpheme, one or several affixes and an inflexion, e.g. " aimless", "unemployed", "disbelief";
d) consist of two or more root morphemes and an inflexion, e.g. "foreign-made", "red-haired", "to daydream";

►Home activities

Exercise #1. Match the definitions.

Typology	deals with the units of lexical levels. It studies inter-lingual paradigms of words, inter-lingual invariance of meanings expressed by words and phrases.
Lexical typology	is the study of patterns that occur systematically across language phrases.
Semantic typology	is the systematic cross-linguistic study of how languages express meaning by way of signs.

Exercise #2. As we know according to the nature of borrowings can be classified in all languages into loan words, translation loans and semantic loans.

Give your own examples:

- A loan word taken over from another proper language can be modified in phonetic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the language. Example:
  Russian→Uzbek: журнал, театр, роман, армия, сюжет, автобус.
  English→Russian→Uzbek:_____

- A translation loans are the words and expressions formed I one language after the patterns characteristic of it but under the influence of some foreign words and expressions. For example:
  Latin: - "tinge maternal" → mother tongue;

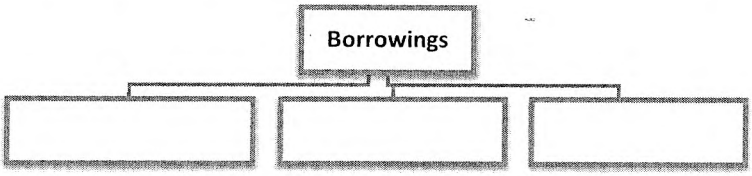
  English: _____
  Russian: _____
  Uzbek:_____

- Semantic borrowings are the appearance of a new meaning due to the influence of a related word in another language. For instance:
  English: mother → Mutter (German) → Madre (Spanish).

Russian: _____

Uzbek: _____

Exercise #3. Fill the cluster. According to the nature of borrowings.



Exercise #4.True/False statements.

1. _____Word is the smallest language unit which can stand alone as a complete utterance.
2. _____Morphologically words can be distinguished monomorphemic and polysemantic.
3. _____ The word "polysemy" means "plurality of meanings" it exists only in speech, not in the language.
4. _____Antonyms in all languages can be subdivided into absolute and derivational.
5. _____According to the structure English words are divided into three main types.
6. _____ Compounds that contain particles are hyphenated.
7. _____ According to the structure Uzbek words subdivided into two major types.
8. _____ There are 4 types of compound words in Uzbek.
9. _____ Compound words consist of two or more root morphemes and an inflexion.
10. _____"man", "mankind", "human", "person" is polysemantic words.

► Activities for self-improvement

Exercise #1.

a) In how many ways borrowings enter the language?

b) Give the samples and fill the table below.

Oral borrowings:	Written borrowings:
	Sombrero (Mex.)
Table, face, figure, chair, sport (Fr.)	

Exercise #2. Fill the table: hand vs. arm, foot vs. leg, finger vs. toe in English, Russian and Uzbek.

English	Russian	Uzbek
hand		қўл
foot	Нога	
		бармоқ
toe		

Exercise #3. As you know, a loan word taken over from another proper language can be modified in phonetic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the language. Give examples.

English→Russian→Uzbek:

_____

_____

_____

Russian→Uzbek:

_____

_____

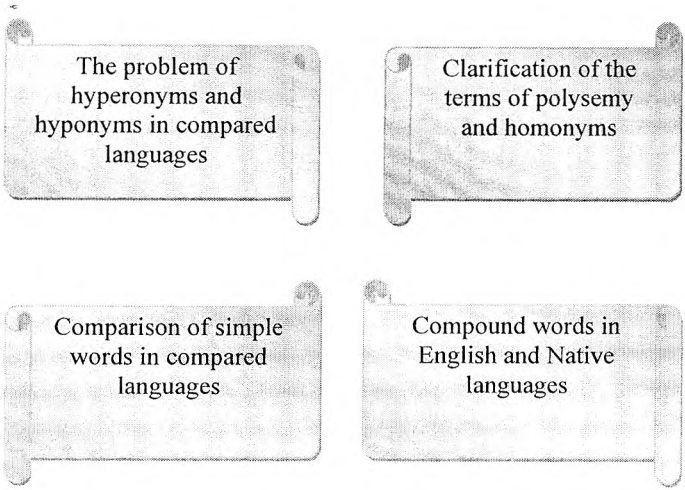
_____

1. Word is the smallest language unit.
2. Classification of theword according to meaning.
3. The difference between polysemy and homonymy.
4. Structural classification of words.
5. Lexical typology of words according to its structure.
6. Lexical typology of words according to its meaning.
7. Lexical typology of borrowings.
8. Lexical typology of phraseology.
9. Lexical typology of proverbs and sayings.

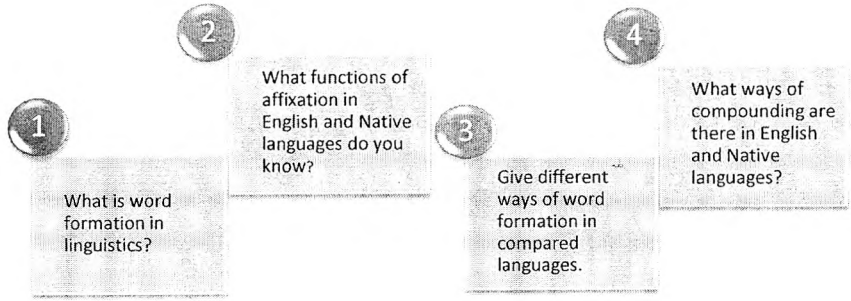
Seminar 10
Typology of lexical level of English and Native Languages

►Classroom activities

Exercise #1. Round table discussion. Work in four groups and discuss these problems in groups. In 10 minutes present your topic, after all make overall conclusion.



Exercise #2. Discuss the following questions in mini groups.



Exercise #3a. Look at the questions in the chart about ways of word formation in English, Russian and Uzbek languages. Write your answers first in the YOU column.

3b. Interview your partner and write his/her answers inYOUR PARTNER column.

Questions	**You**	**Your partner**
The ways ofword formation in modern English		
The ways ofword formation in modern Russian		
Five main ways of word formation in modern Uzbek		

3c. compare your answers with your partner's answers.

►Home activities

Exercise #1. Look at the text about similarities and differences of word formation in compared languages. There are 12 mistakes are underlined in it. Replace them with the correct words from the box below.

origin	**independent**	**prefixing**	**bound**	**negative**	**full**
repetition or reversal		**proper**	**semi-bound**		**prefixes**

The main similarity of forming words is having the way of affixing in all compared languages. And all of them have the subtypes, such as borrowing, suffixing and prefix-suffix. For example, English prefixes are such particles that can be prefixed to separate words and it is mostly characteristic for forming verbs. Prefixes can be considered more dependent than suffixes in English. They can be classified according to the nature of words in which they are used: prefixes used in notional and functional words. Prefixes used in notional words are irrelevant prefixes, which are semi-bound morphemes, e.g. *re- (rewrite).* Prefixes used in functional words are bound morphemes because they are met in the language as words, e.g. *over- (overprotected) (cf. over the book).*

Prefixes can be classified according to different principles:

1. Semantic classification:

a) prefixes of positivemeaning, such as: *in- (invaluable), non- (non-morphological), un- (unhappy)* etc.

b) prefixes denoting planned actions, such as: *de- (deregulate), re- (redo), dis- (disappear).*

c) prefixes denoting time, space, degree relations, such as : *inter- (international) , hyper- (hypertension), ex- (ex-friend), pre- (pre-reading), over- (overhead)* etc.

2.Usage of prefixes can be classified as follows:

a) native (Germanic), such as: ***un-, over-, under-*** etc.

b) Romanic, such as: ***in-, de-, ex-, re-*** etc.

c) Greek, such as: ***sym-, hyper-*** etc.

Besides, there are a lot of borrowed suffixes in English:

Auto-, Demi-, Mono-, Multi-, Semi-, Post-;

Exercise #2. You are given different classifications of suffixes in English, Russian and Uzbek languages. According to the classification match the suffixes with their sub groups.

I. *Part-of-speech classification*

1. noun-forming suffixes — ***-ize , -ify, -а-ть, -а, -лан***
2. adjective-forming suffixes — ***-able, -less,-ous,-ный-ной,-ли,-сиз***
3. verb-forming suffixes — ***-er, -ism, -ник,-ец,-увчи, -чилик,***
4. adverb-forming suffixes — ***-teen , -ty, -надцать , -ой (-ый),-та***

5. numeral-forming suffixes *-ly , -о,-лаб, -она.*

II. Semantic classification

1. nationality *-ness, -ity,-увчан*
2.the agent of the action *- dom, -ry, -ship, -ati*
3. quality *- ian, -ese, -ish,-вич, -лик.*
4.diminutiveness *-er, -ist, -ent, -ок, -чи.*
5. collectivity *-ie, -let, -ling, -ette.*

III. The lexico-grammatical character of the stem.

1. suffixes added to verbal stems *-e,-ly, -ish, -ness,-ость, -и-е,-лик*
2. suffixes added to noun stems **-er, -ing,-*ство, -ация, -кич, -ги***
3.suffixes added to adjective stems *-less, -ful, -ni-ый, -ный,-кор,гар*

Exercise #3. Look at the suffixes in the chart below. Give the examples for each according to the classification in compared languages.

Part-of-speech classification	**Semantic classification**	**Lexico-grammatical character of the stem**
1. -ize , -ify, -а-ть, -а, -лан *Ex.*	***1. - dom, -ry, -ship, -ati*** *Ex.*	***1. -e,-ly, -ish, -ness,-ость, -и-е,-лик*** ***Ex.***
2.*-able, -less,-ous,-ный-ной,-ли,-сиз* *Ex.*	***2. -er, -ist, -ent, -ок, -чи.*** ***Ex.***	***2.* -er, -ing,-*ство, -ация, -кич, -ги*** ***Ex.***
*3. -er, -ism, -ник,-ец,-*увчи, *-чилик* *Ex.*	***3. - ian, -ese, -ish,-вич, -лик.*** *Ex.*	***3. -less, -ful, -ni-ый, -ный,-кор,гар*** ***Ex.***

4. -teen , -ty, -надцать , -ой (-ый),-та *Ex.*	***4.-ness, -ity,-увчан*** ***Ex.***	

►Activities for self-improvement

Exercise #1. Are these statements true (√) or false (×)? Correct the false statements.

1. _____Stress interchange is occurred in all compared languages.
2. _____ Sound interchange is one of the ways of productive word formation.
3. _____ Sound imitation is the way of word-building when a word is formed by imitating different sounds.
4. _____ Sounds produced by animals, birds, insects, such as: to hiss, to buzz, to bark, to moo, to twitter etc; лаять, мычать, щебетать, вовулламоқ, миёвламоқ, сайрамоқ.
5. _____ Sounds produced by human beings, such as : to splash, to rustle, to clatter, to bubble, to ding-dong, to tinkle etc; звякать, звенеть, греметь, тақиллāмоқ, шитирламоқ, тарақ-тўрук.
6. _____ In blends three ways of word-building are combined.
7. _____ Back formation is the way of word-building when a word is formed by dropping the final morpheme to form a new word.
8. _____ One of the Russian non-morphological ways of word formation is semantic, which can express the similar function with Uzbek semantic way of forming words.
9. _____ The last distinctive feature of Uzbek language word formation way is composition, which cannot be found in other compared languages.
10. _____ The main way of word formation in English is considered affixation, while in Russian and Uzbek it iscompounding.

Exercise #2. Check your comprehension on comparative analysis of English and Native languages word-formation types.

Tick√ what can you understand.

