Alimova M.X., Rasulov Z.I.

COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY OF THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

Mazkur o'quv qo'llanma O va O'MTV tomonidan tasdiqlangan Qiyosiy tipologiya fani o'quv dasturi asosida tuzilgan bo'lib, unda Ingliz va O'zbek Tillari Qiyosiy Tipologiyasi o'quv materiallari aks ettirilgan. O'quv qo'llanmadagi har bir mavzu til faktlarini mustaqil tahlil qilishga mo'ljallangan savol va topshiriqlar, tayanch so'zlar, mashqlar bilan ta'minlangan. Shuningdek, talaba muayyan mavzuni chuqurroq o'rganishi maqsadida har bir mavzuga oid adabiyotlar ro'yxati keltirilgan.

Ushbu o'quv qo'llanma oliy ta'lim muassasalarining Filologiya va tillarni o'qitish (ingliz) hamda Xorijiy til va adabiyoti (ingliz) ta'lim yo'nalishlari bo'yicha tahsil oluvchi bakalavr va magistratura bosqichi talabalari uchun mo'ljallangan.

BuxDU ingliz tilshunosligi kafedrasi va Nizomiy nomidagi TDPU ingliz tili nazariyasi va o'qitish metodikasi kafedralarining o'zaro hamkorligida mazkur o'quv qo'llanma tayyorlandi.

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Comparative typology of the English and Uzbek languages: Учебное пособие. Бухара, 2022. -348 стр. – на английском языке.

Данное учебное пособие охватывает всю программу курса сравнительной типологии. Каждый раздел снабжен вопросами и упражнениями контролирующими знание студента и стимулирующими к самостоятельному анализу фактов языка. Приложены глоссарий, тесты и краткий обзор биографий ученых, которые внесли значительный вклад в становление сравнительной типологии и в ее развитие, как отдельный предмет языкознания. В учебном пособие отражены результаты исследований узбекских и зарубежных лингвистов последнего десятилетия.

Данное учебное пособие предназначено для студентов, как бакалавров так и магистров факультетов иностранных языков. Учебная литература создана в сотрудничестве с кафедрой английского языкого языкозния БухГУ и кафедрой теории английского языка и методики преподавания ТашГПУ им. Низами.

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Alimova M.Kh., Rasulov Z.I.

Comparative typology of the English and Uzbek languages: Manual for Bachelors. Bukhara, 2022. -348 p. – in English.

This manual covers the entire curriculum of the comparative typology course. Each section is provided with questions and exercises that monitor students' knowledge and stimulate them to self-analysis of the facts of the language. A glossary, tests and brief overview of the biographies of scientists who have made a significant contribution to the formation of comparative typology as a separate subject of linguistics are attached. The manual reflects the results of research carried out by Uzbek and foreign linguists of the last decade , and it is intended for students of foreign languages' faculties. This coursebook was prepared in cooperation with the Department of English linguistics of Bukhara state university and the Department of English language theory and methods of teaching of Tashkent state pedagogical university named after Nizami.

SO‘ZBOSHI

Ingliz va o‘zbek tillarining qiyosiy tipologiyasi filologiya fakultetlarida o‘qitiladigan fan bo‘lib, bu yerda bakalavrlar uchun (5111400 – Chet tillari va adabiyoti (ingliz tili va adabiyoti) mutaxassisligi bo‘yicha) ingliz tili o‘qitilishi inobatga olingan. Mazkur kitobda ingliz va o‘zbek tillarining genetik va tipologik xususiyatlari qiyosiy jihatdan tahlilga tortilgan, ya’ni bir-biriga qarindosh bo‘lmagan, ammo ijtimoiy hayotda hamisha o‘zaro kesishib turuvchi bu ikki til o‘rtasidagi mavjud farqlar va o‘xshashliklar tizimli ravishda aniqlangan.

Tipologik xarakterdagi ishlar ichida professorlar J.Bo’ronov, Y.K.Yusupov va M.I. Rasulova tomonidan amalga oshirilgan ingliz, rus va o‘zbek tillarining qiyosiy tipologiyasiga bag‘ishlangan umumlashmalar e’tiborga molik. Qiyosiy tipologiyada, ayniqsa, J.Bo‘ronovning alohida xizmatlari bor. Olim ikki yoki undan ortiq aniq tillar tizimlarini, ularning o‘ziga xos kategoriyalarini solishtiradi va solishtirma tillar tizimidagi til hodisalarini qiyoslaydi, bu fanning o‘ziga xos tipologik qoida va qonuniyatlari borligini e’tirof etadi.

O‘zaro bir til oilasiga mansub bo'lmagan tillarni sathlararo yondashuvdan foydalangan holda taqqoslash jarayonida tipolog tahlilga tortilgan tillarning barcha sathlariga xos xususiyatlarini aniqlashga muvaffaq bo‘ladi.

Qiyosiy tipologiya sohasidagi tadqiqot jarayonida olingan natijalardan lingvistik universaliyalar va muayyan tipologik qoida hamda qonuniyatlarni yaratishda foydalaniladi.

Ma’lumki, o‘zbek tili oltoy tillar oilasining turkiy guruhiga mansub, tipologik agglyutinativ tildir. Ingliz tili esa hind-yevropa tillari oilasiga mansub german tili bo‘lib, tipologik jihatdan flektiv, analitiklikka moyil, chunki tarixiy taraqqiyot jarayonida chuqur flektiv qadimgi ingliz tili o‘zining boy kelishik va moslashuv tizimini yo‘qotgan, uning kompensatsiyasi predloglar va analitik shakllarning boy tizimidan foydalanish orqali amalga oshiriladi, bunda grammatik ma’no yordamchi so'zlarning to’liq leksik ma’noga ega bo’lgan so'zlar bilan o’zaro birikishi va jumladagi so'z tartibi yordamida ifodalanadi.

Kitobda tillarning qiyosiy tipologiyasi haqida nazariy tushuncha berilgan, flektiv, aglyutinativ, izolyativ, polisintetik (inkorporativ) va

agglyutinativ-flektiv tillarning batafsil tavsifi, ularning differentsial va universal xususiyatlari, turdosh va qarindosh bo'lmagan tillarni solishtirish usullari, fonema, morfema va affiksal morfemalarning o'zak morfemalarga qo'shilish texnikasi, nol morfema va allomorflarning differensial va o'xshash xususiyatlari, sintaktik munosabatlarga nisbatan taqqoslanayotgan tillarning sintaktik sathdagi differensial va o'xshash belgilari: kelishik, sintaktik aloqa, predikatsiya va sintaktik munosabatlar: iboralarni shakllantirish jarayonida kesishish, nazorat qilish va qo'shilish, gapdagi so'z tartibidagi farqlar va o'xshashliklar, taqqoslanadigan tillarning leksik sathidagi farq va o'xshash xususiyatlar, so'z yasalishi kabilar shular jumlasidandir.

Ma'lumki, sobiq Ittifoq davrida o'zbek tili rus tilini tahlil qilishda qo'llanilgan usullar asosida o'rganilgan. Aksariyat hollarda esa rus tili tarkibida mavjud bo'lgan lingvistik hodisalar o'zbek tilining tuzilishida mustahkamlangan. Mamlakatimiz mustaqillikka erishgani o'zbek tilining tafakkur va nutq jarayonida mavjudligini hisobga olgan holda, o'zbek tilining tuzilishini o'zi solishtirilayotgan tilga sathlararo yondoshgan holda funksional-tizimli usul yordamida o'rganish imkoniyatini berdi.

O'zbek tilining tuzilishini tahlil qilishga bunday yondashuv ingliz va o'zbek tillari tuzilmalarida mavjud bo'lgan o'xshashlik, farq va lisoniy universaliyalarni aniqlash imkonini berdi. Shu o'rinda ta'kidlash joizki, prof. Hamid G'. Nigmatovning (filologiya fanlari doktori, o'zbek substantiv tilshunosligi asoschisi, tilshunos-faylasuf va lingvodidakt) kognitiv-pragmatik (induktiv) metod asosida o'zbek va chet tillarini qiyoslashni rivojlantirishga qo'shgan hissasi beqiyos.

Mustaqillik yillarida tilshunoslikda yaratilgan yangi talqinlar ushbu kitobda mualliflar tomonidan tanlangan tipologik nazariya asosida ingliz va o'zbek tillari tuzilmalarini tahlil qilish va solishtirish imkonini berdi, chunki tipologik nazariya cheklanmagan va tipolog tomonidan uning yangi qirralari tanlanishi mumkin.

Kitob ingliz tili o'qituvchilari uchun foydali bo'lib, ta'kidlash kerakki, qiyosiy tipologiya chet tillarni o'rganishda muvaffaqiyatning asosiy omili hisoblanadi. Chet tillarni o'qitishning qiyosiy metodologiyasi nazariy asoschisi, taniqli lingvodidakt, professor Jamol Jalolov chet tillarni o'qitishda kognitiv yondashuvni qo'llaydi va chet tillarini o'qitish metodikasi va qiyosiy tipologiya o'zaro aloqadorligiga urg'u beradi. Chet tilni o'qitish masalalari ko'pgina fanlarning,

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jumladan qiyosiy tipologiyaning o'rganish predmeti hisoblanadi. Zero, qiyosiy tipologiya ikki tillilik, interferensiya, konvergensiya va divergensiya muammolari bilan shug'ullanadi.

Qiyosiy tipologiyadan amaliy fan sifatida foydalanish chet tillarni o`qitish metodikasi orqali amalga oshirilishi ahamiyatli. Tillar tizimini solishtirishda tipologiya har bir tilning tizimli xususiyatlarini belgilaydi. Metodologiya alohida toifalarni tushuntirishda qiyosiy tipologiyaning xulosalarini taqozo etadi. Qiyosiy tipologiya interferentsiya omillarini aniqlash jarayonida metodologiya bilan bog'liq. Talabalarning bolalikdan gapiradigan ona tili ular o'rgana boshlagan chet til tizimiga ta'sir qilmay qolmaydi. Bunda tillararo analogiya muhim rol o'ynaydi. Chet tilni o'quvchi ona tilisiga qiyoslab o'rganish o'quv jarayoniga ham ijobiy, ham salbiy ta'sir ko'rsatadi. Ijobiy ta'sir shundaki, ona tilidagi bilim va ko'nikmalar analogiya uchun asos bo'lib xizmat qilishi mumkin. Salbiy ta'sir ona tilining chet tilni o'rgatish jarayoniga aralashishidadir, chunki chet tilni o'rganishda ona tili tizimi o'ziga xos lingvistik substrat bo'lib xizmat qiladi, bu esa o'rganilayotgan chet tilga ta'sir ko'rsatadi.

Kitob mualliflari yuqoridagi fikrlarni inobatga olgan holda ingliz va o'zbek tillari tarkibidagi fonetik, fonologik, fonomorfologik, sintaktik, leksik o'xshashlik va farqlarni, gap sathidagi o'xshashlik va farqlarni ko'rsatib berishga harakat qilishgan. Mazkur ishda quyidagi tipologik xususiyatlar keng yoritilgan:

1) ingliz tilidagi prefikslar boy tizimining mavjudligini taqozo etuvchi boy predloglar tizimining mavjudligi;

2) o'zbek tilida suffikslarning boy tizimi mazkur tilda so'ngso'zlar mavjudligini taqozo etadi;

3) o'zbek tili grammatikasida otlarda egalik kategoriyasining mavjudligi;

4) inglizcha otlarda egalik kategoriyasining yo'qligi;

5) o'zbek tilida gapda so'z tartibi erkin ekanligi;

6) ingliz tilida gapda so'z tartibi barqaror ekanligi ;

7) ingliz tilida artikllarning mavjudligi va mazkur til birligining o'zbek tilida berilish usullari;

8) o'zbek tilida otltarda , sonlar, otlashgan sifatlar , olmoshlar, sifatdoshlar va harakat nomida kelishik kategoriyasining mavjudligi; ravish yasashda ham kelishik formalaridan foydalanilishi;

9) ingliz tilida mazkur lisoniy hodisaning yo'qligi va hokazolar

Taqqoslangan tillarning bu xususiyatlari kitobning nazariy va amaliy (seminarlar uchun) qismlarida yoritilgan. Nazariy va amaliy (seminar) materiallarni mustahkamlash bo'yicha chora-tadbirlar majmuyi "O'z-o'ziga ta'lim" bo'limida keltirilgan. Mustaqil ta'lim uchun testlar, oraliq va yakuniy nazorat savollari, lingvistik tipologiya va qiyosiy tipologiya sohalaridagi taniqli olimlar, tilshunoslar va lingvodidaktiklarning hissalari xususidagi ma'lumotlar ham berilgan.