• Can differentiate the ways of word formation in English, Russian and Uzbek languages	
• Can understand differences and similarities of word formation in compared lamguages.	
• Can understand different classifications of suffixes in English, Russian and Uzbek languages	

Test yourself on Typology of lexical level of English and Native Languages

1. What does study Lexical typology?

a) It deals with the meaning of words both lexically and semantically
b) It deals with the units of lexical levels
c) It deals with structural meanings of words
d) It deals with the units of morphological and lexical levels

2. Give definition of the lexical typology…

a) It is a systematic cross-linguistic study of how languages express meaning by way of signs
b) It is an independent branch of linguistic typology and concerns to every level of language hierarchy
c) It is an independent branch of linguistic typology and deals with a comparison of the units of lexical units
d) It is an independent branch of linguistic typology and deals with some problems of grammar

3. From how many branches Lexical typology consists of?

a) 5
b) 4
c) 6
d) 7

4. What kind of dimensions has Lexical-typological research?
   a) Synchronic and diachronic
   b) Synchronic and panchronic
   c) Diachronic and panchronic
   d) Synchronic, diachronic and panchronic

5. What language is considered as a single-morphemic structure of a word?
   a) Russian
   b) English
   c) Turkish
   d) Uzbek

6. What is word changing type of forming words in every language?
   a) It is a type which includes morphemes of case affixes, personal endings and etc.
   b) It is a type which includes various types of its content and its form according to its place in the word such affixes and prefixes
   c) It is a type which content can be equal to the word

7. *To try- a try, round-round, hand- to hand* what kind of type of the way of word forming is it?
   a) Word changing
   b) Word building
   c) Word helping
   d) Single-morphemic
8. How many adjective building suffixes exist in order to build adjectives from nouns?
   a) 10
   b) 9
   c) 20
   d) 7

9. What is anagglutinative way of forming words?
   a) when affixing morphemes are added to root automatically without changing its phoneme structure
   b) when with adding affixing morphemes their phoneme structure can be changed
   c) when the content can be equal to the word

10. What languages contain a group of adjectives, which characterizes emotional coloring of diminutively pet meanings?
    a) Russian and English
    b) English and Uzbek
    c) Only Uzbek
    d) Russian and Uzbek

11. In what languages are root morphemes equal to the word according to its sound content?
    a) Flective
    b) Agglutinative
    c) Isolating
    d) Polysynthetic

12. *"Kick the bucket, марғузи қўлтиғидан тушиб кетди"*. What kind of type of phraseological units are they?
    a) Phraseological collocations
    b) Phraseological units
    c) Phraseological fusions
    d) Phraseological idioms

13. What are phraseological collocations?
    a) They are the units when one of the words of the phrase has its lexical meaning and connected to another one
    b) They are a relation of words where the content of words don't have their lexical meanings
    c) They are such kind of phrases where the lexical meaning of a word are expressed with their own

14. *To keep an eye, to kill two birds with one stone, ширин сўз, оғир йиғит* into what type of phraseological units they can be included?
    a) Phraseological collocations
    b) Phraseological units
    c) Phraseological fusions
    d) Phraseological idioms

15. How in English the meaning of gender may be expressed?
    a) Lexical – semantic means
    b) Syntactic means

c) The use of suffixes
d) The use of prefix

TOPICS FOR PRESENTATIONS

1. Main classifications of word formation in compared languages.
2. Functions of affixation in English and Native languages.
3. Different ways of word formation in compared languages.
4. Ways of compounding in English and Native languages.
5. Word formation typology.
6. Typology of a productive way of word formation.
7. Typology of the non-productive way of word formation in English and Native languages.
8. The role of the semantic way of word formation in English and Native languages.

VI. Interrelation of Comparative Typology with anthropocentric trends of Linguistics

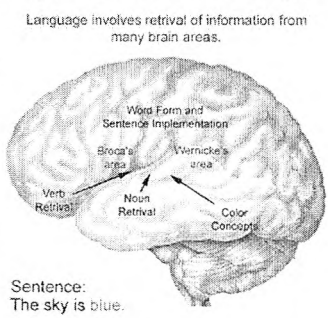
6.1. Typology in Modern trends inLinguistics

Key points for discussion:

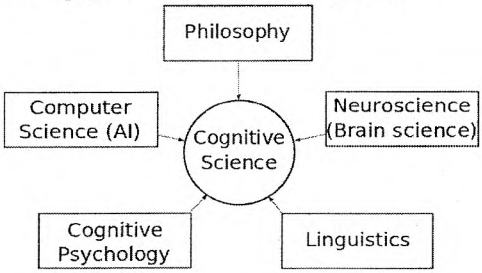
- Appearance of anthropocentric paradigm
- Understanding the term of "Cognitive science"
- Role of typology in modern trends of linguisitics

It is known that linguistics and variety fields of it were developed in every period of developing process. Hence, we can observe that in XVIII century, there were mostly done researches of comparative-historical investigations among related languages and in the last century collection of anthropocentric, functional, cognitive and dynamic paradigms occupied the position of structural paradigm. Movement of interests of researcher from the object of cognition to the subject in anthropocentric paradigm, with another word it can be understood the analysis of language in ahuman being and human being in language.

The anthropocentric paradigm is the last and modern scientific paradigm where the problem of human in language and language in ahuman being is analyzed, i.e. interrelation of human and language becomes the main object of linguistic researches. This paradigm appeared in the 30s of the XXth century with the linguistic works of American philosophers and linguists, and a number of great linguists all over the world developed it.List of areas are developing in the anthropocentric paradigm of the modern linguistics such as pragmatics, sociolinguistics, ethnolinguistics, psycholinguistics, linguistic anthropologyand cognitive linguistics, linguistic culturology and gender linguistics are considered the urgent directions of it. Cognitive linguistics investigates language as amechanism of transformation and codification of it. The aim of this linguistics covers the cognition of the world from one's point of view and ways of appearing of receiving processes, categorization, and classification of it.



According to a number of specialists, cognitive linguistics and linguaculturology are progressing in the frame of the collection of single general cognitive sciences [Kubryakova, 1994, 37-47]. The term of "Cognitive science" includes learning processes jointly, receiving them and reworking, saving and using, organizing thestructure of knowledge and collection, furthermore, it arranges collection of a certain scientific thought which is joint for forming the mental activity of these structures. Cognitive science is closely connected with mathematics, logic, philosophy, anthropology, and linguistics.



Linguaculturology is a complex scientific science direction appeared on the basis of inter reaction of linguistics and culturology. This direction investigates interconnection between culture and language and researches the language as a phenomenon of culture. It shows the observation of the world in the certain view by the cultural prism and by a certain nation's mind and culture.

It is known that the first researches on gender started to be investigated in western humanitarian sciences. The reason of appearing them was the new views of investigations of the problems of intelligence, philosophy of science and philosophy of society.

Specifically, such anchor domains in modern linguistic research as communication, interaction, culture, habitus, cybernetics, culture, and cognition can be considered as a target of comparative typology.

Questions for self-control:

1. What can be understood under the term of anthropocentric paradigm?
2. What does "Cognitive science" include?
3. How can the modern trends of the general linguistics be defined?

6.2. Typology of cultural concepts of English and Native languages

Key points for discussion:

- Lingua culture in linguistics.
- Understanding culture and language.
- Cultural concept in compared languages.

Traditionally, theculture was understood in terms of formal or "high" culture (literature, art, music, and philosophy) and popular or "low" culture. From this perspective, one main reason for studying a language is to be able to understand and appreciate the high culture of the people who speak that language. The pop culture is regarded as inferior and not worthy of study.

Some scientists define culture as an integrated pattern of human behavior that includes thoughts, communications, languages, practices, beliefs, values, customs, courtesies, rituals, manners of interacting and roles, relationships and expected behaviors of a racial, ethnic, religious or social group; and the ability to transmit the above to succeeding generations.

In this understanding of "deep culture," language and culture are integral to one another. The structure of language and the ways it is used reflect the norms and values that members of a culture share. However, they also determine how those norms and values are shared because language is the means through which culture is transmitted.

The communicative competence model is based on this understanding of the relationship between language and culture. Linguistic, discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence each incorporate facets of culture, and the development of these competences is intertwined with the development of cultural awareness. "The exquisite connection between the culture that is lived and the language that is

spoken can only be realized by those who possess a knowledge of both" [National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, 1999, p. 47].

According to**V. N. Telia,** culture is described as a world-conception, world-perception,and world-comprehension of a people. (This statement does not certainly deny the material component of culture but only puts in focus its "ideal" / mental component, which is much more significant for lingual-cultural and lingual-cognitive studies.) Therefore, lingua-culture is the verbalized culture, the culture externalized in signs of language. Hence, signs of language (in the linguistic sense of this term) are regarded as the substances for signs of culture. Culture itself is not; however, simply a body of knowledge but rather a framework in which people live their lives and communicate shared meanings with each other. Regarding the benefits of learning about theculture, attending the culture class has raised cultural awareness in ELT students concerning both native and target societies.

Conceptual researches have an important role as well in linguaculturology as cognitive linguistics. The Cultural concept is considered as a subject of research of linguaculturology. In linguaculturology concept can be understood as "cultural-mental-lexical" expression.

The Cultural concept is considered as amultifunctional mental expression. According to the opinion of **Yu. S. Stepanov** concept is a part of the culture in the mind of ahuman being and with this, he includes the culture into the mental world of ahuman being [Stepanov, 1997, 40-76]. The dyad of "language and human being" of anthropocentric paradigm changes into the construction of "language-human being-culture" in linguaculturology.As an example, the concept of "love" can be analyzed from thelingua-cultural point of view.The concept "love" itself has broad sense and it can be interpreted with avariety of notions and conceptions from acultural point of view. Hence, if we see it from aphilosophical point of view, this concept can be analyzed as thetracident-social-financial level in different nation and culture. Besides, the national-cultural features of this concept explicitly shown in the literature and poetry of variety nations. For example, in Western nations, this concept is devoted

to human being with great passion and feelings, but in Eastern poetry mostly the great love is devoted to God from areligious point of view.

The word "квас"in Russian is used as a component in the phraseological unit *"перебиваться с хлеба на квас на воду"* with the meaning "live from hand to mouth", be extremely poor". Kvass (квас) is a national drink made from rye bread and malt.Phraseological units containing such national components also exist in the English language. For example, the name of the English river Avon is a component of the phraseological expression *"Sweet Swan of Avon"* [Koonin 1984:738]. In Uzbek, mostly "green tea" is considered as anational component in such examples as *"бир пиёла чой устида"*with the meaning of pleasant conversation or discussion of a serious issue.

There can be observed linguaculturological analysis of the category of possessiveness in the culture of languages belonging to the different language systems like English and Uzbek. One can witness the culture of English and Uzbek nation with the national-coloring phraseological units expressed by the category of possessiveness. In the following circumstances possessiveness with expressing national-cultural features can be formed in English:

- Mostly, in phrases expressed with possessive pronouns, although it is known that British country is amonarchy and here can be seen the units showing this monarchial culture of this country in the context: ***My Fair Lady, Your Highness, His Master's Voice.***
- Naming with possessive units the names of stores, restaurants, churches, colleges with names of their owners or with names of their profession: ***the grocer's, the chemist's, Luigi's.***

There is also arange of phrases, which convey national-coloring features of Uzbek nation:

- Possessive relations can be formed by possessive pronouns and with -дир short form of notional verb *"бор бўлмоқ" (to be):Мен Зарифаман, биз инсондирмиз!*
- Possessiveness can be expressed with the notions of respect which characterizes one of the features of Uzbek nation. For instance, in such phrases like *"ҳурматли президентимиз"* ("our respectful president"), *"меҳрибон отамиз"* ("our kind father") one can observe joining of possessive affix of the third person plural to the third person singular. Such way of uttering characterizes great respect to these people in the culture of Uzbek and East people. Moreover, it is considered like thedistinctive side of this nation.
- Possessiveness can also be used in expressing irony in the Uzbek culture. Furthermore, in such phrases as *"тақдиримиз шу экан", "ҳа, энди*

дилимиздаги кўриниб турибди" first person singular is expressed with the form of first person plural. Changing the places of affixes of plurality and singularity also can be observed in the languages as Uzbek.