Professor M.X.Alimova

FOREWORD

The comparative typology of the English and Uzbek languages is the discipline taught at the philological faculties where the English language is taught as the speciality (5111400 – Foreign languages and literature (Inglish language and literature) for Bachelors. In the book genetic and typological peculiarities of the English and Uzbek languages are demonstrated in comparative aspect. The existed distinctions and similarities between these non-ralated languages are defined systematically. Professors J.Buranov, U.K. Yusupov and M.I. Rasulova carried out a lot of theoretical and practical scientific invesigations and made a great contribution in defining the distinctions and similarities in the structures of the English, Russian and Uzbek languages. J.Buranov says that the comparative typology is a branch of general linguistic typology and it compares the systems of two or more concrete languages' systems, their concrete categories and comparing linguistic phenomena in the systems of compared languages , this discipline creates concrete typological rules and laws.

In the process of comparing non-related languages by using cross-level approach the typologist defines special peculiarities in all levels of compared languages interconnected and interdependent on each other.

The results obtained in the process of researches in the field of comparative typology are used in creating linguistic universals and definite typological rules and laws.

As we know the Uzbek language is the Turkic language belonging to the Altay family of languages which is typologically agglutinated. The English language is the Germanic language belonging to the Indo- European family of languages which is typologically inflected, inclined to be analytical, because in the course of historical development the Old English language which was deeply inflected has lost its rich system of declension and conjugation , the compensation of which is performed by the rich system of prepositions and analytical forms being carried out by the combination of the auxiliary words with the notional ones and by order of words in the sentence.

This book gives theoretical interpretation of the comparative typology of languages, detailed description of the inflected, agglutinated, isolated, polysynthetic (incorporative) and agglutinated-inflected languages , demonstrating their differencial and universal characters, methods of comparing related and non-ralated languages, differencial and similar features of phonemes, morphemes and technique of adding affixal morphemes to the root morphemes, peculiarities of zero morphemes and allomorphs, differencial and similar features on the syntactical level of the compared languages concerning syntactical relations : coordination, subordination, predication, and syntactical ties: agreement, government and adjoining in the process of forming word-combinations, distinctions and similarities in order of words in the sentence, differencial and similar peculiarities on the lexical level of compared languages concerning word-formation.

It is known that in the period of former Soviet Union the Uzbek language was researched on the basis of the methods used for the analysis of the Russian language. And in most cases the linguistic phenomena existed in the structure of the Russian language were fastened on the structure of the Uzbek language. The independence of our country gave us the chance of researching the structure of the Uzbek language by functional- systemic method using cross-level approach to the language it is compared with , taking into consideration that *the language exists in the process of thought and speech* (F.F.Fortunatov, 1900) . This approach to the analysis of the structure of the Uzbek language gave the chance of defining similarities , distinctions , and linguistic universals existed in the structures of the English and Uzbek languages. Here it is reasonable to note prof. Khamid G. Nigmatov's (Doctor of Philological Sciences, the founder of the Uzbek substantial linguistics, linguist-philosopher and linguodidact) *contribution in the development of comparing Uzbek and foreign languages on the basis of cognitive-pragmatic (inductive) method.*

The new interpretations having been created in linguistics for the years of independence presented the possibility of analysing and comparing the structures of the English and Uzbek languages on the basis of the typological theory chosen by the authors in this book, as the typological theory is not limited and can be chosen by the typologist.

The book is useful for the teachers of the English language and it is necessary to note that comparative typology is the key factor of success to learn foreign languages. Prof. Jamol Jalolov, theoretical founder of comparative methodology of teaching foreign languages, famous linguodidact who is using cognitive approach to teaching foreign languages says that *methodology of teaching foreign languages and comparative typology are connected with each other and interdependent on each other* . Questions of teaching a foreign language are the object of study for many sciences , including for comparative typology as well. Comparative typology deals with problems of bilingualism, interference, convergence and divergence. The use of comparative typology as an applied discipline can be carried out through methodology of teaching foreign languages. When comparing systems of languages , typology determines the systemic features of each language. The methodology requires conclusions of a comparative typology when explaining certain categories. Comparative typology associates with methodology in the process of identifying interfering means. As the interference is a mixture of the differencial features of the native and target languages. The students' native language , which they have spoken since childhood , can not but influence the system of a foreign language , which they begin to learn. At the same time , the interlanguage analogy plays a big role. Learning a foreign language proceeding from the native language has a positive and negative impact on the learning process. The positive impact is that knowledge and skills in the field of the mother tongue can serve as a basis for the analogy. The negative impact is in the interference of the native language in the course of learning a foreign language as in the study of a foreign language , the system of the native language serves as a kind of language substrate that can not but influence the foreign language being studied.

Taking into consideration ideas interpreted above , the authors of the book demonstrated phonetic, phonological, phonomorphological, syntactical, lexical similarities and distinctions in the structures of the English and Uzbek languages , similarities and distinctions on the sentence level as well.

The book performs the task of comparison which presupposes the elimination of the pressure of non-identical means of expressing the native language on a foreign language system concerning all levels of

the language. Proceeding from the functional-systemic approach the authors of the book demonstrated the linguistic universals:

1) existence of the rich system of prepositions which supposes the existence of the rich system of prefixes in English;

2) existence of the rich system of suffixes which supposes the existence of the rich system of pospositions in Uzbek;

3) presence of articles in English and the absence of these language units in Uzbek;

4) existence of the category of case in nouns, in pronouns , in substantivized adjectives, in numerals, in participles, in harakat nomi (infinitive); besides the usage of case forms in the formation of adverbs in Uzbek;

5) existence of only two case forms in nouns and the absence of case category in other parts of speech and in verbals as well in English;

6) existence of the category of possession in Uzbek nouns;

7) absence of the category of possession in English nouns;

8) free word order in the sentence of the Uzbek language;

9) fixed word order in the sentence of the English language and so on. These peculiarities concerning compared languages are demonstrated both in the theoretical and practical (for seminars) parts of the book.

Complex of activities for the consolidation of both the theoretical and practical (seminar) materials are given in Independent Study item. Tests , questions for mid- and final terms , glossary and contributions made by outstanding scientists, linguists and linguodidacts in the field of linguistics, linguistic typology and comparative typology are given for the Independent Study item as well .

Professor M.Kh.Alimova

PART 1. LECTURES ON COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY OF THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

1. THE SUBJECT MATTER OF THE LINGUISTIC TYPOLOGY

Plan:
1. Aim of Linguistic typology. Different approaches to the subject
2. Linguistic and non-linguistic typology
3. Method of investigation
4. Definition of linguistic typology
5. Typological classification

Basic concepts of the subject:
Comparative studies, linguistic typology, private typology, universal typology, internal reconstruction, external reconstruction, synchronous and diachronic analysis

The language is the important and surprisingly perfect mean of mankind's intercourse and exchange of views. The language is the system of signs, which has two aspects: the plan of expression and the plan of meaning.

These two aspects of the language make up its structure.

Analyzing some languages we can easily notice the great similarity in their vocabulary and grammar. For example, in Russian, Polish and Bulgarian languages we can see many words of the common root. These languages belong to one genetic group that is Slavonic languages.

Language is an important part of human communication and exchange of ideas, at the same time,it is a surprisingly perfect tool. There are two sides to speech: expression plan and meaning plan. Language and speech are not important without each other.

The adequate similarity we can see in the English and German Languages, which also belong to one genetic group, that is the Germanic languages. Mentioned languages are called Indo-European languages. The Uzbek, Turkic, Azerbaijani, Tatar, Turkmen, Kyrgyz

belong to the Turkic group of languages. These languages differ from those of Indo-European, both genetically and typologically.

The linguistic typology investigates not private cases of similarity and distinctions in the structures of languages, but only those phenomena which have universal character, that is, those which include wide circle of similar signs.

The linguistic typology defines those features, which separate languages and those ones, which unite them.

The term "typology" came from the Greek language. It's origin: typos-**тип,** logos-**учение**. General typology studies the problems of taxonomy, which studies the theory of classification and systematization on the basis of comparative method. This method is used not only in linguistics but in other branches of science, too. General typology is divided into linguistic typology and non-linguistic typology.

Non-linguistic typology is used in all sciences besides linguistics, such as history, mathematics, chemistry, art, economy and others.

Linguistic typology studies the language systems on the basis of comparison. Some linguists consider that linguistic typology is a branch of general linguistics, others consider that it is a self-dependent science about the language. But it has its own subject matter, its own methods, branches and history development.

There are different approaches defining the aim, the parts and types of linguistic typology. It is an independent science, and has its own structure and methods of research.

There are two approaches to language description: 1) internal 2) external.

The first approach studies the system of any concrete national language. The second approach studies non- related systems , i. e. English-Uzbek, English-Russian and so on.

Comparison of languages without historical development, in contrast to historical comparison, called the comparison of related and non-related languages, and from antiquity to ancient Europe (comparison of Greek and Latin) in ancient India (Sanskrit and Prakrit - Middle Indian languages' comparison), in XI-XII centuries oriental linguistics (M. Kashgari and in M. Zamakhshari's dictionaries on the comparison of related and non-related languages). Comparative Linguistics

in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, in various districts of Europe and other parts of the world developed with the accumulation of research materials on related languages, paving the way for the emergence of comparative linguistics.

The comparative method is historical linguistics concerned with the reconstruction of an earlier state of a language on the basis of a comparison of related words and expressions in different languages or dialects derived from it. Comparative method was developed in the course of the 19th century for the reconstruction of Proto- Indo-European and was subsequently applied to the study of other language families. Neogrammarians by the end of the 19th century had made the orthodox approach   to historical linguistics. Changes in the phonological systems of languages through time were accounted in terms of sound laws. The most famous law is Grim's law.

The emergence of comparative-historical linguistics, first of all its comparative-historical grammar, is generally considered to be connected with the acquaintance of European linguists with Sanskrit in the late eighteenth century [for example, the German scholar F. Schlegel'swork (1808), the English scholar W. Jones' views on the relationship between Sanskrit and " classical languages " (Greek and Latin), and others. Basically, the major works on the basis of comparative linguistics appeared in the first quarter of the 19th century. German linguist F. Bopp's work on the system of Sanskrit and its comparison with the system of Greek, Latin, Persian and German (1816) and 3 volumes of Sanskrit, Zand (Avesto), Armenian, Greek, Latin, Lithuanian, Old Slavic, Goth and Comparative Grammar of the Germanic Languages "(1833-52) and the Danish scholar R.K. Rusk's " Research in the Ancient Northern Language or the Origin of the Icelandic Language " (1818) are the first serious studies in the field of comparative linguistics. It should be noted that F.Bopp and R.K. Rusk, unaware of each other's research, independently lay the foundation for comparative linguistics. The German linguist J. Grimm, with his four-volume German Grammar (1819-37) and two-volume History of the German Language (1848), made a significant contribution in comparative linguistics and introduced the concept of history into linguistic methodology.

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

When the linguist studies the language diachronically he deals with a certain period. Synchronic approach is a dynamic one. Linguisic typology is the analysis of languages not-limited in time. Linguistic typology compares the systems of genetically related and non-related languages. Linguistic typology is based on comparative historical philology which became a science or a branch of general linguistics. Yu. V. Rozhdestvensky says that languages should be considered as related or non-related according to their essence.

The contributions of well-known linguists in the field of linguistic typology, such as Yu.V. Rozhdestvensky, B. A. Uspensky, V. G. Gak, G. P. Melnikov, J. B. Buranov, U. K. Yusupov, who have studied linguistic systems by comparison, are invaluable.

Comparison may be substantial and non-substantial. Substantial comparison is a comparison of some concrete things of objects. Non-substantial comparison is a comparison of systems and their elements. For example, we can compare the grammatical structure of different languages.

Linguistic typology became a self-dependent science or a branch of general linguistics on the basis of Comparative Historical Philology. Yu. V. Rozdestvensky writes that languages are considered to be related or non-related according to their correspondence in substance .

The linguists who studied the language systems in comparison are Yu. V. Rozdestvensky, B. A. Uspensky, V. G. Gak, G. P. Melnikov, J. B. Buranov, U. K. Yusupov and others.

The subject matter of linguistic typology is still a disputable problem, because different scholars have their own understanding in this branch of linguistics. That's why there are several approaches towards this problem.

The first: linguistic typology is a separate branch of science including all kinds of comparison. It is in broad sense. The second: linguistic typology is a part of linguistics, which is opposed to traditional comparativistics, characterology and areal linguistics. In this case it is identified with structural typology.

The principal significance of linguistic typology is that the latter operates with the limitation of the number of compared languages. The

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first group of linguists thinks that the number of languages under comparison should be unlimited. In such cases we deal with Linguistic Universals. The second group of scholars suggests that the number of compared languages should be limited by related languages. The third group of linguists thinks that the number of compared languages can be even two, including related or non-related languages.

Linguistic typology may be classified according to the following criteria:

1) according to the subject of comparison it consists of
a. genetic typology
b. areal typology
c. comparative typology
d. structural typology (typological theory, typological classification, etalon language, language universals).

2) according to the levels of language hierarchy linguistic typology consists of
a. theoretical typology
b. phonological typology
c. morphological typology
d. syntactic typology
e. lexical typology
3) according to two plans of the language it consists of
a. formal typology
b. semantic typology

Self-control questions

1. What does the linguistic typology study?
2. What can you say about different viewpoints to the Linguistic Typology?
3. Speak about differences between linguistic and non-linguistic typologies.
4. What methods of investigation do you know?
5. How do you understand panchronical approach to the comparison of language systems?
6. Characterize substantial and non-substantial types of comparison. Which one is used in modern linguistics?
7. What can you say about internal and external approaches to comparison?

8. Give the definition of linguistic typology with respect to different criteria.

The list of recommended literature:

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11. Фортунатов Ф. Ф. Сравнительная морфология. М., 1965

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2. MAIN PERIODS AND FACTORS OF DEVELOPMENT AND THE MAIN PARAMETERS MODIFYING SUBJECT MATTER AND BRANCHES OF THE LINGUISTIC TYPOLOGY

Plan:
1. General characteristics of historic development of linguistic typology
2. Four periods and their peculiarities
3. Influence of different factors in historic development of linguistic typology
4. Six factors and their peculiarities
5. Main parameters modifying the subject matter and branches of linguistic typology

Basic concepts of the subject:
Main parameters, factors and their peculiarities, accepted criteria, evolutional, grammatical categories, interlanguage contacts, system closeness, genetic closeness, areal limitation, phono-morphological means, lexical means, syntactic means

Being an independent science linguistic typology has its own periods of development. It's one of the unsolved and disputable problems of modern linguistics, because defining the periods of development of linguistic typology is closely connected with the history of general linguistics and especially with the development of mental ability of mankind. Therefore, in Modem linguistics there are no accepted criteria, which may be taken as a basis for this classification. There exist different variants of periodization of linguistic typology suggested by different linguists such as professor Olkhovikov B. A. and others. But professor J. Buranov gives the most suitable classification. He suggests the following four periods:

The first period is characterized as an evolutional. It starts with the emerging of the primary linguistic works. This period lasted up to the Renaissance Epoch. Among this period we can name the Greek philosophers like Aristotle, Protogor and others who distinguished the primary grammatical categories and Stoic - secondary grammatical

categories. All grammar books of this period were based on the principles of analogy.

The second period is characterized as a period of the definition of the language comparison. The following fundamental works are specific for this period: In indo-European languages - Port-Royal Grammar, in Turkic languages -"Devon Lugat-at-Turk" written by M. Kashgari.

Port-Royal Grammar appeared in the 17th century in France. The main point of this grammar is that the language structure is treated as a system. M. Kashgari tried to analyze a set of Turkic languages from the point of view of their structure and determined degrees of their relationship.

The third period of the history of development of linguistic philology is related with the appearance of the comparative historical linguistics and the appearance of genealogical and typological classification of languages.

The fourth period is connected with the scientific linguistic typology as an independent discipline. This period coincides with the 20th century, characterized by the division of linguistic typology into different concrete branches, such as the structural, genetic, areal, comparative and so on.

The science about comparison of language systems is developed under the influence of some factors, which played a great role in it. There are 6 factors.

The first factor is named typological imitation. It means using certain methods and models of one language while studying the system of another language. It is the most ancient type of language description. For example, first Latin grammars were written on the basis of Greek grammars. Later on many grammar books of different languages were written under the influence of this method. For example, Samuel Johnson (1755) who wrote the English grammar, distinguished 6 cases in English under the influence of the Latin grammar. They are Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative, Vocative and Ablative.

The second factor is the appearance of scientific works in comparison, which played a great role in further language descriptions.

Substantial comparison of language systems began in early antiquity. The most systemic comparison of different languages began by Antuan Arnauld and Klod Lanselot in Port-Royal Grammar where

the authors studied French, Latin, and Greek languages under comparison.

Here it should be kept in mind the role of scientific-historical method, which influenced the development of linguistic comparison. It is connected with the appearance of scientific comparison, which had its own peculiar methods of comparison of language systems.

The third factor is connected with the process of studying unwritten and less known languages.

Investigation of these kinds of languages, definition of their relationship with other languages and comparison of the systems of these languages with the systems of Indo-European languages gave a certain stimulus to the development of linguistic typology.

The fourth factor is the influence of translation. Translation is one of the ancient sciences of linguistics, which has its own history. While translating from one language into another the linguist comes across with certain process of comparison of language systems. That's why some scholars, for example, Roger Ellis (2008), considers translation as one of the constituent part of linguistic typology.

The fifth factor is the influence of lexicography. While preparing different kinds of dictionaries scholars at the same time compare the systems of two or more related and non-related languages.

As usual dictionaries are compiled without paying attention to the genetic relationship of studying languages. That's why in the process of their work lexicographers distinguish phonetic, grammatical and lexical peculiarities of source language in order to interpret it in comparing languages.

The sixth factor is the practical and scientific study of foreign languages and interlanguage contacts.

While studying foreign languages and teaching them there appeared the necessity in comparing the systems of studying languages. Linguistic typology as an independent branch of general linguistics helps to study all kinds of languages in comparison.

On the basis of analysis of works written by Russian and foreign typologists such as Greenberg J.H., Bondarko A.V. and others the following parameters modifying the subject matter and branches of linguistic typology were suggested:
1. System closeness
2. Genetic closeness

3. Areal limitation of compared languages
4. Quantitative limitation
5. Deep and surface identity and non-identity
6. Identity of etic and emic units
7. Limitation of etalon language
8. Formal approach to comparison
9. Content approach to comparison
10. One-level approach to comparison
11. Cross-level approach to comparison
12. Perfectness of typological operations

System closeness means the identity or non-identity of structural types of compared languages. There are two terms in linguistics: type of language, type in language. <u>Type of language</u> is used much broader in linguistics than <u>type in language</u>. Every language has its own systemic structural organization. The system of the language consists of elements. According to the relations of their elements languages are classified into 5 types:

- ✓ Agglutinated
- ✓ Inflected
- ✓ Isolated
- ✓ Polysynthetic
- ✓ Agglutinated-inflected

The term "type of language" is used mostly within one language.

Genetic closeness means material identity of the group of compared languages. For genetic closeness structural and etic-emic identity is characteristic.

There distinguished a) genetically closely related languages such as Uzbek and Kyrgyz and b) genetically differently related languages such as Uzbek and Russian.

Areal limitation of the group of compared languages presupposes that comparison is limited by the group of languages belonging to a certain geographic area.

Quantitative limitation of compared languages may be of the following types: a) minimal limitation. It means that the list of compared languages is open. This type is used in investigating language universals; b) maximal limitation. It means that only two languages may be compared. This type is used in comparative typology; c) genetic

limitation is used in genetic typology and it means that only neighbour languages may be compared; d) limitation of certain universals.

Deep and surface identity. Under deep and surface identity we understand some generalized meaning, which is peculiar to the group of compared languages and has different representation on surface. For example, the meaning of gender or biological sex characterizes all languages of the world. That's why it is the deep structure for comparison. Its surface structure is different. In Russian there exists a special grammatical category of gender (ex: стол-mask., парта-femin., окно-neuter), in the English and Uzbek languages there is no grammatical category of gender, but its meaning can be expressed on the other levels of the language: on the lexical and lexical-syntactical levels of the language.

Etic-emic identity is the coincidence of more concrete units of compared languages on etic-emic sublevels, for example, on etic level we observe different variants of suffixes of plurality in Turkic languages.

Limitation of etalon language. Etalon language is an instrument with the help of which we compare different languages. **There are two types of etalon languages:**

1. Maximal etalon language is used when the whole language serves as etalon for comparison. For example, in the XVII-XVIII centuries Latin was used as etalon language while writing grammar books of different European languages.

2.Minimal etalon language is limited by some genetic or areal group of languages or even some grammatical or semantic categories can be used as etalon for comparison.

Formal approach to comparison. Any typological analysis can be produced either in the way of description or by separate system of symbols. It is a formulated approach towards typological description. Such approach is mainly used in structural typology and mathematical linguistics.

Content approach to comparision. In linguistics two ways of approach towards the study of language phenomena are possible:

1.From form to meaning. It is a traditional way used in linguistics, for ex.work-working; work-worked ; pen-pens; man-men; child-children.

2.From meaning to form. This way is quite new in linguistics. For example, we choose the meaning of age and then begin to define the way it is expressed in compared languages: opa-singil, aka-uka, yosh-qari.

Both of this phenomena are used in typology. Content approach means to compare languages on the basis of some preliminary chosen categorical meaning.

One-level approach to comparison. The term "level isolation" was introduced to linguistics in the 19th century. All language phenomena were studied on one level of linguistic hierarchy, mainly on phonetic and morphological levels. This approach is still used in the process of typological correspondence.

Cross level approach to comparison is opposed to level isolation and was introduced as a method of linguistic comparison. It presupposes the investigation of all possible means of expression of a chosen categorical notion in the system of compared languages. For example, the category of plurality can be expressed in Modern English by:

1. Morphological means: boy-boys
2. Phonological means: foot-feet
3. Phono-morphological means: child- children, house- houses
4. Lexico-syntactic means: much milk, much water

Perfectness of typological operations. Typological operation consists of two stages: 1) analysis; 2) correspondence.

On the first stage scholars research every language independently. On the second stage all the results of the previous analysis are compared and general laws of isomorphic and allomorphic features are revealed. The type of operation is considered perfect, when maximal number of languages is investigated. For example, for genetic typology the operation is considered completed when all the languages of certain genealogical family are taken into consideration.

Self-control questions

1. Give different viewpoints to the problem of linguistic typology development.

2. What are the main periods of development of linguistic typology?

3. Characterize universal grammar in linguistics.

4. Give definition of the term "grammatical category" and its historic development.

5. How do you understand classification of languages and what are the main viewpoints to this problem?

6. How do you characterize main factors of development of linguistic typology?

7. What scientific works do you know which played a great role in further language description?

8. Characterize the influence of translation, lexicography to the development of linguistic typology

9. Who suggested parameters modifying subject matter and branches of linguistic typology?

10. Characterize each parameter separately.

11. What kind of quantitative limitation of compared languages do you know?

12. Give your own example of deep and surface identity.

13. What is the difference between formal and content approach to comparison?

14. What is one-level and cross-level approach to comparison?

15. When is the typological operation considered to be perfect?

The list of recommended literature

1. Амирова Т. А., Ольховиков Б. А., Рождественский Ю. В. Очерки по истории лингвистики. М., 1975.

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3. DIVISION OF THE LINGUISTIC TYPOLOGY WITH RESPECT TO THE OBJECT OF INVESTIGATION , TO THE LEVELS OF LANGUAGE HIERARCHY AND TO TWO PLANS OF THE LANGUAGE

Plan:

1. Genetic, areal and comparative typologies
2. Structural typology: a) linguistic universals; b) etalon language; c) typological classification; d) typological theory
3. Language hierarchy. Analysis of each level from a typological point of view
4. Formal and semantic analysis in typology

Basic concepts of the subject:

Genetic typology, areal typology, comparative typology, structural typology, etalon language, deep identity, surface identiy, cross-level approach, content approach, synchronic, diachronic, deductive, inductive, genealogical, typological, phonetic typology , phonological typology, morphological typology, syntactic typology, lexical typology , formal typology, semantic typology

Genetic typology deals with the languages which are genetically related both synchronically and diachronically. The purpose of genetic typology is to group languages into families according to their degree of diachronic relatedness. As an independent branch of linguistic typology it is characterized by the following features:

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✓ Difference to system closeness. It means that language under comparison should belong to the same structural type.