The differences of linguaculturological features of the category of possessiveness between English and Uzbek can be illustrated essentially in Uzbek culture. In such situations like governing in the family relations, in therelationship of family members and while speaking about them or in the process of addressing to them the power of possessing above family members shows the culture of Uzbek people. Because such kind of relationship in British family and in their culture cannot be characterized.

In linguaculturology, it is requested to investigate cultural picture of the world together with complex mores in the language. There is a list of circumstances in investigating the cultural picture of the world, which is introduced by a number of specialists (such as N. Terebixin, V. Toporova, G. Gachev):

1) Cultural world picture includes all humankind and their distinctive features in the language.

2) In the cultural world picture, cultural notions, which are used and kept in the language, cultural-traditional dominants, concepts that create certain types of culture, can be observed.

3) Cultural world picture cannot express universal understanding in the frame of one language culture. Because various nations can have various mores.

4) Cultural world picture exists not only in the individual cognizance but also in social cognizance. [Karasik, 1996, 5].

Linguaculturology shows the separation of cultural world picture from the universal picture of theworld from the linguistic point of view.

Questions for self-control:

1. How "culture" can be interpreted in anthropocentric paradigm?
2. How can you define the term "cultural concept"?
3. What kind of characteristics of national colouring features of phraseological units can be compared in typology?
4. How can cultural world picture be classified?

RecommendedLiteratures

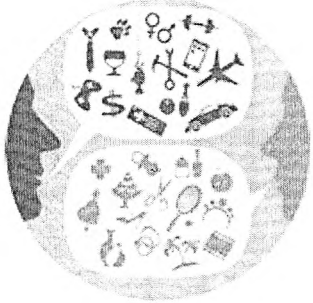
1. Ma'rufovZ.M., O'zbektiliningizohlilug'atiI-II, M., Russkiyyazik, 1981, p. 63, 97, 110.
2. Weedon, Chris Feminist Practice and Poststructuralist Theory. Oxford: Basil Blackwell. 2nd edn. 1996.
3. Маслова В. А. М 31 Лингвокультурология: Учеб. пособие для студ. высш. учеб, заведений. -- М., «Академия», 2001, С. 35.
4. Матушка-Русь: Опыт гендерного анализа поисков национальной идентичности России в отечественной и западной историософии. М.: Ладомир, 2001. С. 25.
5. National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project. Standards for foreign language learning in the 21st century. Yonkers, NY: Author. 1999.

6.3. Typology in Gender Linguistics of English and Native languages

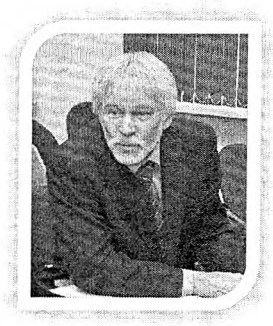
Key points for discussion:

- Interconnection of gender and language.
- Features of the term "gender".
- Characteristics of male and female characters.

In linguistics, the new directions of anthropocentric paradigm have been developing in recent years and gender linguistics can be included in this development. It is known that the first researches on gender started to be investigated in western humanitarian sciences. The reason of appearing them was the new views of investigations of the problems of intelligence, philosophy of science and philosophy of society. "Gender" is considered the main object of genderology. It includes anational description of cultures, the roles of male and female in society and their relationship and behavior.



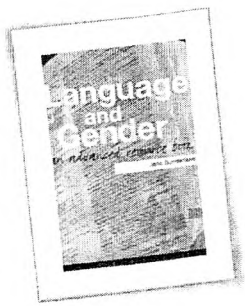
Post-structuralism has provided a major challenge to essentialist notions of gender and has been crucial in the developing understanding of gender.With its emphasis on the constitutive nature of discourse, it has thoroughly informed linguistic study – and indeed has been largely responsible for the "linguistic turn" in many other disciplines.Chris Weedon famously characterized language as 'the place where actual and possible forms of social organization and their likely social and political consequences are defined and contested. Yet it is also the place where our sense of selves, our subjectivity is constructed' [Weedon,1987, 21].



In addition, the term "gender" is considered as one of the problematic concepts in this direction of linguistics. The main attention of linguists was paid to distinguish the terms of "gender" and "sex". Cameron points out that a 'correlational' relationship between sex and gender is usually seen in one of two possible ways: first, that gendered behavior is 'built on' to pre-existing sex differences, and, second, that the sex-gender relationship may be arbitrary, but that there will always be gender differences in behavior, which then come to "symbolize" sex (1997p). This sex–gender relationship entails differences or tendencies in what women and men do and say, stemming from the notion of gender as an idea about the importance of differentiation between women and men."Gender refers to the array of socially constructed roles and relationships, personality traits, attitudes, behaviors, values, relative power and influence that society ascribes to the two sexes on a differential basis. Whereas biological sex is determined by genetic and anatomical characteristics, gender is an acquired identity that is learned, changes over time and varies widely within and across cultures. Gender is relational and refers not simply to women or men but to the relationship between them". **O.V. Ryabov** explains the

relationship of these two terms as one whole and part: "Sex is biological, consists of sociocultural sex with sociocultural elements. That is why "gender" and "sex" is appeared as "whole and part".

Genderological analysis of a language can serve in understanding not only its anthropocentric paradigm but also its male and female peculiarities. The opinion of **V.A.Maslova** can be anexample for this understanding: "human being can receive themajority of data through linguistic frequency, therefore human lives in his own world created by himself with intellectual, spiritual and social need concepts than the world of things". Moreover, through gender humanity can understand and evaluate the existence as individual and collective consciousness, they can investigate flamboyant relationships of ahuman being based on relations between male and female. Thus, gender as a meaningful source identifies all sociocultural sides of human's life.



According to **Jane Sunderland** gender can be found and can be analyzed in the following contexts:

The list below represents a starting point:

- ✓ in differences between women and men, boysand girls;
- ✓ in similarities between women and men, boys and girls;
- ✓ in diversity within women, within men, within boys, within girls;
- ✓ in aspects of linguistic dealings with (individual, and groups of) women, men, boys, and girls, for example, how they are addressed, what is said to them('hearer sex');
- ✓ in aspects of what is said and written about gender differences/tendencies,similarities, and diversity;
- ✓ in aspects of what is said and written about (individual, and groups of) women,men, boys and girls (the assumption being that gender may be relevant in suchspoken and written texts).

Gender can be observed in the vocabulary of every nation. Male and female characteristics are reflected in phraseological units and proverbs in the vocabulary

of different ethnos and cultures. As an example, a number of groups of phraseological units can be used for comparison of genderological features of three languages:

- a list of phraseological units can be related only male features such as:*general's battle, brother of the angle → шутгороховый, рыцарьбезстрахаиупрека→ қулоғидакункўринибқопти, жонкуйдирмасанг - жононақайда.*
- a list of phraseological units can be related only male features such as:*lady of the house, one's good lady, → подругажизни, талияврюмочку→ онасиўпмаган, аёлмакриқирқтуягаюк.*

Another example can be observed in thehidden sematic form of possessiveness:

- Phraseological units with the peculiarities of male and female appearances and their characters that cannot be met in the language system of other cultures or nations and their possessive concepts have hidden semantic distinctiveness. For instance, English *"May Queen"* (May-queen a young woman crowned with flowers as queen on Mayday, hyponyms can be filled, girl, miss, missy, young lady, young woman, i.e. the full structure of "May Queen" is "Queen of the May", and obviously the hidden form of possessiveness can be observed here).*"Girl Friday"* (it is a female employee who has a wide range of duties, usually including secretarial and clerical work, originally by extension, from the character Man Friday in Robinson Crusoe, and structurally it is "girl (man) of Friday"). In Uzbek *"устасифаранг"* (expert of his work), *"бекойим"* (mother or wife of beks (landlords) and form of addressing to them), the structural form of possessiveness is *"бекнингонаси"* and others.
- Phraseological units of male and female characters, which can be observed in lexicology of most languages. For example, in Uzbek *"эркаксабзи"* or *"эркакшода"* is used for women who do the work of men and in appearance. Also, looks like a man, or in English, the equivalent of this phrase can be *"blue stocking"* (an intellectual or literary woman originally late XVIIth century: originally used to describe a man wearing blue worsted (instead of formal black silk) stockings; extended to mean 'in aninformal dress'. Later the term denoted a person who attended the literary assemblies held (circa1750) by three London society women, where some of the men favored less formal dress. The women who attended became known as bluestocking women or blue-stockingers). However, in Russian, there are such characteristics of thefemale character. Instead of this, they interpret female as ascandalous creature as *базарнаябаба*or androcentric metaphor like *аппетитнаяженщина*etc.

Questions for self-control:

1. What are the main reasons of appearing gender linguistics?
2. With what gender typology can be dealt?
3. How can you define the term "gender"?
4. What can gender features be compared ingender typology?

Recommended Literature:

1. Cameron, Deborah 'Review: Deborah Tannen: You Just Don't Understand! Women and Men in Conversation', Feminism and Psychology 2 (3): 465–89.
2. Jane Sunderland Language and Gender: An advanced resource book 2006 385p
3. Ma'rufov Z.M., O'zbek tilining izohli lug'ati I-II, M., Russkiy yazik, 1981, p. 63, 97, 110.
4. Weedon, Chris Feminist Practice, and Poststructuralist Theory. Oxford: Basil Blackwell. 2nd edn. 1996.
5. Маслова В. А. М 31 Лингвокультурология: Учеб. пособие для студ. высш. учеб, заведений. -- М., «Академия», 2001, С. 35.
6. Матушка-Русь: Опыт гендерного анализа поисков национальной идентичности России в отечественной и западной историософии. М.: Ладомир, 2001. С. 25.
7. Карасик, Культурные доминанты в языке // Языковая личность: культурные концепты. Волгоград - Архангельск, 1996.
8. КирилинаА.В. Исследование гендера в лингвистических научных дисциплинах // Гендерные образование в системе высшей и средней школы: состояние и перспективы: Материалы международной научной конференции, Иваново, 2003.

Topics for self-study

1. The role of typology in modern trends of linguistics.
2. Comparative typology and Methods of Teaching the English language
3. Comparative typology and Lingua culture
4. Comparative typology and Gender linguistics
5. Comparative typology and concepts

Typology in Modern trends of linguistics

1. **Cognitive science** is the interdisciplinary, scientific study of the mind and its processes. It examines the nature, the tasks, and the functions of cognition.
2. **Anthropocentric** is interpreting or regarding the world in terms of human values and experiences.
3. **Paradigm** is an example serving as a model; apattern or is a distinct set of concepts or thought patterns, including theories, research methods, postulates, and standards for what constitutes legitimate contributions to a field.
4. **Categorization** is the process in which ideas and objects are recognized, differentiated, and understood. It implies that objects are grouped into categories, usually for some specific purpose.
5. **Pragmatics** is a subfield of linguistics and semiotics that studies the ways in which context contributes to meaning.
6. **Anthropology** is the study of various aspects of humans within societies of the past and present.
7. **Cultural anthropology** is a branch of anthropology focused on the study of cultural variation among humans and is in contrast to social anthropology, which perceives cultural variation as a subset of the anthropological constant.
8. **Linguistic anthropology** is the interdisciplinary study of how language influences social life. It is a branch of anthropology that originated from the endeavor to document endangered languages and has grown over the past century to encompass most aspects of language structure and use.
9. **Sociolinguistics** is the descriptive study of the effect of any and all aspects of society, including cultural norms, expectations, and context, on the way language is used, and the effects of language use on society.
10. **Ethnolinguistics** (sometimes called **cultural linguistics**) is a field of linguistics, which studies the relationship between language and culture, and the way different ethnic groups perceive the world. It is the combination between ethnology and linguistics.
11. **Psycholinguistics** or **psychology of language** is the study of the psychological and neurobiological factors that enable humans to acquire, use, comprehend and produce language.
12. **Cognitive linguistics** refers to the branch of linguistics that interprets language in terms of the concepts, sometimes universal, sometimes specific to a particular tongue, which underlies its forms. It is thus closely associated with semantics but is distinct from psycholinguistics, which draws upon empirical

findings from cognitive psychology in order to explain the mental processes that underlie the acquisition, storage, production and understanding of speech and writing.

13. **Habitus** is a system of embodied dispositions, tendencies that organize the ways in which individuals perceive the social world around them and react to it.

14. **Cybernetics** is a transdisciplinary approach for exploring regulatory systems, their structures, constraints, and possibilities. In the 21st century, the term is often used in a rather loose way to imply "control of any system using technology."

15. **Communicative competence** is a term in linguistics which refers to a language user's grammatical knowledge of syntax, morphology, phonology and the like, as well as social knowledge about how and when to use utterances appropriately.

16. **World view** or **worldview** is the fundamental cognitive orientation of an individual or society encompassing the entirety of the individual or society's knowledge and point of view.

17. **Linguistic World Picture** is a part of the cognitive paradigm in linguistics. It is used in analyzing natural languages.

18. In sociolinguistics and other social sciences, **gender** refers to sexual identity in relation to culture and society. The ways in which words are used can both reflect and reinforce social attitudes toward gender. In the U.S., the interdisciplinary study of language and gender was initiated by linguistics professor Robin Lakoff in her book Language and Woman's Place (1975).

19. **Gender studies** is a field for interdisciplinary study devoted to gender identity and gendered representation as central categories of analysis. This field includes women's studies (concerning women, feminism, gender, and politics), men's studies and queer studies. Sometimes, gender studies are offered together with thestudy of sexuality. These disciplines study gender and sexuality in the fields of literature, language, geography, history, political science, sociology, anthropology, cinema, media studies, human development, law, and medicine. It also analyzes how race, ethnicity, location, class, nationality, and disability intersect with the categories of gender and sexuality.

20. **Gender relations** are encoded in linguistic and symbolic representations, normative concepts, social practices, institutions and social identities.

Seminar 11
Typology in Modern trends of linguistics

►Classroom activities

Exercise #1. Work in groups. Discuss the following question.

What is the role of Typology in Modern trends of linguistics?

Exercise #2. Match the Dates with the right investigations.

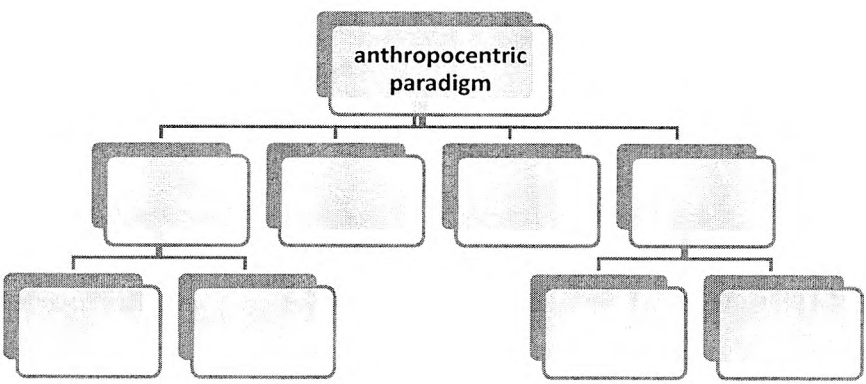
1. XVIII century	**a.** The anthropocentric paradigm appeared
2. the 30s of the XXth century	**b.** Investigations in comparative typology was developed

Exercise #3a. As we know, the concept of linguaculturology can be understood as "cultural-mental-lexical" expression. Clearly, linguacultualogy means cultural behavior of any nation and some phrases appear from the cultural spirit of a nation *(for example,the word "квас" in Russian is used as a component in the phraseological unit "перебиватьсясхлебаинаквасинаводу" with the meaning "live from hand to mouth", be extremely poor". Kvass (квас) is a national drink made from rye bread and malt. Phraseological units containing such national components also exist in the English language. For example, the name of the English river Avon is a component of the phraseological expression "Sweet Swan of Avon". In Uzbek, mostly "green tea" is considered as anational component in such examples as "бир пиёла чой устида" with the meaning of pleasant conversation or discussion of a serious issue).*
Based on the above-mentioned samples find out national coloring words, which can be asymbol of theculture of compared languages.

English	Russian	Uzbek

b. Go round the class and compare your list with the group. Add by one interesting phrase from other students. Discuss the reasons why do you think so with the group.

Exercise #4. Collect the recently developed areas of the anthropocentric paradigm of the modern linguistics to the following table.



►Home activities

Exercise #1. Gender can be observed in the vocabulary of every nation. Male and female characteristics are reflected in phraseological units and proverbs in the vocabulary of different ethnos and cultures. As an example, a number of groups of phraseological units can be used for comparison of genderological features of three languages. Learn the following phrases and continue the list with your own examples:

- a list of phraseological units can be related only male features such as: *general's battle, brother of the angle → шут гороховый, рыцарь без страха и упрека → қулоғида кун кўриниб қопти, жон куйдирмасанг – жонона қайда.*

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- a list of phraseological units can be related only male features such as: *lady of the house, one's good lady, → подруга жизни, талия в рюмочку → онаси ўпмаган, аёл макри қирқ туяга юк.*

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Exercise #2. Summarizing the topic "Typology in Modern trends of linguistics" complete the following table with your ideas that you thought about the topic before and what are you thinking about it now?

Before	After

Exercise #3. Basing on the results of your notes of "Before" and "After" in Exercise 8 prepare 5-minute report presentation.

►Activities for self-improvement

Exercise #1. Complete the text with the right word from a box.

Linguaculturology	Cognitive science	phenomenon	mechanism of transformation

Cognitive linguistics investigates language as _____ and codification of it. The aim of this linguistics covers the cognition of the world from one's point of view and ways of appearing of receiving processes, categorization, and classification of it. The term of "Cognitive science" includes learning processes jointly, receiving them and reworking, saving and using, organizing the structure of knowledge and collection, furthermore, it arranges collection of a certain scientific thought which is joint for forming the mental activity of these structures. _____is closely connected with mathematics, logic, philosophy, anthropology and linguistics. However, _____is a complex scientific science direction appeared in the basis of inter reaction of linguistics and culturology. This direction investigates interconnection between culture and language, and researches the language as a _____of culture. It shows the observation of the world in the certain view by the cultural prism and by a certain nation's mind and culture.

Exercise #2. Read the statements below and choose whether they are True or False.

1. "Gender" is considered the main object of genderology, which includes aninternational description of cultures, the roles of male and female in society and their relationship and behavior.

True/False

2. Chris Weedon famously characterized language as 'the place where actual and possible forms of social organization and their likely social and political consequences are defined and contested.

True/False

3. The term "gender" is considered as one of the problematic concepts in this direction of linguistics.

True/False

4. Yu.Stepanov points out that a 'correlational' relationship between sex and gender is usually seen in one of two possible ways: first, that gendered behavior is 'built on' to pre-existing sex differences, and, second, that the sex-gender relationship may be arbitrary, but that there will always be gender differences in behavior, which then come to "symbolize" sex.

True/False

5. Genderological analysis of a language can serve in understanding not only its anthropocentric paradigm but also its male and female peculiarities.

True/False

Test yourself on Interrelation of typology with anthropocentric trends of linguistic

1. In XVIII century, there were mostly done researches of comparative-historical investigations among related languages and in the last century collection of _____ paradigms occupied the position of structural paradigm.
   a) anthropocentric, functional
   b) functional, cognitive and dynamic
   c) functional, cognitive
   d) anthropocentric, functional, cognitive and dynamic

2. The anthropocentric paradigm appeared...
   a) in the 30s of the XXth century
   b) in the 40s of the XXth century
   c) in the 50s of the XXth century
   d) in the XIXth century

3. Cognitive linguistics investigates language as mechanism of ...
   a) codification and classification of it
   b) categorization and classification of it
   c) transformation and codification of it
   d) transformation and categorization of it

4. Linguaculturology is...
   a) complex linguistic science direction appeared in the basis of inter reaction of linguistics and culturology
   b) b complex scientific science direction appeared in the basis of inter reaction of linguistics and culturology
   c) complex scientific science direction appeared on the basis of inter reaction of culture and linguistics
   d) complex scientific science direction appeared on the basis of inter reaction of linguistics and literature

5. The communicative competence model is based on...
   a) this understanding of the relationship between language and culture
   b) literature, art, music, and philosophy
   c) the high culture of the people who speak that language
   d) the pattern of human behavior that includes thoughts, communications, languages, practices, beliefs

6. According to V. Telia, culture is described as a ...
   a) world-conception, world-perception, and world-comprehension of a people
   b) world-conception, world- connection of a people
   c) world-conception, world- connection and world- competence of a people
   d) world-conception, world-perception, and world- practices of a people

7. Lingua-culture is...
   a) the verbalized art, the culture externalized in signs of language
   b) the verbalized culture, the culture externalized in signs of language
   c) the verbalized culture, the culture internalized in signs of language
   d) the verbalized cultural awareness, the culture externalized in signs of language

8. In linguaculturology concept can be understood as...

a. "cultural-grammaticall-lexical" expression
b. "grammatical-mental-lexical" expression
c. "cultural-mental-grammatical" expression
d. "cultural-mental-lexical" expression

9. "Sex is biological, consists of sociocultural sex with sociocultural elements. That is why "gender" and "sex" is appeared as "whole and part" explains ...

a) V.A.Maslova
b) O.V. Ryabov
c) Jane Sunderland
d) Yu. S. Stepanov

10. In Western nations, the concept "love" is devoted to...
a) a human being with great passion and feelings
b) great love is devoted to God
c) love devoted to parents
d) love that is devoted to children

11. Cognitive science is closely connected with...
a) anthropology, ethno linguistics, mathematics
b) sociolinguistics, ethno linguistics, psycholinguistics
c) mathematics, logic, philosophy, anthropology, and linguistics
d) philosophy of science, anthropology, and linguistics

12. In Uzbek "эркаксабзи" or "эркакшода" in English can be the equivalent...
a) landlord
b) blue stocking
c) brother of the angle
d) black-stocking

13. ... refers to the array of socially constructed roles and relationships, personality traits, attitudes, behaviors, values, relative power and influence that society ascribes to the two sexes on a differential basis
a) sex
b) gender logical analysis
c) existence
d) gender

14. The first researches on gender started to be investigated in ... humanitarian sciences.
    a) eastern
    b) south-western
    c) western
    d) both southern and western

15.... includes anational description of cultures, the roles of male and female in society and their relationship and behavior
    a) gender
    b) culture
    c) linguistics
    d) biological sex

TOPICS FOR PRESENTATIONS

1. The appearance of anthropocentric paradigm.
2. Understanding the term of "Cognitive science".
3. The role of typology in modern trends of linguistics.
4. Lingua culture in linguistics.
5. Understanding culture and language.
6. Typology of cultural concept in compared languages.
7. Characteristics of national colouring features of phraseological units in compared languages.
8. Interconnection of gender and language.
9. Characteristics of male and female characters.
10. Comparison of gender features in compared languages.

Answer keys

Seminar 1

Comparative typology as a branch of General Linguistics

▶Classroom activities

Exercise #4. Read the statements below and choose whether they are True or False.