✓ Difference to the genetic closeness. It means that only genetically related languages can be compared.

✓ Areal non-limitation of languages.

✓ Quantitatively languages are limited by a certain genetic group of a family of languages.

✓ For genetically closely related languages both deep and surface identity and also etic-emic identity are characteristic.

✓ While etic-emic identity is possible, but not obligatory, content approach is not used. The traditional approach from form to meaning is basically used.

✓ The etalon language is limited by certain category of linguistic phenomenon. Typological operation is completed in case when the languages belonging to the same genetic group or family are analysed by the same etalon language.

Genetic typology may be of two types: l) **genetic diachronic**; 2) **genetic synchronic**.

Diachronic approach deals with the comparison of genetically related languages within the definite period of time or in the cause of its development. For example, it can compare the development of morphological categories of the noun in English and in German starting with the ancient period up to nowadays.

Genetic synchronic typology deals with the comparison of genetically related languages within a certain synchronic period.

Genetic typology started in the 20th century when historical-comparative linguistics appeared and developed. We can mention such scholars as brothers Grimm Jacob, August Schleicher, Rasmus Rask, Franz Bopp. They dealt with the reconstruction of languages and discovered laws and regularities for many Indo-European languages.

Areal typology. This branch of linguistic typology deals with geographically limited number of languages. Research on areal typology reflects the effects of structural convergence as it is induced by situations of contact between speakers of different languages with various genetic affiliations. In linguistics , areal features are elements shared by languages or dialects in a geographic area, particularly when such features are not descended from a proto-language, or, common ancestor language. That is , an areal feature is

contrasted to genealogically determined similarity within the same language family. Features may diffuse from one dominant language to neighbouring languages. As a branch of linguistic typology areal typology is characterized by:

1. Indifference to system closeness
2. Indifference to genetic closenes
3. Identity of etic units; possibility of identity of emic units
4. Possibility of deep and surface identity
5. One level approach to comparison
6. The limitation of etalon language by certain linguistic phenomenon,

which is common to compared languages

To the basic tasks of areal typology we can refer study of dialects, compiling dialectal dictionaries, maps, study the degree of certain linguistic phenomenon, borrowings, neologisms, archaisms and so on.

Comparative typology. This branch of linguistic typology is characterized by:

✓ Indifference to system closeness
✓ Indifference to the genetic closeness
✓ Areal non-limitation of languages
✓ Possibility of deep and surface identity
✓ Indifference to etic-emic identity
✓ Minimal etalon language
✓ Cross- level approach to comparison
✓ Content approach to comparison
✓ Possibility of perfectness of typological operations

Comparative typology is one of the independent branches of linguistic typology. It deals with limited number of languages and also defines typological similarities and distinctions in the structures of languages belonging to different genetic groups.

Structural typology is one of the basic branches of linguistic typology which deals with the systematization and summarizing some general linguistic facts and establishing language universals. It is the major branch of linguisic typology and aims to identify universal features of languages.

Structural typology consists of the following branches:

1. Linguistic universals
2. Etalon language

3. Typological classification
4. Typological theory

Linguistic universals. Under this term scholars understand certain phenomenon or regularity which is common to all languages of the world or to their absolute majority.

Linguistic universals are known long ago. In the ancient Greek grammars the grammatical system of this language was suggested as a model of categorization for all languages. That's why grammatical categories of case and gender used to be the main grammatical universal for all languages.

In the 17th century French scholars Arnauld A. and Lanselot C. wrote their Universal or Rational Grammar of the Port-Royal concerning many Germanic languages. They compared phonetic, grammatical and logical categories which used to be the basis for creating grammar of different languages. Port-Royal Grammar is of great importance in linguisics, because it was the first work concerning language universals.

The real language universals were produced in 1961 in the World Congress of Linguists by the group of American scholars such as John Greenberg, Lyle Jenkins and Charles Osgood.

The problem of universals is connected with the process of unification of language facts and with elaboration of specific methods of discovering linguistic universals. Some scholars think that creation of full list of linguistic universals is the main task of linguistic typology. They may be of different types: synchronic and diachronic, absolute and statistic (полные, неполные), deductive - inductive, simple and complex, universals of languages and of speech. They may be also attached to the levels of language hierarchy.

Universals can be represented in the traditional way with the help of words or with special symbols. For example:

1. If languages possess prepositions, they possess prefixes either. If they don't have prepositions, they lack prefixes. For example, the English and Russian languages have prepositions and they have prefixes either. Uzbek and other Turkic languages don't have native prefixes, but these languages have postpositions.

2. If languages possess dual number, they possess plural number either. For example, in old English pronouns had singular, plural and

dual numbers, but in modern English there exist only: singular and plural. Dual number existed in Sanskrit, Greek and ancient Russian.

Etalon language. It is a linguistic means with the help of which scholars fulfill the process of comparing languages. The notion etalon language is quite new which has been developed and elaborated by the Russian linguist B.A.Uspenskiy. He says that any language is based on the meta- language,which is the same as an etalon language to make transformations from it to real languages and back, from real languages to an etalon.(Uspenskiy B.A.,1965). It is still used for comparative purposes. For practical purposes etalon language can be divided into maximal and minimal.

Maximal etalon language is the whole language with the highly developed structure, which is used for the purpose of comparison. For example, the Latin language was used as etalon for compiling many European grammars. Minimal etalon language can be expressed by:

1.A special abstract system made for comparison;

2.Some artificial language made for comparison;

3.Special linguistic methods;

4.Grammatical, lexical and other linguistic categories; 5.Typological categories;

6.Concrete language; 7.Semantic fields;

8. Different features concerning the phonetic and grammatical pecularities.

Typological classification. There are two types of classification of languages in linguistics: Genealogical, which studies etic units: concrete sounds, words, syntactic units and so on. According to this classification languages are grouped into the families, such as Indo-European, Semitic, Altaic and so on. Typological classification is introduced by several linguists who treated languages not according to their genetic backgrounds, they are W. Humboldt, E. Sapir, F. Fortunatov. According to the opinion of these linguists languages are classified into 5 types:

1. Isolated
2. Agglutinated
3. Inflected
4. Polysynthetic
5. Agglutinated - inflecled.

The main criterion for this type of classification is the means of expression of synthetic relations among words in the sentence. According to their relations among the words in the sentence they may use different means, for example, inflections, function words, intonation, word order, sound interchange, stress and so on.

Isolated type of languages is characterized by the absence of inflections and affixational morphemes expressing the relationship among the words in the sentence. This type includes ancient Chinese and other languages. It is characterized by the following features:

a) words are unchangeable

b) word formation is less developed

c) the main signal of grammar is word order

d) intonation may form new words and express grammatical meanings

e) words are not distributed into parts of speech

While speaking about isolating type of languages we mean that the root of the word may express both the lexical and grammatical meanings. These types of languages have no grammatical suffixes, and word order expresses syntactic relations among the words in the sentence.

Agglutinated type of languages is characterized by the following features:

a)suffixes are monosemantic: uy**dagilarimizdan** (every affixal morpheme has a separate grammatical meaning);

b)modifying word is used before the noun: qizil gul; yaxshi kitob;

c)the root of the word doesn't change its sound structure by the connection of the affixal morphemes: bola-bolalar ; Kamola-Kamolaning;

d)phonetic changes have their own place in the word formation and in word changing;

e)suffixes are added to the stem without fusion, that is by agglutination or mechanically;

Every suffix in Uzbek, which belongs to agglutinated type of languages, has its own grammatical meaning: kitob+lar+imiz+ning.

Main grammatical signals, which characterize the structure of these types of languages are agglutination. These languages are widely spread, for example, Turkic, Mongolian , Hungarian, Finno-Ugric.

Inflected type of language is characterized by the following features:

a) Inflection is used as the main grammatical signal: man-men; child-children; house-houses; rise-rose; spend-spent, good-better; bad-worse; go-went; be: am-is-are-was-were;

b) Every affixal morpheme can be used in different functions;

c) The end of the stem may undergo changes when they are declined or conjugated;

d) The word order is spread differently: 1) it isn't mainly fixed; 2) it is fixed, for example, the English language has a fixed word order, the Russian language has a free word order. Here it is reasonable to mention that in the Ancient English language the word order was also free as it is now in Russian, but in the course of historical development the English language has lost its rich system of declension and conjugation.The Modern English language is inflected which is inclined to be analytical, the system of prepositions has been developed for the compensation of the functions of lost case forms.

The Latin language belongs to the inflected type, and the word order is free, because the words have a highly developed system of paradigm. The same feature is typical to the Russian language. In the inflicted type of languages one suffix may express different grammatical categories, for example, Latin frango - я понимаю, where "o" expresses tense (present), number (singular), person(I), voice (active), mood (indicative).

Polysynthetic or incorporated type of languages are characterized by the following features:

a) the word and the sentence coincide;

b) the word and affix coincide;

c) parts of speech are not differentiated.

For example, in Chucotic language «вымынгынторген» means «я вынимаю руку». Here the sentence is alike a word.

There are some languages of this type, for example, the so- called languages of American Indians.

There exist some other classifications. The American linguist Edward Sapir classified language systems on the basis of two units: analytism and synthetism. All the languages may be described according to these two positions.

The Russian linguist G. P. Melnikov classified languages on the basis of his inner determinants . G.P. Melnikov's concept of inner determinants of languages allows to interpret the traditional morphological classification of languages as a system of types opposed according to their inner determinants in historically formed specific communicative conditions acting as external determinants of languages. Besides, there exists the so- called quantitative classification of the American linguist Greenberg Joseph, this classification resumes presence or absence of the statistical frequency of the isolated, isolated-agglutinated and inflected units. From this viewpoint Modern English is an analytical type and at the same time possesses some agglutinated features.

Fortunatov F.F. considers the Arabic language to be agglutinated-inflected as the roots in this language consist of consonants, and the "harakats", which are used after each consonant, express lexical and grammatical meanings. It is easy to change these **harakats** (to place them after each consonant letter and to take them out). That is why Fortunatov F.F. considers this language to be agglutinated -inflected.

Typological theory. Typological operations are accomplished by typological theory, which are connected with establishing different etalon languages of linguistic investigations. It is also connected with description of different language universals, which may be described in different ways.

Typological theory is not limited. Every typologist may establish and suggest his own method. For example, German linguists Schlegel Fr., Humboldt W., Bopp F. and others established typological theory for morphological classification of languages. Bondarko A. V. and others established functional-semantic categories, Otto Jespersen and Meshchaninov I.I.(the Russian linguist,etnographer,academician of the Russian Academy of Sciences) created

notional categories, Gulyga E.V. and Shendels E.I.(1969) worked out lexico-grammatical fields, Buranov J.B. proposed

typological categories. All these methods are connected with the typological theory.

There are five types of linguistic typologies: phonetic, phonological, morphological, syntactic and lexical.

Phonetic typology deals with the comparison of units of phonetic level. It may compare units of related and non-related languages and

studies the quantity of vowels and consonants, their articulation, presence or absence of some sounds, classification of languages according to the sounds' peculiarities.

One of the first representatives of the phonetic typology was E. D. Polivanov. He is considered to be the founder of the phonetic typology. Phonetic system of Turkic languages is studied by professor Sherbak A. M.(1994).

Phonological typology is a more isolated section than other typologies. It is one of the highly developed levels from the typological viewpoint. Phonological typology studies different phonological features, phonological universals , it concentrates on phoneme invariants and on implicational universals. It classifies languages according to the common phonological features.

Nasal-non-nazal ; tonal-non-tonal; languages with initial stress - languages with final stress; languages with vowel harmony.

The founders of phonological typology are Trubetzkoy N.(1939), Jacobson R. (1941), Martinet A.(1961), Schmid S., Panov M.V., Shirokov O. S., Klychkov G.S. and others. Trubetzkoy N. created "The principles of phonology" which is the basis of phonological typology.

Phonological typology is more isolated than other typologies. It is one of the highly developed levels from the typological viewpoint. Achievements of phonological typology are distinguishing phonological universals, differential features studied by Trubetzkoy N. and mentioned above linguists.