11.True
12.False
13.False
14. False

15.True
16.True
17.True
18.True
19.False
20. False

►Home activities

Exercise #1. Read the statements below and choose whether they are True or False.

7. **True**
8. **False**
9. **True**
10. **True**
11. **False**
12. **True**

Exercise #2. Complete the table according to their classification of linguistic typology.

According to 2 plans of language	According to subject of comparison	According to levels of language hierarchy
Formal	**Genetic**	**Phonetic, phonological**
Semantic	**Structural**	**Morphological**
	Comparative	**Lexical**
	Areal	**Syntactic**

Exercise #3. Read the statements below and match them with the appropriate answers.

Typology does not deal with a limited number of languages. If it does, then it should be called "characterology" or "comparative description. Uspenskiy
Material similarity means similarities of words that are similar in meaning

and morphemes in compared languages. Maslow
In the last seven or eight years, the "Port Royal Grammar" has been discussed more often in the English speaking world than at any other time since its publication more than three hundred years ago. Kretsmann
Typology consists of structural, comparative and genetic typology. The task of structural typology consists of language universals, typological classification of the languages, typological theory and work out methods to create etalon language. Buranov
It would be wrong to identify comparative researches of two languages with typology. Gukhman

►Activities for self-improvement

Exercise #1. Read and fill the gaps with the given words below.

The problem of the type language was firstly discussed by ***romantics***, the representations of romanticism which ***were*** at the end of XVIII and in the beginning of XIX century. Romantics considered that "the spirit of the ***nation*** may be displayed in myth in art, literature and in the language. V. Humboldt began to examine the types of the ***Languages*** as a display of "the spirit of the nation". The division of the languages to flaxsive and affix by the German linguist Fredrick Shlegel was the first attempt to create a typological classification of the language. From the history of linguistic studies, such ***typological*** classification of languages offered by August William, V. Humboldt, A.Schleicher, G. Steintal, F.Mistily and other linguists were ***formed***. Now topologists are trying to find the ways of creating amore informative classification of the languages like periodical systems of Mendeleyev.

Seminar#2
Comparative typology as a branch of General Linguistics

►Classroom activities

Answers can be varied.

►Home activities

Exercise #1. Complete the following definitions with the types of typology from the box:

Comparative typology *Genetic typology* *Areal typology* *Structural typology*

1. *Areal typology* is a branch of linguistics that studies (using the methods of linguistic geography) distribution of linguistic phenomena in the spatial extent and interlingual (interdialectic) interaction.
2. *Comparative typology* is one of the branches of General Linguistic typology. It deals with the comparison of languages irrespectively of their genetic or structural identity.
3. *Genetic typology* is a branch of linguistic typology, which studies the similarities, and differences of originally related languages.
4. Structural typology is the major branch of Linguistic typology and aims to identify structural language types.

Exercise #2. Circle the correct answer.

1. Who said that Areal typology compares languages irrespectively of the degree of their relatedness and aims at defining general elements formed as a result of themutual influence of languages and the cultures staying behind them?

a. V.K.GhaK
b. D.J.Buranov*
c. Yu.V.Rojdestvenskiy
d. M.m.Guhman

2. What includes objects of study Areal typology?

a. borrowings, bilingual features, hybrid languages, language contacts
b. dialects, centum/satem languages, compiling dialectal maps
c. sub-stratum and super-stratum languages, neologisms, archaisms
d. *all answers are true

3. What studies Areal typology?

a. dialects and restrictions of dissemination of separate features in the systems of related and non-related languages, theconfluence of different languages
b. dialects and restrictions of dissemination of separate features in the systems of related and non-related languages
c. *dialects, centum/satem languages, compiling dialectal maps
d. sub-stratum and super-stratum languages, neologisms, archaisms

4. With what deals Comparative typology?

a. With thedistribution of linguistic phenomena in the spatial extent and interlingua (interdialectic) interaction
b. with the similarities, and differences of originally related languages
c. With the aims of identifying structural language types
d. *with comparison of languages irrespectively of their genetic or structural identity

5. What is the goal of Structural typology?
a. To include discrete sound segments like p, n, or a, which can be defined by a finite set of sound properties or features
b. to identify structural language types
c. identifying common/similar features specific to systems of all or separate language groups
d. *to identify universal features of languages

► Activities for self-improvement

Exercise #1. Read the statement below and find some mistakes among them.
Typology is a branch of science which is typical to all sciences without any exception. In this respect, their typological method is not limited to the sphere of one science. Typology may be divided into:*Non-linguistic typology, Linguistic typology,* ***Paralinguistic typology.***
Non-linguistic typology is the subject matter of the sciences except linguistics. It can be political typology, medical or economic typology as well. Linguistic typology is a new branch of general linguistic, which studies the systems of languages comparatively, also finds common laws of languages and establishes differences and similarities between them. And due to David Crystal's book "Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics", **Non- linguistic** Typology is explained in this way: "A branch of linguistics which studies the structural similarities between languages, regardless of their history, as part of an attempt to establish a satisfactory classification, or typology, of languages. The typological comparison is thus distinguished from the historical comparison of languages and its groupings can coincide with those set up by the historical method". Nowadays many terms are used for defining this very type of science, such as *Linguistic Typology*, *Comparative Typology*, *Contrastive Typology*. But with the help of analyzing historical background, we'll be able to realize the main notion of this branch of Linguistics. Typology is understood as a science of a whole comparison that has a **large number of factors** of its development. However, if it is described as a structural typology, then numbers of factors of its appearance will diminish. As

Maslow said: "Typology does not deal with a limited number of languages. If it does, then it should be called "characterology" or "comparative description". Since the number of languages typology deals with cannot be counted, languages are referred as an unlimited number of languages. The development of typology was very slow. It has several factors that influence to its development which are but not limited to typological imitation, "Port Royal Grammar", historical comparative linguistics, theprocess of studying of languages without awriting system, theinfluence of **writing**, phonetics and practical and theoretical study of languages.

Test yourself on Comparative Typology as a branch of General Linguistics

1. General typology combines two types of typologies
a) *Linguistic and non-linguistic
b) Lexical and Semantic
c) Structural and Areal
d) Phonetic and Phonological

2. Non-linguistic typology as a method of comparison serves in…
a) *All sciences besides linguistics
b) Linguistics
c) Literature
d) General Linguistics and Literature

3. …deals with the languages which are genetically related both synchronically and diachronically
a) *Genetic Typology
b) Areal Typology
c) Comparative Typology
d) Structural Typology

4. Comparative Typology deals with …
a) *Language systems in comparison
b) Psychology
c) Mathematics
d) Literature

5. According to the object of comparison Linguistic Typology consists of:
a) *Genetic, comparative, areal, structural

b) Semantic, formal
c) Syntactic, structural, areal, lexical
d) Phonetic, phonological, morphological, syntactic, lexical

6. Comparative method has …
a) *Universal features
b) Typological investigation
c) Grammatical features
d) General features

7. Internal approach to language description deals with…
a) *The system of any concrete national language
b) Non-related languages
c) Related languages
d) All languages

8. External approach to language description deals with…
a) *The cross-language description
b) All languages
c) Non-related languages
d) Related languages

9. Comparative-historical linguistics is…
a) *Comparative-historical studies of languages in their development
b) Comparative-scientific studies of languages in their development
c) Content approach to comparison
d) One – level approach to comparison

10. Diachronic development means the development of some linguistic phenomena from…
a) *Historical viewpoint
b) Modern viewpoint
c) Linguistic viewpoint
d) Grammatical viewpoint

11. The first period is named spontaneous which was over …
a) * Not long before the Renaissance
b) In the XI century
c) In the XX century

d) In the XIV century

12. Division of Linguistic Typology with respect to two plans of language:
a) *Formal, semantic
b) Comparative, structural, areal, genetic
c) Phonetic, phonological, morphological, syntactic, lexical
d) Formal, semantic, areal, genetic

13. Port-Royal grammar is considered to be …
a) *Universal grammar
b) Practical grammar
c) Theoretical grammar
d) English grammar

14. When was Port-Royal grammar written
a) *1660
b) 2009
c) 1700
d) 1669

15. What did Mahmud Kashgariy do by analyzing a group of Turkic languages
a) *He defined the level of their genetic relationship to each other
b) He found out Language Universals
c) He analyzed the lexical units of all Turkic languages
d) He compared all language of the world

Seminar#3

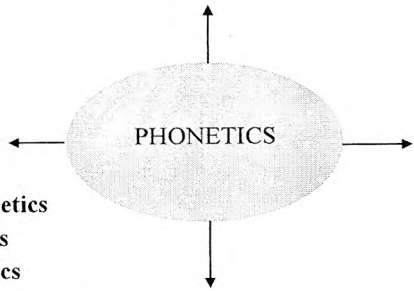
Typology of phonetic and phonological level of English and Native languages

►Classroom activities

Answers can be varied.

▶ Home activities

Exercise#1. Write 4 main aspects of PHONETICS and match them with the paragraphs below:



1 Articulatory Phonetics
2 Acoustic Phonetics
3. Auditory Phonetics
4. Functional Phonetics

Exercise#2. Read and fill in the gaps:

Phonetics can be divided into several types like:

1. General phonetics
2. Specific phonetics
3. Comparative phonetics
4. Segmental phonology
5. Suprasegmental phonology

▶ Activities for self-improvement

Exercise#1. Read the statements below and choose whether they are True or False.

11. **False**
12. **True**
13. **False**
14. **False**
15. **True**
16. **False**
17. **False**
18. **False**
19. **False**
20. **True**

Seminar#4

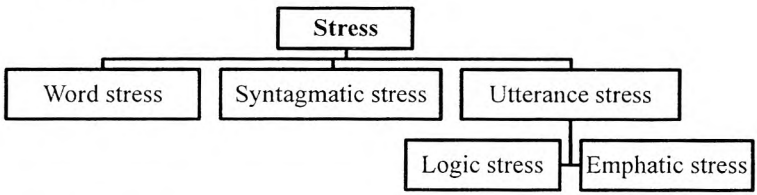
Typology of phonetic and phonological level of English and Native Languages

►Classroom activities

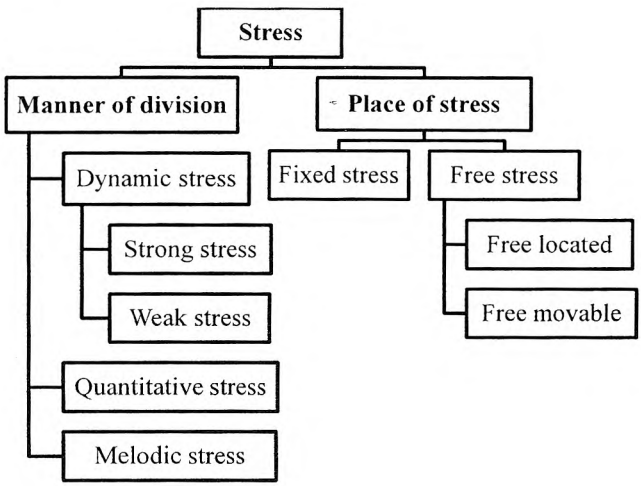
Answers can be varied.

Exercise#3. Stress can be divided into all compared languages. a) in small groups complete the clusters.

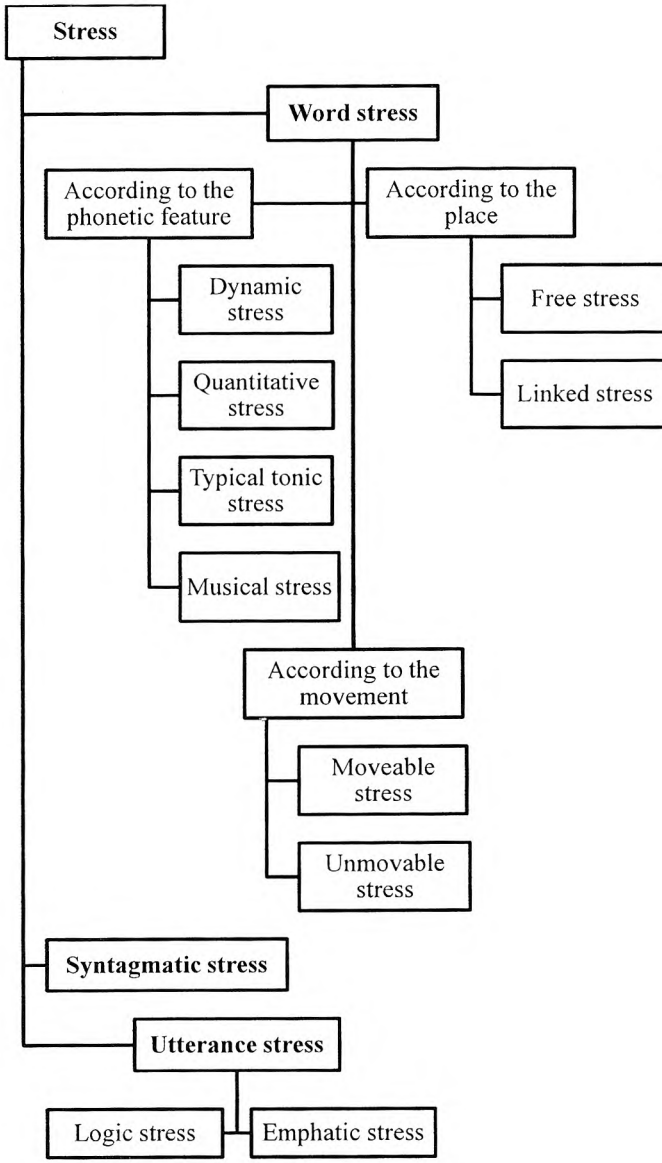
In English:



In Russian:



In Uzbek:



3b) Compare completed clusters and find 3 similarities, differences and distinctive features of the stress in 3 languages.

►Home activities

Exercise#1. Complete the table and Compare vowels according to the tongue position in 3 languages:

	fron t vowel	front-retracted vowel	cent ral vowels	back vowels	back-advanced vowel
English	[i: e æ]	[i]	[Λ ə: ə]	[a: o o: u:]	[u]
Uzbek	[и, э]	-	[ў]	[a, y, o]	-
Russian	[и], [э]	-	[ы], [а]	[у], [о]	-

Exercise#2. Compare Uzbek, Russian and English vowels according to the vertical position of the tongue.

	narrow	mid	broad
Uzbek	[и, у]	[э, о, ў]	[а]
Russian	[и], [ы], [у]	[э], [о]	[а]

►Activities for self-improvement

Exercise#1. Do the following tasks.

Answers can be varied.

Test yourself on Typology of phonetic and phonological level of English and Native languages

1. The smallest unit of sound distinguishing meaning is called a ...
a) *phoneme
b) Morpheme
c) allophone
d) phone

2. A fricative and an affricate differ in ...
a) *pressure phase and friction phase
b) Nothing
c) place of articulation
e) the manner of articulation

3. A voiced and a voiceless sound differ in ...
a) There is no difference
b) Aspiration
c) the direction of the air stream
d) *vocal chord action

4. In which of these words is the shortestvowel?
a) Bean
b) bead
c) bee
d) *beat

5. ... is mainly concerned with the functioning of phonetic units in the language.
a) segmental phonetics;
b) practical phonetics;
c) suprasegmental phonetics;
d) *theoretical phonetics.

6.The branch of phonetics that studies the linguistic function of consonant and vowel sounds, syllable structure, word accent and prosodic features, such as pitch, stress, and tempo is called ...
a) *phonology;
b) instrumental phonetics;
c) practical phonetics;
d) theoretical phonetics;

7. ... studies the larger units of connected speech syllables, words, phrases, texts.
a) segmental phonetics;
b) theoretical phonetics;
c) practical phonetics;
d) *suprasegmental phonetics.

8.How many vowels are there in the English, Russian and Uzbek languages?
a) *20, 6, 6
b) 18, 6, 10
c) 19, 6, 6
d) 24, 10, 6

9. What language classifies vowels into short and long according to the **length**

a) Russian
b) *English
c) Uzbek
d) Polish

10. According to the palatalization of the tongue, what language has **soft** and **hard** consonants.
a) English
b) Uzbek
c) *Russian
d) Polish

11. According to the passive organs of speech, consonants are divided into:
a) Labial
b) *Dental and alveolar
c) Sonorant
d) Fricative

12. A special prominence given to one more syllable in a word is:
a) The pause
b) The rhythm
c) The melody
d) ***The stress**

13. Which language has free word stress?
a) *Russian and English
b) Czeck and SlovakFrench
c) Kazakh

14. What is a syllable?
a) Morphemic structure of the word
b) One of the speech sounds
c) The shortest segment of speech sounds
d) *Segmental structure of the word

15. Find the correct answer where English and Uzbek stress position is correctly shown.
a) *words in English have mostly 1st syllable stressed position and Uzbek last syllable stressed position
b) words in Uzbek have mostly 2nd syllable stressed position and English 1st syllable stressed position
c) there is no stable stress position in both languages
d) words in Uzbek and English have free syllable stressed position

Seminar#5
Typology of morphological level of English and Native Languages

►Classroom activities

Answers can be varied.

►Home activities

Answers can be varied.

►Activities for self-improvement

Answers can be varied.

Seminar#6
Typology of morphological level of English and Native Languages

►Classroom activities

Exercise#2. Work in pairs. Give a definition to the terms. Then compare your definitions with the group. The first one is done as an example:

g) **Morphological typology***is a way of classifying the languages of the world that groups languages according to their common morphological structures.*

h) ***Analytic languages*** *show a low ratio of morphemes to words; in fact, the correspondence is nearly one-to-one. Sentences in analytic languages are composed of independent root morphemes.*

i) ***Synthetic languages*** *form words by affixing a given number of dependent morphemes to a root morpheme. The morphemes may be distinguishable from the root, or they may not.*

j) ***Agglutinative languages*** *tend to have a high number of morphemes per word, and their morphology is highly regular.*

k) ***Fusional languages*** *Morphemes in fusional languages are not readily distinguishable from the root or among themselves. Several grammatical bits of meaning may be fused into one affix.*

l) ***Polysynthetic*** *languages commonly express "the ability to form words that are equivalent to whole sentences in other languages.*

►Home activities

Exercise#1. Circle the right answer.

6. How many types of categories of grammar may be?

d) Three

e) One

f) *Two

7. Find the difference between primary and secondary categories of grammar.

d) Secondary grammar categories study number, case, gender for nouns, tense, voice, aspect, mood, person, degrees of comparison for adjectives and so on and primary grammar categories study synthetic relations between words.

e) *primary grammatical categories deal with parts of speech, whereas secondary grammatical categories deal with within every part of speech separately

f) None

8. What is a morpheme?

d) *the units of morphological level

e) a grammatical category within every part of speech

f) an association of a given meaning with a given sound pattern

9. Find right parts of words *sportive* and *elegant.*

d) sport, sportive; elegant: eleg-, -ive, -ant

e) sport, sportive; elegant, elegative

f) *sport, sportive; elegant, eleg.

10.Who developed first the morphological typology?

d) Wilhelm von Humboldt

e) Peter Stephen DuPonceau

f) *brothers Friedrich von Schlegel and August von Schlegel

Exercise#2. Read the statements below and choose whether they are True or False.

11. False

12. True

13. True
14. False
15. False
16. True
17. False
18. True
19. False
20. True

► Activities for self-improvement

Answers can be varied.

Test yourself on Typology of morphological level of English and Native Languages

1. According to the relations of elements, languages are classified into…
a) *Agglutinative, Flexional, Isolating, Polysynthetic
b) Flexional, Agglutinative, Polysynthetic, Monosynthetic
c) Polysynthetic, Flexional, Non-flexional, Isolating
d) Isolating, Non-agglutinative, Polyflexional, Polysenthetic

2. Categŏry of plurality can be expressed in Modern English by
a) *Morphological means, Syntactic means, Phono-morphological, Lexical
b) Morphological means, Phono-morphological
c) Syntactic means, Lexical
d) Phono-morphological, Lexical

3. Choose the right answer:
a) * Gender is a lexical-grammatical category. Sex is used to denote biological notions and it is usually used for animate objects
b) Gender is a lexical-grammatical category
c) Gender is used to denote biological notions
d) Sex is usually used for animate objects

4. Choose the variant with grammatical category of gender
a) *пожилой мужчина
b) Very big house
c) Her beautiful face
d) Гўзал актриса

5. Primary grammatical categories are…
a) *Parts of speech
b) The category of gender
c) Verbal categories
d) Degrees of comparison

6. Secondary grammatical categories are…
a) *Categories within every part of speech
b) Noun
c) Verb
d) Article

7. Choose the correct answer with the category of plurality that is expressed by morphological means

b) *boy – boys
c) much milk
d) class – people
e) foot – feet

8. Where the category of plurality is expressed by phono-morphological means…
a) *tooth – teeth
b) Class – people
c) Girl – girls
d) a lot of students

9. Where the category of plurality is expressed by syntactic means…
a) *A lot of English books
b) Goose – geese
c) flower – flowers
d) class – people

10. Traditional grammatical categories consist of:

a) *Grammatical form and grammatical meaning
b) Grammatical categorization
c) Analysis and synthesis
d) Grammatical analysis

11. What are the types of languages due to typological classification?
a) Isolating, polysynthetic, agglutinative, flexional
b) Diachronic and synchronic
c) *Polysynthetic, isolating, agglutinative, flexional
d) Isolating, agglutinative

12. What is the type of language that is characterized by the absence of inflections and affixational morphemes expressing word relations?
a) *Isolating
b) Agglutinative
c) Flexional
d) Polysynthatic

13. What language has non-developed morphology?
a) *Chinese
b) Uzbek
c) Latin
d) English

14. What languages does dual number exist in?
a) *Sanscrit, Greek, Old English
b) Modern English, French, Uzbek
c) Russian, German, Chinese
d) English, Chinese, French

15. What are genetically differently related languages given below?
a) *English and Russian
b) Russian and Uzbek
c) Uzbek and Kazakh
d) Kirgiz and Russian

Seminar#7

Typology of syntactic level of English and Native Languages

►Classroom activities

Exercise#1. Write some features of a term sentence in Uzbek, Russian and English languages and compare them with your classmates.

Uzbek	Russian	English
a) It has predication which consists of modality and time. It may have the meanings of person and number. *b) It is addressed to a hearer.* c) *It has a new information.*		

Exercise#3. Give examples to syntactical connections: agreement, government, and contact in English and Russian languages.

Languages	agreement	government	contact
English	number and person (this room-these rooms, that room-those rooms, I have a book-he has a book)	personal pronoun *(Believe me, help him).*	Attributive phrases, (object and its feature, they can be expressed by different parts of speech:(*be happy, to seem delighted)*
Russian	gender, number, case, and person	substantial *(осмотр здания – gen. case),* adjectival *(интересный для зрителя – gen. case with a*	Objective phrases (action, feature and the object, in the relation of carrying out the action or feature:(*слушатьмузыку, встречатьсясдрузьями, похожий)*

		prep.), adverbial *(делать весело, ему приятно)*, verbal *(осматривать здание* – accusative case, *доверить врагу* – dative case	
Uzbek	predicative and possessive connection	dative, accusative, locative and ablative cases: *мактабга бор, уйда ўтир, доскадан ёз, дарсингни тайёрла*	Adverbial phrases (the way of the action/feature, its measure of the degree, time, place, reason: *(тез юрмоқ, берилиб тингламоқ*).