Morphological typology studies the units of morphological level. It deals with two types of comparisons: 1) with morphological classification; 2) with grammatical categories. According to the morphological classification languages are classified due to their means of expression of the grammatical meaning.

Grammatical categories may be of two types: primary grammatical categories, which deal with parts of speech; secondary grammatical categories deal with the categories within every part of speech separately: tense, aspect, voice, degrees of comparison, number, case , etc. Morphological typology is limited according to the number of languages applied to comparison. Topological operations, etalon languages are limited in this case correspondingly. Morphological typology studies morphological paradigms. It classifies languages into a) languages with highly developed morphology: Russian, Arabic; b)

languages with less developed morphology: English, Bulgarian, Armenian, Persian; c) languages with non-developed morphology: Chinese.

Syntactic typology studies the syntactic structure of different languages, which consists of two sublevels: phrase level and sentence level. Syntactic typology studies types of syntactic relations and grammatical signals concerning the syntactic relations. In the system of languages there exist the following syntactic relations: coordination, subordination, predication. Syntactic ties are agreement, government and adjoining. Aggreement and government are productive in Russian, government and adjoining are productive in Uzbek, adjoining is productive in English, though all syntactic ties, agreement, government and adjoining, are found in the mentioned above languages. We speak about the productivity of the definite linguistic phenomenon in the language proceeding from its being uppermost in mind due to its usage much wider than the other ones used for the purpose taken into consideration

Lexical typology deals with the units of lexical level. It studies interlingual 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 every level of language hierarchy.

Lexical typology consists of a) lexical typology of words; b) word-building typology; c) comparative lexicology; d) lexic-stylistic typology; e) lexical typology of borrowings; f) lexical typology of phraseology; g) lexical typology of proverbs and sayings and many others. Each section has its own methods and tasks of investigation. Lexical typology is less studied than other branches of linguistic typology. Nevertheless, we can differentiate the main questions, which study the lexical typology. They are 1) definition of its subject matter and aim; 2) definition of its role in linguistic typology; 3) establishment of the main principles of lexical universals; 4) definition of the word structure of the languages and so on.

There are two types of typologies according to two plans of the language: **formal and semantic**.

Formal typology studies the units of the expression plan. It is connected with all levels of language hierarchy. Formal typology studies the periods of the appearance and transformation of information from generation to generation.

According to its diachronic development the history of the formal typology consists of four periods:

✓ The period before the appearance of the writing system. The information was rendered orally;

✓ The establishment of the first letters. During this period the information was rendered by the first letters written on the stones, trees and different objects. During this period the information was not widely spread;

✓ The third period is characterized as a period of establishing the publishing system of printing system. In this period the information became widely spread;

✓ The fourth period concerns our days, when the information is rendered by letters, mobile telephone, TV, radio, e-mail, internet and by other formal ways. During this period information is prepared by special automatic system. Machines help the people to prepare the information. Formal typology concerns all the levels of language hierarchy.

On the phonetic and phonological levels it studies sounds and their graphic description, syllable transcription, alphabet, graphic description of the phonetic system and etc.

On the morphological level formal typology studies morphemic description, on the syntactic level - syntagmatic description, on the lexical level - lexeme description.

In general on the grammatical level formal typology studies formal grammatical models, syntactic patterns and so on.

Semantic typology studies two types of meanings: 1)lexical meaning, which corresponds to the real meaning of the word; 2) grammatical meaning, which is more abstract and typical to the whole classes of words.

Semantic typology according to the lexical meaning classifies words into different semantic groups of classes, such as a) human names; b) names of animals; c) names of planets; d) names of instruments; e) place names and so on. Semantic typology studies the etymology of human names. Names of human beings may be borrowed

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from the names of flowers, animals, instruments, planets, trees and different other phenomena. Semantic typology studies: a) grammatical categories concerning every part of speech : the category of modality, location, voice, tense, etc; b) the relation between logical and grammatical categories; c) typological meanings, which characterize the semantic sub-system of all languages.

Self-control questions:

1. What are the main types of typology?
2. Characteristic features of genetic typology: genetic, diachronic and genetic synchronic typologies.
3. What languages does areal typology study? Speak about the main specific features.
4. What are the main criteria, which characterize comparative typology?
5. Speak about structural typology as one of the basic branches of linguistic typology.
6. What does the term "linguistic universals" mean? Speak about its historic development.
7. How do you understand the term "etalon language"?
8. What kinds of classification of languages do you know?
9. Speak about characteristic features of typological classification.
10. Speak about each type of languages.
11. How do you understand the term "typological theory"?
12. How do you understand levels of language hierarchy?
13. What are the main specific features of each type of typology?
14. What does the morphological typology study?
15. Characterize syntactic typology?
16. What does lexical typology study?
17. What can you say about two plans of language ? How do the linguists differentiate them?
18. Speak about a) formal approach to comparison , b) formal typology and its features.
19. What are the main distinctions between lexical and semantic typologies?

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4. THE PROBLEM OF TYPOLOGICAL CATEGORIZATION

Plan:

1. Definition of the term "category".
2. Different categories worked out by foreign and Russian scholars.
3. Typological categories and their main parameters.
4. Analyses of typological categories of nouns.

Basic concepts of the subject:

Typological categories, functional semantic fields, grammatical-lexical fields, grammatical form, grammatical meaning, morphological paradigm, grammatical morphemes, notional categories, logical and philosophical categories, functional-semantic categories, super-segmenal units, interlanguage, interclass, interlevel criteria, interlanguage category, interlevelness of typological categories, lexico-grammatical classes of words.

Linguistics is studied by categories. Categories are the basis of linguistic study. In Greek kategoria - reflection, thought, sign ; in philosophy - the most general and basic concepts that reflect the events in reality and the important, common features and relationships of knowledge. Category knowledge and social practice emerged as a generalized result of historical development. The earliest teachings about the phenomenon category can be found in some philosophical schools of ancient India. The Greek philosopher Plato believed that things and events in the world were formed in the form of expressions of concepts. Aristotle, in his Categories, interprets it as a reflection of objective reality and the highest generalization. U10 provides information on the following categories: essence, quantity, quality, attitude, place, time, rule, situation, behaviour and difficulty. Aristotle's theory of category was developed by Kindi, Farobi, and Ibn Sina. Medieval scholasticism demonsrates six categories: being (essence), quality, quantity, action (change), attitude, and possession.

R. Descartes(a French philosopher, matematician and scientist) and J. Locke point out three categories: substance, state, and relation. I. Kant understands category as a form of reason. G.V.F. Gegel also made a great contribution in the development of the doctrine of categories. He created a broad and complex system of teaching about categories.

The doctrine of categories is also widely covered in the works of E. Hartmann, A. Schopenhauer, and F. Nietzsche.

Scientists and philosophers work according to the categories proposed by them. The categories have methodological and ideological content, which help a person to understand the essence of being, the role of man in being.

Each science has its own specific categories, which reflect the characteristics of the science. Philosophical categories, in contrast to science categories, summarize the results of the development of specific sciences and describe aspects of methodological and philosophical significance in scientific knowledge.

Hence, a general concept (time category, causal category) that represents the most important features and relationships of things and events in the material world, as well as a common name for something, event, type of person, category, group, degree, etc. are combined with the commonalty of certain characteristics.

Linguistic typology uses different categories to establish typological similarities and distinctions. It concerns all the branches of linguistics, such as phonetics, phonology, stylistics, theory of translation, lexicology and so on.

There exist different categories, for example, grammatical, notional, functional-semantic, grammatical-lexical fields, typological categories and so on.

All these categories are based on studying the linguistic phenomenon according to the following approach: from meaning to form. It means that languages must be compared on the basis of some preliminary chosen categorical meanings.

Traditional **grammatical categories** consist of the grammatical form and grammatical meaning. Typology uses grammatical categories to compare the morphological level of the language , but grammatical categories are not sufficient for typological operations, because 1) they are used within the morphological level only, 2) morphological paradigms are differently developed in different languages. Besides, there are some languages with not developed morphology.

Notional categories are established by Danish scholar O. Yespersen and Russian linguist I. I. Meshchaninov. They study the relations between language and mind. All categories may be of two types: linguistic and logical or philosophical.

Philosophical categories are primary, linguistic categories are secondary. They have different relations. In some cases they coincide. In other cases they don't correspond to each other, for example, there are three real times, which have different realizations. Mainly three times must have three time forms in grammar: Present, Past, Future.

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Besides, in logic there exist two biological sexes: male and female. In grammar they correspond to three grammatical genders: masculine, feminine, neuter. Philosophical sex or gender is real, and grammatical gender is formal. They may correspond only when they express animate nouns.

Functional-semantic categories are established by A. V. Bondarko. Functional-semantic categories are expressed by the units of the grammatical and lexical levels. According to its nature any functional-semantic category is monolinguistic and is used when the system of concrete language is studied.

Grammatical-lexical fields are established by E.V.Guliga and E.I.Shendels. They coincide with functional-semantic categories partially. Grammatical-lexical fields unite vocabulary and grammar for the expression of this or that categorical notion.

Authors distinguished fields of plurality, time, modality, comparison, animateness/inanimateness and so on..

This method is used for typological investigation of the system of one language. The above mentioned categories do not satisfy typologists. Thus, to compare the systems of different languages typological categories must be used.

Typological categories are established by professor J. Buranov. They are connected with typological investigations and consist of the typological form and typological meaning. Typological meaning is modified as an abstract notion, which lies under the system of languages under comparison. Typological meaning is realized by typological form, which may be expressed by the connection of the affixal morphemes to the root morphemes or to the stem of the words , by sound interchange, by suppletive forms, by the change of the place of the stress in the word, by word order, by the combination of the auxiliary word with the notional one. On the lexical level they may be expressed by derivational suffixes and independent words. On the syntactic level they may be expressed by phrases and sentences.

Typological categories are modified by the following criteria: interlanguage, interclass, interlevel. Typological categories are interlanguage because they are common to the system of comparing languages. For example, the category of number consists of the opposition of singularity and plurality. It is a universal and characterizes

almost all languages in general, and English, Russian, Uzbek in particular. So the category of number is an interlanguage category.

The process of comparison is very complicated with different types of languages, where this or that language under comparison has its own specific peculiarities. That's why the ways of expression of typological categories may be different and in order to reveal them typologist deals with all levels while investigating languages, that is interlevelness of typological categories. For example, on the morphological level the category of number is expressed by suffix **-s(-es**) in English (book-books, yard-yards, class-classes), **-lar** in Uzbek (kitob-kitoblar).

Besides, in English compound words take the morpheme of plurality in different ways, for example: bookcases, passers - by and men-of war.

On the lexical level the category of number may be expressed by root morphemes, which possess basic lexical meaning, by affixal morphermes, compound words and etc.

On the syntactic level we come across with different types of combination of words in English: a large number, in company with; in Uzbek: ikki yo'lovchi, ko'p havo.

Typological categories are interclass, because their meaning can be expressed by means of different lexico-grammatical classes of words. For example, the category of number, besides nouns, may be used in adjectives (English: dual, limitless, crowded); (Uzbek: behisob, turli, mo'l); pronouns (myself-ourselves, my-our, biz-bizlar, men-biz); verbs (multiply, join, add; ko'paymoq, birikmoq); adverbs (together, twice; ko'p, to'la, ancha); numerals, prepositions and conjunctions: (with, among; bilan, hamda).

There are some nouns, which have only the forms of plurality (clothes, scissors, trousers, spectacles) , where there are the most part names of things used in the form of plurality, consist of two or more parts , and singularity (army, police, where the meaning of plurality is uppermost in mind) in English; брюки, ножницы, очки (in plural), снег, дождь (in singular) in Russian; xalq, olomon, armiya , qor, yomg'ir (these words are used in singular where the meaning of plurality is uppermost in mind) in Uzbek.

Self-control questions:

1. Give the definition of the term "category".
2. History development of grammatical categories.
3. Different viewpoints to the problem of categorization.
4. Characterize notional, functional-semantic, grammatical-lexical and other categories.
5. Speak about typological categories , their definition and main criteria of modifying them.
6. How do you understand the main parameters of modifying typological categories: interlanguage, interlevel, interclass?
7. Speak about the typological categories of number and case.

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5. METHODS OF INVESTIGATING FOREIGN AND NATIVE LANGUAGES

Plan:

1. Language is the system of signs.

2.The idea of the type of the language.

Basic concepts of the subject:

System of signs, word forms, isomorphism, compensation, case variants, attributive constructions, adjoining, agreement, government, zero morphemes, synthetic forms, analytical forms, pure type, stable word order, a two-morpheme structure, a three-morpheme structure , case variants

Linguistics has been distinguished from other disciplines since its inception as an independent discipline, with a focus on distinguishing between language and speech. But throughout the history of the development of science, language and speech have not differed in all respects. Therefore, speech phenomena have often been interpreted as linguistic phenomena. In the further development of linguistics, great attention is paid to the distinction between language and speech.

Different approach to the phenomena of language and speech was first used in Arabic linguistics in the VIII-IX centuries, and later studying it as a whole system, (formed in the 1920s and called system-structural linguistics) is given in the works of famous linguists V. Humboldt, A. Steinthal, Boduen de Curtene.The scientific and practical differentiation of the phenomena of speech and their units in language, and the application of these concepts in a completely new context, is connected with the doctrine created by Ferdinand de Saussure and his

followers. The distinction between language and speech, the approach to language as a system, have been regarded as a revolutionary phenomenon in 20th century world linguistics.

A language is a set of units that are prepared in advance for all members of a society, serve to express common and binding ideas for all, and serve other purposes, as well as the laws of interconnection of these units. This interpretation of language proves that it is a psychophysical phenomenon, that it embodies qualities such as generality, essence, possibility, cause . Language embodies such features in concrete forms as special events and realities. From this point of view, language and speech have their own independent units.

In language, the units and the laws of aggregation differ. A linguistic unit consists of the unity of two parts:

a) the shape, the outer side of the linguistic unit;

b) a specific function of a linguistic unit, its spiritual value.

Linguistic unit is stored in the mind as a specific scheme, design, symbol. For example, the general idea of the pronunciation features of the phoneme [a] is the same in the language of all members of the Uzbek-speaking community. This is the outer side of the phoneme [a], and the inner side is the distinguishing feature. In fact, the inside and the outside are indistinguishable, but they are not exactly the same. In the interconnected, interdependent chain of "language ~ speech ability ~ speech", only speech is manifested in external form (oral, written). It should be noted that language is always nourished by thinking. Thinking, of course, is nourished by nationality, environment, and society. Ferdinand de Saussure explained the relationship between language and speech according to the rules of chess. The pieces of chess and the rules of movement of each piece are similar to the linguistic units in our minds and their ability to combine. The rules of the game are the same for everyone. A player is like a speaker, and knowing the game of chess is like a speaker. The movement of the chess pieces can be compared to making speech. For example,

chess ~ ability to play ~ game;

language ~ speech ability ~ speech.

The language is considered to be the system of signs. The notion "system" is defined as complex of units, where every unit receives its quantitative characteristics depending on the other units. Always where

is a system, there should be two units at least. If one of these units is omitted there can't be a system.

Below we look at the differences and connections between language and speech units.

1. **Phoneme and sound**. The smallest of the linguistic units is the phoneme. A phoneme is a unit of sound that can distinguish one word from another in a particular language. Each phoneme is stored in the minds of speakers as a special "acoustic-articulatory unit" or "sound originality" formed on the basis of a set of features that distinguish their type. Distinctive features of a particular phoneme are formed on the basis of its articulatory and acoustic properties. While articulatory signs are an idea of automatic, standard states in which speech organs are adapted to the same movement to pronounce certain sounds, acoustic signs are understood as the quality and quantity of pronunciation specific to the same type of sound.

Uzbek-speaking people have information about 30 types of sounds - phonemes - in the modern Uzbek literary language. This information comes to life in the human mind as a result of learning a language, showing it to others and one's own speech. For example, the owner of the Uzbek language, as a result of observing the activities of his auditory and speech organs, pronounces the vowel [a] as the vowel, labial; and labial, consonance, explosiveness of the phoneme [p] , has a "natural" knowledge that it has such characteristics as explosiveness and lip-smacking characters. When speaking, one tries to animate these typical characters, to realize the potential of the mind, to customize the phonetic commonalty.

Linguistic units are limited in number compared to spoken units, but their number is not small. So, they would only resort to this as a last resort.

It is known that a person remembers things on the basis of their generalizing and distinguishing features. When there are many things to keep in mind, the best way to remember is to classify. The classification is based on identifying similarities and differences. **This principle applies to all linguistic units**, especially the classification of phonemes.

In the modern Uzbek literary language 30 phonemes exist in the minds of speakers, first of all, they are divided into two groups - vowels and consonants. These groups are determined by the degree of

involvement of sound and noise in the pronunciation of sounds. The division continues in this way to a separate phoneme. Both vowels and consonants are subdivided into subgroups based on opposite signs. For example, the Uzbek language has a system of 6 vowels, which are distinguished from consonants by their silence. However, the system itself is divided on the basis of the opposite characteristics of the elements. The contrast of the vowels is as follows:

i ~ u e ~ o 'a ~ o

In general, phonemes, which are the smallest linguistic units, are a general pattern of sound patterns created by human speech organs and live in our minds as a series of generalizations of infinite sounds. Based on these psycho-acoustic images in the minds of the speakers, they move the limbs and create sounds. Or the listener compares the sounds made by others to the pattern in his mind by hearing them.

Phonemes have the property of distinguishing meanings, and this phenomenon is not observed in sounds with different forms of the same phoneme. When a sound is replaced by a sound that is a reflection of another phoneme, the meaning of the word is renewed, that is, it becomes another word. For this reason, the phoneme has been described as the smallest, meaningful and indivisible unit of language, for ex. in Uzbek: kuch-ko'ch (strength-move (from one place to another); in English :bad-bed, sheep-ship.

Lexemes and words. A lexeme is a unit of language that serves to name, express, and represent all phenomena. A lexeme as a linguistic unit consists of two psychophysical-acoustic structures (sound shells), one of which cannot exist without the other, i.e. the nomema and the semantic structure formed on the basis of a certain concept, i.e. the unity of the semema.

The sound structure of lexemes as a linguistic unit is based on different combinations of phonetic units.

Each lexeme also has a content as a linguistic unit. The content plan of lexemes refers to concepts that denote an object, action, sign, quantity, etc., in an entity called denotations or referents. Concepts and meanings are not the same thing, they have different characteristics. For example, people who speak English, Russian, and German have the concepts of **brother and sister** in their minds. However, these concepts are combined in the same meaning in the lexemes **brother** (English), **bra**t (Russian) and **bruder** (German).

A lexeme is a unit of lexical meaning that underlies a set of words that are related through inflection. It is a basic abstract unit of meaning, a unit of morphological analysis in linguistics that roughly corresponds to a set of forms taken by a single root- word, for ex. in English **run, runs, ran** and **running** are forms of the same lexeme which can be represented as **run**

Semantics is the study of meaning, reference or truth. It is the study of meaning in language . It can be applied to entire texts or to single words, for ex., **destination** and **last stop** technically mean the same thing , but we should differ their subtle shades of meaning.There are two types of meanings: conceptual meaning and associative meaning. The conceptual meaning of the word **sea** is something **large filled with salt water** and so on. This meaning is clear to everyone. The associative meaning might be pirates, shipwreck, storms and so on. Semantics can address meaning as the levels of words, phrases, sentences, or larger units of discourse. The following types of semantics should be differed in linguistics:

Formal semantics identifies domain specific mental operations which speakers perform when they compute a sentence's meaning on the basis of syntactic structure. **Conceptual semantics** is an effort to explain properties of argument structure . The assumption behind this theory is that syntactic properties of phrases reflect the meanings of the words that head them. With this theory , linguists can better deal with the fact that subtle differences in word meaning correlate with other differences in the syntactic structure that the word appears in. **Cognitive semantics** approaches meaning from the perspective of cognitive linguistics. In this framework language is explained via general human cognitive abilities rather than domain- specific language module.The techniques native to cognitive semantics are typically used in lexical studies such as put forth by Leonard Talmy, George Lakoff. **Lexical semantics** investigates the meaning of a word which is fully reflected by the context.The meaning of a word is constituted by its contextual relations. In order to accomplish the distinction in meaning any part of a sentence that bears a meaning and combines with the meanings of other constituents is labeled as a semantic constituent. **Cross-cultural semantics' purpose** is to introduce the participants to the basic assumptions, scope, and methodology of Natural Semantic Metalanguage(NSM) project, focusing on the empirical search for

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semantic primes and universals in natural human languages. The Natural Semantic Metalanguage research framework has clear implications for language teaching, cross-cultural communications and education.

Computational semantics is focused on the processing of linguistic meaning. In order to do this algorithms and architectures are described.

Above we have given interpretations concerning the units of every level of the language so that when speaking about the methods of investigating the structues of foreign and native languages the specialist working in the field of comparison of language structures should be aware of language units in phonology, morphology, syntax, lexicology and semantics.

Proceeding from the definition of the systemic character of the language as it has been interpreted above, every phenomenon in the language structure is examined in the binary opposition. The language is considered to be the system of signs. The notion "system" is defined as complex of units, where every unit receives its quantitative characteristics depending on the other units. Always where is a system, there should be two units at least. If one of these units is omitted there can't be a system.

F.F. Fortunatof's theory of word form is of great importance in defining grammatical ways of any grammatical phenomena. He says the following speaking about word forms: "формою отдельных полных слов в собственном значении этого термина называется способность отдельных слов **выделять из себя для сознания говорящего** (underlined by Alimova M.Kh.) формальную и основную принадлежность звуковой стороны, которая видоизменяет значение другой основной принадлежности этого слова, как существующий в другом слове или в других словах с другой формальной принадлежностью". (Ф. Ф. Фортунатов Избр. труды. М. 1965 , с. 190.) Proceeding from this definition of word form, M. N. Peterson gave further interpretation to the word- form. So, he marks: "Для определения формы того или другого слова, надо установить, входит ли оно в двойной ряд оппозиций: парадигматический и синтагматический. В результате оппозиций, например в слове слепой, выделяются две части: слеп- , которая

находится и в слове слепая и -ой ; с частью слеп-, которая называется основной принадлежностью, связано вещественное значение слова. Часть -ой вносит в основную часть оттенок, который в данном случае означает, что слово слепой относится к слову мужского рода. Это называется формальной принадлежностью".[13]

M. N. Peterson's such method of approach to the word form is applied in this manual to define word-forms in the English, Russian and Uzbek languages. Mentioned word forms of **слепой** and **слепая** are synthetic forms, because there the form of the word is expressed in the word itself.

In this manual F. F. Fortunatov's word form theory is taken in the wide sense, that is form of words are expressed in two ways: synthetically and analytically. Fortunatov's the so called «грамматически частичные слова» are considered to be analytical forms. He says the following about such forms: «грамматически частичные слова имеют формы, которые своими формами изменяют формы другого полного слова, соотносительние по значению с известными простыми формами полного слова»[13]

As we see F.F.Fortunatov's definition of the so-called «грамматически частичные слова» is the continuation of the simple word-form definition, where the word is considered to be divided into the stem and affix. Auxiliary words, which are used to express grammatical meanings, are considered to be analytical word-forms, performing the same functions, as simple word-forms do. Analyzing analytical word-forms we should differ morphological analytical word-forms from those of the syntactic, which perform not morphological but syntactic functions in such sentences, as **I'm a teacher, The wall is white**, where the nominal part of the predicate can't enter the binary opposition without the auxiliary one. In the sentences such as **I write and I'm writing** the words **write** and **writing** can enter the binary opposition without the auxiliary word **am** which helps to express the continuation of the action in combination with the participle I. Such combinations differ from idiomatic and phraseological units. They are not dependent on the combination as a whole, that's why they are considered to be free combinations, which are divided into the basic and formal parts.

The idea of the type of the language. One of the main ideas of linguistic typology is the idea of the type of the language. In order to define the idea of the type of the language we should examine some features of signs existing in some languages, which make up their character. We should begin with the structure of the word. In Russian words are divided into roots, stems, word-forming and word-changing morphemes. Compare: врем-(the root of the word), -ен (word-forming morpheme), -н (word-forming affix), -ой (word-changing morpheme). We usually come across the fact that the root of the word cannot exist as a word. This concerns adjectives and verbs too. Compare : the roots **черн-** and **сид-** which can't exist as the independent words in the language. If we take words **оу** »месяц», **bola** «ребенок» in the Uzbek language we can see that roots and words in this language are alike. Besides, the root according to its sound structure coincides with the whole word, that is Uzbek **оу** (корень), **оу**(слово).