Exercise#4. Brainstorm the definitions of word combinations in compared languages.

Answers can be varied.

► Home activities

Exercise#1. Read the statements. Circle the true or false.

9. **False**
10. **True**
11. **False**
12. **False**
13. **True**
14. **True**
15. **True**
16. **False**

Exercise#2. Fill the table below. Write the types and definitions of word combinations in the missed places according to its structural feature.

Answers can be varied.

► Activities for self-improvement

Exercise#1. Work in pairs. Learn carefully the clusters below. Find general differences of word-combinations of three compared languages and compare them with your partner.

Answers can be varied.

Seminar#8
Typology of syntactic level of English and Native Languages

►Classroom activities

Exercise#2. Work in a small group. Compare the given topic. Identify similarities, differences, and distinctive features and prepare a poster presentation to other group members.

Answers can be varied.

Exercise#3. Classify and do acomparative analysis of types of thesentence according to communication. Complete the table below and share your analysis with your partner.

	Declarative	Interrogative	Imperative
English	Grammatical morpheme: (do+not *I don't go)* Lexical units: (Neither…nor *It is neither good nor bad*)	general, special, alternative and disjunctive. (*Do you want...?, Where do you want...?, Do you want ...or...?, You want..., don't you?).*	*(What a lovely day it is! How wonderful!)*
Russian	Grammaticalmorpheme: (не *Янепойду)* Lexicalunits:	1) Interrogative sentence having no interrogative words, sometimes they may	*(Москва как много в этом звуке...)*

	(Не…не *Это и не хорошо и не плохо*	contain such particles as *ведь, как, что, неужели, разве, ли,* and etc. In such cases they differ from declarative sentence in intonation. (*Инженер поехал в Москву? Его здесь нет? Разве он вамписал? Неужелионушел?*); 2) Interrogative sentences having interrogative words, such as *кто, что, куда, откуда, почему (Ктопришел? Что вы читаете?).*	
Uzbek	Grammatical morpheme: (-ма *Мен бормайман)* Lexical units: (Эмас, на …на *Бу на яхши ва на ёмон)*	1) absolute interrogative sentences which require the answers *(сиз эртага келасизми?)*; 2) rhetoric interrogative sentence with the obvious hidden answer in it (*Мен унинг тўсатдан келиб қолишини қаердан билай?! Бу ватанда нималар йўқ?! Ўзинган чиққан балога қайга борасан давога?! Бу нимаси?!).*	*(Аввал ўйла кейин сўйла!).*

Exercise#4. Discuss the following questions with your partner.
Answers can be varied.

Exercise#5. Choose one of the topics below. Make a comparative analysis and prepare 10-minute demonstrative presentation on it.
Answers can be varied.

►Home activities

Exercise#1. Read the statements. Circle the true or false definition of "sentence".

1. **True**
2. **True**
3. **False**
4. **True**
5. **True**
6. **False**

Exercise#2. Read the given main criteria about the classification of sentences. Classify and write types of sentences according to these criteria in the table.

The criterion of the structure of sentences	**The criterion of the aim of the speaker**	**The criterion of the existence of all parts of the sentence**
simple and composite	*declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory*	*elliptical and non-elliptical*

Exercise#3. Fill the table with examples of thenegative form of adeclarative sentence of compared languages. Analyze similarities, differences between them.

	Means	**English**	**Russian**	**Uzbek**
1.	Grammatical morpheme	do+not *I don't go*	не *Я не пойду*	-ма *Мен бормайман*
2.	Lexical units	Neither…nor *It is neither*	Не…не *Это и не*	Эмас, на …на *Бу на яхши ва на*

		good nor bad	*хорошо и не плохо*	*ёмон*
3.	Negative pronouns and adverbs	Nobody, nowhere, never, none *None of them is here*	Никто, нигде, никогда, ни один *Ни один из них не здесь*	Ҳеч ким, ҳеч қаер, ҳеч қачон, ҳеч бири *Уларнинг ҳеч бири бу ерда эмас*
4.	Phraseological units	*When Ethiopian changes his skin*	*Жди у моря погоды*	*Қизил қор ёққанда*
5.	Rhetoric questions	*Whoever can win us?!*	*Да кто может нас победить?!*	*Ким ҳам бизни енга оларди?!*

► Activities for self-improvement

Exercise#1. What languages have these types of thecomposite sentence? Fill the table below. The first is given as an example.

Answers can be varied.

Exercise#2. Read the statements below and choose whether they are true or false.

1. **False**
2. **False**
3. **False**
4. **False**
5. **True**

Exercise#3. Write different kind of conjunctions, which are used to combine sentences.

Answers can be varied.

Test yourself on Typology of syntactic level of English and Native Language

1. Which of these is the best definition of syntax?

a) The study of the rules governing specifically the sounds that form words.

b) *The study of the rules governing sentence formation.

c) The study of the rules governing word formation.

2. Which Typology studies the syntactic structure of different languages?
a) *Syntactic
b) Lexical and grammatical
c) Phonetic and phonological
d) Semantic and formal

3. Syntactic typology studies...
a) parts of speech
b) word level
c) phoneme level
d) *sentence level and phrase level

4. Which of these morphemes can be added to the majority of English nouns?
a) –ing
b) *–er
c) –s
d) un-

5. In which sentence do a noun replace the dots?
a) They can ... them
b) They can ...
c) *He has no ...
d) They … him

6. Identify this sentence according to its type: *"The old hotel at the end of the street is going to be knocked down at the beginning of next year."*
a) Complex
b) Compound
c) *simple
d) compound-complex

7. What must every correct sentence have a ..?
a) transition word
b) *subject and predicate
c) conjunction and verb
d) dependent and independent clause

8. Russian nouns can show gender (among other features). What feature(s) can English nouns show?
a) Case only
b) Number only
c) Case and number
d) *Number and person

9. What is the smallest speech pattern?
a) Morpheme
b) *Phrase
c) Phomeme
d) Semime

10. What is word order in the language?
a) The agreement of words in a phrase
b) *The arrangement of words in a phrase, clause, or sentence
c) Subordination of clauses
d) Structure of a phrase

11. Define the sentence
a) It is the smallest speech pattern
b) It is smallest meaningful unit
c) It is the basic unit of syntax
d) It is an important communicative unit

12.Subordinator…
a) joins two similarly constructed and/or syntactically equal words
b) contains an independent clause and at least one dependent clause
c) is a unit of communication
d) *introduces a dependent clause, joining it to the main clause

13. What language's word-combination has extended type according to the structure?
a) Russian
b) *English
c) Arabic
d) Uzbek

14. Independent and dependent are types of word combinations of…

a) English language
b) French language
c) Russian language
d) *Uzbek language

15. What languages are fond of long and colorful phrases?
a) *Russian and Uzbek
b) Russian and English
c) English and Uzbek
d) English and French

Seminar#9
Typology of lexical level of English and Native Languages

►Classroom activities

Exercise#2. Fill the chart below. What branches of lexical typology do you know?

Lexical typology:
* Lexical typology of words * Word-building typology * Comparative lexicology * Etc.

Go round the class and compare your list with other classmates.

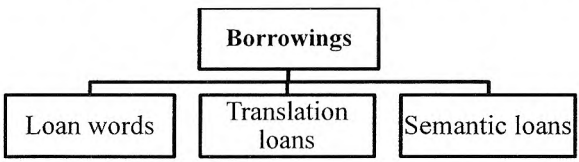
Exercise#5. Match the terms with their definitions.
1.Simple words - b
2.Derived words - c
3.Compound words- d
4.Compound-derived words- a

►Home activities

Exercise#1. Match the definitions.

Typology	is the study of patterns that occur systematically across languages
Lexical typology	deals with the units of lexical levels. It studies inter-lingual paradigms of words, inter-lingual invariance of meanings expressed by words and phrases.
Semantic typology	the systematic cross-linguistic study of how languages express meaning by way of signs

Exercise#3. Fill the cluster. According to the nature of borrowings.



Exercise#3.True/False statements.

1. True
2. False
3. False
4. True
5. False
6. True
7. True
8. False
9. True
10. True

► Activities for self-improvement

Exercise#1.

Answers can be varied.

Exercise#2. Fill the table: Hand vs. arm, foot vs. leg, finger vs. toe in English, Russian and Uzbek.

Answers can be varied.

Exercise#3. As you know, a loan word taken over from another proper language can be modified in phonetic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the language. Give examples.
Answers can be varied.

Seminar#10
Typology of lexical level of English and Native Languages

►Classroom activities

Exercise#1. Round table discussion. Divide into four groups and discuss these problems in groups. In 10 minutes present your topic, after all, they make anoverall conclusion.
Answers can be varied.

Exercise#2. Discuss the following questions in mini groups.
Answers can be varied.

Exercise#3.a. Look at the questions in the chart about ways of word formation in English, Russian and Uzbek languages. Write your answers first in the YOU column.
3b. Interview your partner and write his/her answers in your partner column.
3c. compare your answers with your partner's answers.
Answers can be varied.

►Home activities

Exercise#1. Look at the text about similarities and differences of word - formation in compared languages. There are 12 mistakes in it. Find them and replace them with the correct words from the box below.

9.origin	**3. independent**	**1.prefixing**	**5.bound**	**7.negative**
2.full				
8. repetition or reversal	**4. proper**	**6.semi-bound**		
10.prefixes				

The main similarity of forming words is having the way of affixing in all compared languages. And all of them have the subtypes, such as 1.borrowing

(**prefixing**), suffixing and prefix-suffix. For example, English prefixes are such particles that can be prefixed to 2.separate(**full**) words and it is mostly characteristic for forming verbs. Prefixes can be considered more 3.dependent (**independent**) than suffixes in English. They can be classified according to the nature of words in which they are used: prefixes used in notional and functional words. Prefixes used in notional words are. 4.irrelevant (**proper**) prefixes which are 5.semi-bound (**bound**) morphemes, e.g. *re- (rewrite).* Prefixes used in functional words are 6.bound (**semi-bound**)morphemes because they are met in the language as words, e.g. *over- (overprotected) (cf. over the book).*

Prefixes can be classified according to different principles:

1. Semantic classification:

a) prefixes of 7.positive(**negative**) meaning, such as : *in- (invaluable), non- (non-morphological), un- (unhappy)* etc.

b) prefixes denoting 8.planned (**repetition or reversal**) actions, such as: *de- (deregulate), re- (redo), dis- (disappear).*

c) prefixes denoting time, space, degree relations, such as: *inter- (international) , hyper- (hypertension), ex- (ex-friend), pre- (pre-reading), over- (overhead)* etc.

2.**9**.Usage (**origin**) of prefixes can be classified as follows:

a) native (Germanic), such as: ***un-, over-, under-*** etc.

b) Romanic, such as : ***in-, de-, ex-, re-*** etc.

c) Greek, such as***sym-, hyper-*** etc.

Besides, there are a lot of borrowed 10.suffixes (**prefixes**) in English:

Auto-, Demi-, Mono-, Multi-, Semi-, Post-;

Exercise#2. You are given different classifications of suffixes in English, Russian and Uzbek languages. According to the classification match the suffixes with their sub groups.