As we have seen, in Russian, in order to have an independent lexical unit, we should formulate it with the word-forming morpheme. So in the mentioned word **временной**, neither the **врем-** nor the **времен-** can be an independent lexical unit, but only **временной** - can, where **- ой** is the word-changing morpheme. If we check up the Uzbek word «maktab», and add suffixes to it, we'll see that the morphemes we add don't deprive the word «maktab» of its independence. These added morphemes only give the word new grammatical meanings: «makab» - «школа», «maktabda» - «в школе», «makablarda»-«в школах», «makablarimizda»- «в наших школах».

We'll mark one more interesting feature, which differ the Uzbek language from the Russian and English languages, that is, there is no prefixation in the Uzbek language, except the words borrowed from Arabic and Iranian languages : serhosil, befoyda, sermazmun, hamshahar, etc. All grammatical and lexical changings in Uzbek are performed by suffixation except borrowings. But in the English and Russian languages both suffixes and prefixes are used for this aim.

Addressing the structure of the sentence, we notice the common sign in the English and Uzbek languages, that is the stable order of words. In English:
subject+predicate+object   (S+P+O),   in   Uzbek:

subject+object+predicate
(S+O+P).

In Russian order of words in the sentence is free in comparison with the mentioned languages, that is, subject+predicate+object (S+P+O). In the special stylistic conditions the Russian language allows some other versions of the order of words, that is, O+P+S , O+S+P, P+O+S, P+S+O, which are impossible in the English and Uzbek languages.

Given examples show that every language possesses some features, which are peculiar to this language differing it from other languages. These features of signs co-exist with each other not simply mechanically but they make up the concrete and stable system of the language.

Czech linguist B. Scalichka showed that there are the following relations among language phenomenon:

• If there is A, there is B too, that is if the language has phenomenon A, for ex., grammatical agreement in gender in Russian, German, Swedish, French, there should be phenomenon B too, that is there should be the grammatical category of gender.

• As in the English, Uzbek, Japanese and Indonesian languages there aren't phenomenon A, that is the grammatical agreement in gender, there isn't phenomenon B too, that is the grammatical gender itself.

• If there is A, there will probably exist B, this kind of relation can receive two ways of expression.

Isomorphism, that is, it is such a relation that if the problem A is solved in a concrete way, the problem B should be solved in this way too. So, if the language has many classes of declension as in the old English language, in old Russian and in other Indo-European languages, where there were several classes of declension, it has several classes of strong verbs and three classes of weak ones.

Compensation, that is, the relation, where if the language disposes two ways of expressing the same grammatical phenomenon, one can suppose that there will be found a language, which uses one of them. So, if the order of words in language is grammatically meaningful as it is in the English, Turkic, and Mongolian languages, there the attribute doesn't agree with the word it modifies in gender, number and case in the language.

If there is phenomenon A in the language, there may exist phenomenon B, though this kind of relation is purely rare, it may be taken into account while defining typological peculiarities of the language.

So, mentioned three relations prove that the linguistics proceeds from the understanding, that the language is the system where its elements, that is materially formulated units (phonemes, morphemes, words) exist in the concrete and stable set relations to each other. On the one hand this defines the basic thesis that is in the language as in any thoroughly worked out system one phenomenon is dependent on the other.

On the other hand every element of the system is connected with its other elements. Analyses of different language systems, native and non - native, shows that there are features characterizing various types of languages in the structure of every language. There are features of agglutinative type in the English language (which is historically true inflected as all Indo-European languages), for example word-changing morphemes **-es, -en** have only one grammatical meaning in the words "benches, children" as it is in the agglutinated Uzbek language.There is no category of grammatical gender and there is no agreement of the adjective with the noun and possessive pronoun in English : **the new town-the new towns**; in Uzbek: **yangi shahar**-**yangi shaharlar**; in Russian : **новый город-новые города**. At the same time word order in English coincides with the word order in the simple sentence of the Chinese language. In the structure of the Chinese language features of the isolated type prevail over other types. For example, S (subject)+P (predicate)+0 (object). We observe signs of analytic structure in the system of the Russian language, where features of synthetic structure prevail others, for example, the formation of the future tense of imperfective aspect and the degrees of comparison: Я буду писать. Эта самая яркая картина среди всех (though the auxiliary verb **быть** changed its sound structure into **буду** in combination with the notional verb **писать** which shows the inflected character of the Russian language). Given examples show that there is no language of the so-called pure type. In the structure of any language one can find signs of various types. In these cases type of the language is defined according to prevalent features. This concerns every level of the language structure. Stated above shows that under the type of the language we

understand the stable sum of leading features connected with each other, the presence or absence of one sign causes the presence or absence of the other one or other ones. In connection with this definition of the type of the language another definition arises.

As we have already spoken there could be features in the language structure, which are not considered to be the leading ones; nevertheless these features form some stable sum of peculiarities of the language. In the structure of the English language one can find features concerning the other type of language structure, for example we find the agreement of the demonstrative pronoun with the noun in number: **this town-these towns**, **that town-those towns** . Comparing various native and non - native languages we can find some similarities in their structure. For example, in all Turkic languages we find 1) synharmonism, it happens in the phonological level; 2) simplicity of affixes, that is, affixes in Turkic languages in contrast to affixes in Russian , in most cases, have only one grammatical or one lexical meaning ; affixal morphemes in Russian are polysemantic; 3) absence of agreement as the type of syntactic relations; 4) position of the attribute before the word it modifies; 5) presence of the extensive members of the sentence instead of subordinate clauses and some other signs which form the stable sum of the definite feature of the language. Such stable sum of leading signs, which are common to a group of words, form the concrete type of the language. As we have already spoken, in the 19th century there were classified five types of languages: 1) inflected, which include Indo-European and Semitic languages; 2) agglutinated, which include Turkic, Mongolian, Finno-Ugric and Japanese languages; 3) isolated, including Chinese; 4) polysynthetic, including Chukot-Kamchadalian languages and languages of American Indians with the exception of Kechua and Imara in Peru and Bolivia, belonging to agglutinative languages, 5)inflected-agglutinated, including the Arabic language.

Typological classification was made on the basis of the registration of signs and peculiarities of word forms and on the basis of words' capacity of taking word-forming and word changing morphemes. In modern linguistics typological character of the language is defined not only on the basis of word-forms but on the basis of types of relations too. Besides that, typological signs are defined according to the language levels. Analyzing typological signs it is necessary to remember B. A. Serebrennikov's interpretation about agglutinative

structure. Stability of this structure is proved by two factors: 1) absence of the devision of nouns into classes, nouns were divided into classes in Indo-European languages and this caused some synthetic languages to be inclined to be analytic; 2) presence of the stable word order , that is attribute is placed before the word it modifies.

In Indo-European languages there was a three morpheme structure: root+ stem forming suffix, which makes up a stem together with the root and the third morpheme is case inflection. Stem-forming suffixes were different, therefore stems of the nouns were different too.

In the result of the development of the language structure stem-forming suffixes have lost their semantic meaning and have become phonetic component of words, interacting with case morphemes and combined with the latter all together. Such phenomenon on the one hand caused words' three-morpheme structure to change into a two-morpheme structure; on the other hand it caused the formation of the homonymical case forms, which exist in old Germanic languages. Further development of this process led to the disappearance of some case forms (or to the disappearance of case system) and to the change of synthetic languages into analytic as it took place in the English language which is synthetic inclined to be analytical and in some other Germanic languages. As we have seen in the course of historical development the structure of some inflected languages has changed greatly. But there were not such changes in the structure of agglutinative languages. In these languages case morphemes are agglutinated to unchangeable root stems, therefore case variants couldn't come into existence, the latter has shattered the Indo-European case system. Morphological limit, that is the place of agglutinating case morphemes with root morphemes in Turkic languages remained unchangeable for centuries. It is one of the reasons of the stability of the agglutinative structure. The stable order of the word combination "attribute and the word it modifies"should be understood in the broad sense. In agglutinated languages attribute can be expressed by a word , by an adjective, by a noun, by a participle, by an attributive construction and by an extensive member of the sentence: **Siz kecha menga bergan kitobingizni mamnuniyat bilan o'qidim** - Я прочел с удовольствием книгу, которую вы вчера мне дали – I've read the book you gave me yesterday with pleasure; as we see in the Uzbek language the attribute is expressed by the extensive member of the

sentence (siz kecha menga bergan kitobingizni), but in the Russian and English languages the attributive clause is used in this case.

B. A. Serebrennikov[16] says that adjoining is productive in agglutinative languages. Productivity of adjoining in agglutinative languages causes the absence of classes of declension. Analyzing the structure of agglutinative languages B. A. Serebrennikov shows that all basic signs of these types are interconnected and interdependent on each other. This proves that these typological signs on the one hand represent some stable features of the language, on the other hand, this stable sum of features can't be analyzed independent of the other signs.

Self-control questions:
1. What is the grammatical form ?
2. What is the grammatical meaning ?
3. What is the binary opposition?
4. Characterize the type of the language.
5. What can you say about the word order in the Uzbek, Russian and English languages?
6. What's isomorphism?
7. What's compensation?
8. What's two-morpheme structure?
9. What's three-morpheme structure?
10. What's an homonymical case form of the nouns?
11. What reason led to the disappearance of case forms in Modern English?
12. Characterize phonological, morphological, syntactic and lexical levels of the language.

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6. TYPOLOGY OF PHONOLOGICAL SYSTEMS IN THE ENGLISH AND NATIVE LANGUAGES

Plan:

1. The main unit of phonological system
2. Division of vowels
3. Division of consonants

Basic concepts of the subject:

Phoneme, phonological level, vowel and consonant phonemes, soft or palatalized, hard phonemes, plosive, fricative, sonorous, affricative phonemes, labial, interdental, alveolar, medio –lingual, back lingual, guttural

Phonological level is the first among those levels which form complex hierarchical structure of the language.

The main unit of this level is a phoneme. Phoneme as the main unit of the phonological level of the language that fulfils two functions essential to communication:

1) constitutive function. Phonemes are the necessary building material for the units of morphological and other levels, (neither morphemes nor words can exist without phonemes);

2) distinctive function which gives chance to distinguish morphemes from each other, words from each other. It has important significance for the communicative purpose. Thus phoneme can be defined as "the class of sounds physically similar and functionally identical".

So one and the same phoneme can sound variously on different conditions. Such sounds representing variety of one and the same class of physically similar sounds are called allophones or versions of the same phoneme. Besides phonemes and their versions supersegmentive units are stress and intonation which belong to the phonological level too. Subsystem of English vowels is divided into two types of phonemes: 1)12 monophthongs and 2) 9 diphthongs.

English monophthongs are classified according to the position of tongue and according to the position of its rise with two varieties :narrow and wide.

According to the position of the tongue English vowels are divided into 5 groups:

1) front: [i:, e, æ]
2) front — retracted (draw back): [ɪ]
3) medial: [ə:]; [ə]; [ʌ]

According to the height of the raised part of the tongue vowels are divided into 6 groups:

1) upper rise, narrow: [i:], [u:]
2) upper rise, wide: [i], [u]
3) medial rise, narrow: [e], [ə:]
4) medial rise, wide: [ə]
5) lower rise, narrow: [ɔ:]; [ɔ]
6) lower rise, wide: [ʌ]; [a:]; [æ]

Comparative vowel tables

The first comparative tables appeared in the 19th century, but they had no pedagogical aims in view, their aim was to prove the common origin of some two modern languages belonging to the same family. In the 2nd decade of the 20th century prof. D.Jones suggested a classification based on the principle of the so called "cardinal vowels".

This principle aims at avoiding *the individual approach in establishing the relative positions of vowels in different languages , at introducing into phonetics a universal principle, as a foundation of any vowel classification and comparison.