I. *Part-of-speech classification*

1. noun-forming suffixes	***-ize , -ify, -а-ть, -а, -лан***
2. adjective-forming suffixes	***-able, -less,-ous,-ный-ной,-ли,-сиз***
3. verb-forming suffixes	***-er, -ism, -ник,-ец,-увчи, -чилик***
4. adverb-forming suffixes	***-teen , -ty, -надцать , -ой (-ый),-та***
5. numeral-forming suffixes	***-ly , -о,-лаб, -она.***

II. Semantic classification

1. nationality	***-ness, -ity,-увчан***
2.the agent of the action	***- dom, -ry, -ship, -ati***
3. quality	***- ian, -ese, -ish,-вич, -лик.***

4.diminutiveness	*-er, -ist, -ent, -ок, -чи.*
5. collectivity	*-ie, -let, -ling, -ette.*

III. The lexico-grammatical character of the stem.

1. suffixes added to verbal stems	*-e,-ly, -ish, -ness,-ость, -и-е,-лик*
2. suffixes added to noun stems	**-er, -ing,***-ство, -ация, -кич, -ги*
3.suffixes added to adjective stems	*-less, -ful, -ні-ый, -ный,-кор,гар*

Exercise#3. Look at the suffixes in thechart below. Give the examples for each according to the classification in compared languages.
Answers can be varied.

► Activities for self-improvement

Exercise#1. Are these statements true (√) or false (×)? Correct the false statements.

1. True
2. False
3. True
4. True
5. False
6. False
7. True
8. True
9. True
10. False

Exercise#2. Check your comprehension on comparative analysis of English and Native languages word-formation types.
Tick√ what can you understand.
Answers can be varied.

Test yourself on Typology of lexical level of English and Native Languages

1. What does Lexical typologystudy?
a) It deals with the meaning of words both lexically and semantically
b) *It deals with the units of lexical levels
c) It deals with structural meanings of words
d) It deals with the units of morphological and lexical levels

2. Give definition of the lexical typology…

a) It is a systematic cross-linguistic study of how languages express meaning by way of signs
b) It is an independent branch of linguistic typology and concerns to every level of language hierarchy
c) *It is an independent branch of linguistic typology and deals with a comparison of the units of lexical units
d) It is an independent branch of linguistic typology and deals with some problems of grammar

3. From how many branches Lexical typology consists of?

a)5
b) 4
c) 6
d) *7

4. What kind of dimensions has Lexical-typological research?

a) *Synchronic and diachronic
b) Synchronic and panchronic
c) Diachronic and panchronic
d) Synchronic, diachronic and panchronic

5. What language is considered as asingle-morphemic structure of a word?

a)Russian
b) *English
c) Turkish
d) Uzbek

6. What is word changing type of forming words in every language?

a) *It is a type which includes morphemes of case affixes, personal endings and etc.
b) It is a type which includes various types of its content and its form according to its place in the word such affixes and prefixes
c) It is a type which content can be equal to the word

7. *To try- a try, round-round, hand- to hand* what kind of type of the way of word forming is it?
a) Word changing
b) Word building
c) Word helping
d) *Single-morphemic

8. How many adjective building suffixes exist in order to build adjectives from nouns in English?
a) 10
b) 9
c) 20
d) *7

9. What is anagglutinative way of forming words?

a) *when affixing morphemes are added to root automatically without changing its phoneme structure
b) when with adding affixing morphemes their phoneme structure can be changed
c) when the content can be equal to the word

10. What languages contain a group of adjectives, which characterizes emotional coloring of diminutively pet meanings?

a) *Russian and English
b) English and Uzbek
c) Only Uzbek
d) Russian and Uzbek

11. In what languages are root morphemes equal to the word according to its sound content?

a) *Flective
b) Agglutinative
c) Isolating
d) Polysynthetic

11. *Kick the bucket, тарвузи қўлтиғидан тушиб кетди.* What kind of type of phraseological units are they?

a) Phraseological collocations

b) Phraseological units
c) *Phraseological fusions
d) Praseological idioms

12. What are phraseological collocations?

a)*They are the units when one of the words of the phrase has its lexical meaning and connected to another one
b)They are a relation of words where the content of words don't have their lexical meanings
c) They are such kind of phrases where the lexical meaning of a word are expressed with their own

13. *To keep an eye, to kill two birds with one stone, ширин сўз, оғир йиғит* into what type of praseological units they can be included?

a) Phraseological collocations
b) *Phraseological units
c) Phraseological fusions
d) Praseological idioms

14. How in English the meaning of gender may be expressed?

a) *Lexical-semantic means
b) Syntactic means
c) The use of suffixes
d) The use of prefix

Seminar#11
Typology in Modern Trends inLinguistics

►Classroom activities

Exercise#1.
Answers can be varied.

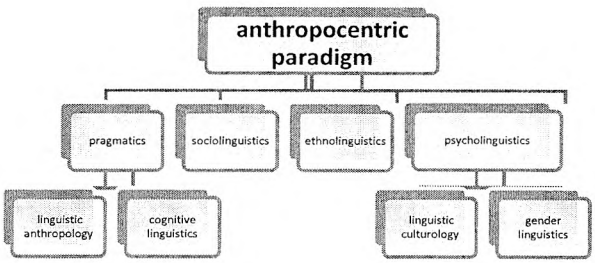
Exercise#2. Match the Dates with the right investigations.
1.a
2.b

Exercise#3a. see an example.

Answers can be varied.

English	Russian	Uzbek
Sweet Swan of Avon	*перебиваться с хлеба на квас на воду*	*бир пиёла чой устида*

Exercise#4. Collect the recently developed areas of the anthropocentric paradigm of the modern linguistics to the following table.



► Home activities

Exercise#1. Answers may vary as it's shown in theexample.

- A list of phraseological units related only male features such as: *general's battle, brother of the angle → шутгороховый, рыцарьбезстрахаиупрека → қулоғидакункўринибқопти, жонкуйдирмасанг - жононақайда.*
- a list of phraseological units can be related only male features such as:*lady of the house, one's good lady, → подругажизни, талияврюмочку → онасиўпмаган, аёлмакриқирқтуягаюк.*

Exercise#2.

Answers can be varied.

Exercise#3.

Presentations may vary.

► Activities for self-improvement

Exercise#1. Complete the text with the right word from a box.

Cognitive linguistics investigates language as a**mechanism of transformation** and codification of it. The aim of this linguistics covers the cognition of the world from one's point of view and ways of appearing of receiving processes, categorization, and classification of it. The term of "Cognitive science" includes learning processes jointly, receiving them and reworking, saving and using, organizing thestructure of knowledge and collection, furthermore, it arranges collection of a certain scientific thought which is joint for forming the mental activity of these structures. **Cognitive science** is closely connected with mathematics, logic, philosophy, anthropology, and linguistics. However, **Linguaculturology** is a complex scientific science direction appeared on the basis of inter reaction of linguistics and culturology. This direction investigates interconnection between culture and language and researches the language as a **phenomenon**of culture. It shows the observation of the world in the certain view by the cultural prism and by a certain nation's mind and culture.

Exercise#2. Read the statements below and choose whether they are True or False.

1. True
2. True
3. True
4. False (Cameron pointed)
5. True

Test yourself on Interrelation of typology with anthropocentric trends of linguistic

1. In XVIII century, there were mostly done researches of comparative-historical investigations among related languages and in the last century collection of ..... paradigms occupied the position of structural paradigm.

a) anthropocentric, functional
b) functional, cognitive and dynamic
c) functional, cognitive
d) *anthropocentric, functional, cognitive and dynamic

2. The anthropocentric paradigm appeared.....

a) *in the 30s of the XXth century
b) in the 40s of the XXth century
c) in the 50s of the XXth century
d) in the XIXth century

3. Cognitive linguistics investigates language as mechanism of

a) codification and classification of it
b) categorization and classification of it
c) * transformation and codification of it
d) transformation and categorization of it

4. Linguaculturology is…

a) complex linguistic science direction appeared on the basis of inter reaction of linguistics and culturology
b) *b complex scientific science direction appeared on the basis of inter reaction of linguistics and culturology
c) complex scientific science direction appeared on the basis of inter reaction of culture and linguistics
d) complex scientific science direction appeared on the basis of inter reaction of linguistics and literature

5. The communicative competence model is based on...

a) *this understanding of the relationship between language and culture
b) literature, art, music, and philosophy
c) the high culture of the people who speak that language
d) the pattern of human behavior that includes thoughts, communications, languages, practices, beliefs

6. According to V. Telia, culture is described as a ...
a) *world-conception, world-perception and world-comprehension of a people
b) world-conception, world- connection of a people
c) world-conception, world- connection and world- competence of a people
d) world-conception, world-perception, and world- practices of a people

7. Lingua-culture is...
a) the verbalized art, the culture externalized in signs of language
b) * the verbalized culture, the culture externalized in signs of language
c) the verbalized culture, the culture internalized in signs of language
d) the verbalized cultural awareness, the culture externalized in signs of language

8. In linguaculturology concept can be understood as
"cultural-grammaticall-lexical" expression
b. "grammatical-mental-lexical" expression
c. "cultural-mental-grammatical" expression
d. *"cultural-mental-lexical" expression

9. "Sex is biological, consists of sociocultural sex with sociocultural elements. That is why "gender" and "sex" is appeared as "whole and part" explains ...
a) V.A.Maslova
b) * O.V. Ryabov
c) Jane Sunderland
d) Yu. S. Stepanov

10. In Western nations, the concept "love" is devoted to
a) * human being with great passion and feelings
b) great love is devoted to God
c) love devoted to parents
d) love that is devoted to children

11. Cognitive science is closely connected with...
a) anthropology, ethno linguistics, mathematics
b) sociolinguistics, ethno linguistics, psycholinguistics
c) * mathematics, logic, philosophy, anthropology, and linguistics
d) philosophy of science, anthropology, and linguistics

12. In Uzbek "эркаксабзи" or "эркакшода" in English can be the equivalent...
a) Landlord

b) * blue stocking
c) brother of the angle
d) black-stocking

13. ... refers to the array of socially constructed roles and relationships, personality traits, attitudes, behaviors, values, relative power and influence that society ascribes to the two sexes on a differential basis

a) sex
b) gender logical analysis
c) existence
d) *gender

14. The first researches on gender started to be investigated in ... humanitarian sciences.

a) eastern
b) south-western
c) * western
d) both southern and western

15. ... includes anational description of cultures, the roles of male and female in society and their relationship and behavior

a) *gender
b) culture
c) linguistics
d) biological sex

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CONTENT

Preface.....2

I. Comparative Typology as a branch of General Linguistics

1.1. Comparative Typology: subject matter, types, tasks, approaches.....3

1.2. Historical background of typological investigations.....8

1.3. Classification of Comparative Typology by Dr. Buranov.....12

1.4. Types of language comparison.....19

Seminar 1.....23

Seminar 2.....27

II. Typology of phonetic and phonological levels of English and Native languages

2.1. Phonetics and phonology as different branches of Linguistics.....35

2.2. Typological characteristics of English and Native languages phonetic system.....40

2.3. Typological characteristics of English and Native languages phonological system.....46

Seminar 3.....53

Seminar 4.....57

III. Typology of morphological level of English and Native Languages

3.1. Theoretical basis of determining necessary constants in morphological level.....64

3.2. Typology of parts of speech in English and Native Languages.....71

3.3. Typology of Grammatical Categories in English and Native Languages.....76

Seminar 5.....81

Seminar 6.....84

IV. Typology of syntactic level of English and Native Language

4.1. Typology of phrases/word-combinations.....95

4.2. Typology of sentences.....103

Seminar 7.....115

Seminar 8.....121

V. Typology of lexical level of English and Native Languages

5.1. Lexical Typology and its branches.....130

5.2. Comparative analysis of English and Native languages words.....139

5.3. Comparative analysis of English and Native languages word-formation types 150

Seminar 9.....159

Seminar 10..... 164

VI. Interrelation of typology with anthropological trends of linguistic.

6.1. Comparative Typology in Modern trends of linguistics.....173

6.2. Typology of cultural concepts of English and Native language.....175

6.3. Typology in gender linguistics of English and Native language.....179

Seminar 11.....186

Tests on topics of the chapter.....230

Bibliography.....233

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