English and Uzbek Vowel Phonemes

According to the Part of the tongue / According to the Height of the tongue		Front vowels		Central (mixed)vowels		Back vowels	
		Front proper	Front ret-racted	Central proper	Central ret-racted	Back advanced	Back ret-racted
Close vowels	narrow	и I:				y	U:
	broad		I			u	

Mid (medial) vowels	narrow	е э(e)		Ə:			ў
	broad				Ə		
Open vowels	narrow				^		ɔ:
	broad	æ			a		ɑ: ɔ

According to prof. A. Abduazizov, all other principles of the vowel classification, except the tongue and lip positions, are not essential in the production of the Russian and Uzbek vowels. According to the horizontal and vertical movements of the tongue and position of the lips, the Uzbek and Russian vowels are classified as shown in the following table:

The vowel phonemes of Uzbek   **The vowel phonemes of Russian**

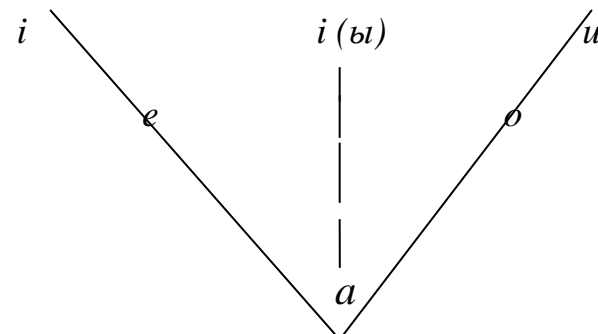*Front   Back   Front   Central   Back*
unrounded   rounded   unrounded   unrounded
rounded

i   u   High   i   i (ы)   u

e   ō   Mid   e   o

a   o   Low   a
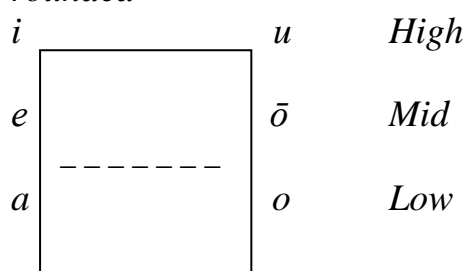
The main differences and partial similarity between articulatory features uf the English monophthongs, diphthongoids and the Uzbek vowels may be summed up as follows:

1)The English, Uzbek and Russian vowel phonemes are characterized by the oral formation. There are no nasal vowel phonemes in the languages compared.

2)Comparing the X-ray pictures it is easy to notice the positions of the tongue and lips in the articulation of the English and Uzbek vowels. It is convenient to compare the articulations of English and Uzbek vowels establishing certain acoustic types of vowels which relatively exist in both languages /i/, /e/, /a/, /ɔ/, /u/, /ə/. For example, the acoustic type (i) includes the English /i:/, /i/ and the Uzbek /i/, /a/ combines the English /æ/, /ʌ/, /ɑ:/ and the Uzbek /a/ etc.

This type of comparison makes it easy to describe the phonemic interference between the English and Uzbek vowels on the basis of the articulatory, acoustic and auditory properties.

3)According to the horizontal movement of the tongue, English vowels may be front,front-retracted, mixed, back-advances and back,whereas Uzbek vowels are fully front and back.

4)According to the hight of the tongue and its variations (narrow,broad) there are vowels of all hights and variations in English, whereas, three levels of height: (/i/, /u/), mid (/e/, /ō/) and low (/a/, /o/), sufficient for the Uzbek vowels. But we can classify the Uzbek vowels on the basis of the variations of the height of tongue in order to clarify our comparative-typological classification. For this purpose we may compare X-ray photos and notice that the Uzbek /i/ and /u/ belong to the narrow variation of close vowels, /e/, and /ō/ - to the narrow variation of mid –open vowels, /a/ and /o/ - to the broad variation of open vowels (this is clearly seen in the comparative table).

5)According to the position of the lips, all back English vowels, except /α:/ and /ʌ/ are rounded. However English vowels pronounced with the lips less rounded and protruded, than the Uzbek back vowels. The pronunciation of the English unrounded vowels with the neutral and spread position of the lips is very important whereas it is not essential for the Uzbek vowels in which only /e/ may be articulated with spread lips.

6)Besides above differences, which comprise quality of features of English and Uzbek vowels, there is a difference based on the quantity features which make clear all other differences such as tense – lax, checked – free.

The Uzbek vowels are typically "middle" sounds , being neither long or short.

7)The Uzbek vowels have relatively stable articulation. There are no diphthongoids in Uzbek.

Now let's consider the consonant system of English and Uzbek languages. According to prof. A.Abduazizov, in comparing the consonant systems of two languages, it is suitable to begin with the inventories of phonemes set up in both languages. The inventory of the English consonant phonemes comprises the following 24 phonemes : /p/, /b/, /t/, /s/,/k/, /g/, /n/, /ŋ/, /l/, /m/, /h/, /v/, /d/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /tʃ/, /dʒ/, /w/, /r/, j/, /θ/, /ð/, /f/, and the facultative or optional phonemes /ʍ/.

The inventory of the Uzbek consonants consists of 23 phonemes /p/, /b/, /f/, /v/, /s/, /z/, /t/, /d/, /sh/, /j/, /k/, /g/, /kh/, /g'/, /q/, /h/:, /n/, /l/, /r/, /y/, /ch/, /m/, /ng/.

Some of the English consonants, for example, /θ, ð, w/ can not be found in Uzbek. Likewise, the Uzbek consonants /kh, g', q/ do not exist in English. We can arrenge the differences in the inventories of consonant phonemes of both languages into a single table. As we look at the table of consonants we find differences in the number ad articulation of some consonants. For example, the Uzbek consonants /t,d/ are articulated in a more frontal position,being dental and dorsal, than the English consonants /t, d/, which have an alveolar and apical articulation. The Uzbek plosive (stop) backward position than the backlingual consonants.

Among the fricatives the Uzbek /s, z, sh, j/ may be produced in a more frontal position of the mouth cavity than the English counterparts /s. z, ʃ, ʒ/. The Uzbek /s,z/ are dorsal, /sh - j/ are palato -alveolar consonants. The English /s, z/ have apical, alveolar articulation with round narrowing and /ʃ, ʒ/being also palato-alveolar, have two foci in articulation. Besides, the consonants /kh, g'/ are specific for Uzbek and cannot be found in English.

The class of nasals coincides in number /m, n, ŋ/ - /m, n, ng/ but their articulatory, acoustic and phonological features are different in both languages. The English /n/ is alveolar and apical, while the Uzbek/n/ is a dorsal, dental consonant. The English /ŋ/ is a separate phoneme and it can never be divided into two syllables as /n - g/ in all positions. The Uzbek /ng/ can function as a separate phoneme in word final position (uying-<<your house>>, qo'ling –<< your hand>>) and in word medial position, owing to the syllable division it can be divided into two elements, as /n - g/ qo'lingga –<<to your hand>> /qo'l-in-ga/, singlingga (sin-glin-ga) –<<to your sister>>.

As to the English /l/ phoneme it has two allophones :<<clear>> and <<dark>> the distinction of which is based on the pronunciation with a frontal secondary focus (<<clear>> / l/) and with a back secondary focus (<<dark>> /l/). Such kinds of articulation are not found in Uzbek .

There is no consonant phoneme such as the English sonant /w/ in Uzbek. The Englich /r/ has a cacuminal, post alveolar articulation while the Uzbek /r/ is regarded as a rolled (or trilled) consonant.

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Table of English and Uzbek Consonants

According to the active organ of speech			Labial		Lingual								Back lingual	Uvular	Pharyngal	Glottal
					Forelingual				Central lingual							
According to manner of production		According to place of obstruction	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Inter-dental	Dental	Alveo-lar	Post al-veolar	Palato-alveolar	Palatalized	Palatal	Velar				
					Dorsal	Dorsal apical	Apical	Cacu-minal								
Consonants of complete obstruction	Of noice	Plosives	p, b П, б			Т, д	t, d					k, g К, г, қ			
		Affricates				тс(ц)			ʧ, ʤ ТШ(ч),ДЖ						
	Of voice	Nasals	m м			и	п			[e]		ŋ нг			
Consonants of incomplete obstruction	Of noice	Fricatives	[м] Ф, в	f, v [ф, в]	θ, ә	С, з	S, z	Г Ш, ж	ʃ, ʒ	[ж]	й	X, F		h х	[?]
		Laterals				Л	L[e]					[e]			
	Of voice	Semi volwes	w								J, [ju:]	[w]			
Conson ants of incomp	Of voice	Rolled (or trilled) consonants						[r] р				[R]			

Self-control questions:

1.What is the main unit of phonological level?

2.What functions do phonemes fulfill as the main unit of the phonological level?

3.What is allophone?

4.Into how many types of phonemes is the subsystem of English vowels divided?

5.Into how many groups are English vowels divided according to the position of tongue?

6.Into how many groups are English vowels divided according to the height of the raised part of the tongue?

7.How many consonant phonemes are there in English and native languages?

The list of recommended literature:

1. Abduazizov A. Theoretical phonetics of modern English. Tashkent, 1986.

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

3. Vasilyev V.A. English phonetics. A theoretical course. M. ,1970.

4. Leontyev S.A. Theoretical course of English phonetics. M., 1980.

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6. Журавлев В. К. К понятию «силы» фонологической оппозиции. В сб. Фонетика. Фонология. Грамматика. М., 1971.

7. TYPOLOGY OF GRAMMATICAL SYSTEMS IN THE ENGLISH AND NATIVE LANGUAGES

Plan:

1. Synthetic and analytic structure of languages
2. Typology of grammatical categories in the English and native languages
3. Typology of some grammatical categories

Basic concepts of the subject:

Synthetic structure of languages, analytic structure of languages, syntactic relations, grammatical means, inner flexion, outer flexion, affixation, nominative meaning, metalanguage, sems, animate and inanimate objects, main categories, comparative grammar, typological category of case, typological category of number, semantic character, masculine, feminine, neuter, morphological expression, formal expression, qualitative adjectives, relative adjectives, possessive adjectives, attributive constructions, attributive function, modify, morphological level of the language, syntactical level of the language, comparative degree

Synthetic and analytic structure of languages. The problem of synthetic and analytic structure of languages can be analyzed in various ways:

1. according to the morphology of languages;
2. according to syntactical relations;
3. according to the classification of grammatical means.

All grammatical means are divided into two types:

1. Grammatical means expressing grammatical meanings within words;
2. Grammatical means expressing grammatical meanings outside words.

1.Inner fusion, outer fusion, affixation followed by flexion, the change of the place of the stress in the word (засыпа'ть-несов. вид , засы'пать. сов.вид), suppletive forms (go-went; good-beter, bad-worse). These are grammatical means expressing grammatical meanings inside words and they are called synthetic forms.

2. Combination of function (auxiliary) words with the notional ones, the order of words in the sentence, intonation, repetition (orang-orang:человек-люди in the Indonesian language) . These are grammatical means expressing grammatical meanings outside words, they are called analytic forms.

E. D. Polivanov in 1933 in his book "Grammar of the Russian language in comparison with Uzbek" spoke about analytic character of the agglutinative affixation in the structure of the Uzbek language. He showed the difference between affixation in inflected and agglutinated languages. In inflected languages affixation causes changes in the phonemic structure of the roots of words. In agglutinated languages affixation doesn't cause changes in the phonemic structure of the roots of words. In inflected languages changes take place both in roots and affixal morphemes.

Either agglutinated or inflected affixation makes up the type of the language. The prevalence of one or another tendency changes the character of the word structure in the language. In synthetic inflected languages words taken out of sentence preserve their grammatical form.

They demand morphological analysis: окн^о, школ^а, сара^й, мор^е .

In analytic languages words taken out of the sentence , in most cases, don't preserve their grammatical form. In most cases they don't demand morphological analysis. They have only their nominative meaning. They acquire grammatical forms only in the structure of the sentence. For example, in English the word **round** (verb, adjective, noun); кружить (verb), круглый (adj.), круг (noun) in Russian, **aylana**(noun, adjective), **aylantirmoq**(verb) in Uzbek.

In synthetic languages expression of grammatical meanings are repeated:

for example, in German: das Buch - die Bücher, Der Mann - die Männer.

In these words plurality is expressed three times in each example:
1. Affixation **-er**
2. Inner fusion
3. Change of the article **das** into **die**.
In English:
1. book - book**s**:R+af
2. m**a**n – m**e**n:R+fl

3. ch**i**ld – ch**i**ld**ren**:R+fl+af
4. hou**s**e – hou**s**e**s**:R+fl+af

Examples given in English show that in the first and second cases plurality in each word is expressed only once. In the third and fourth cases plurality expressed by affixation causes inner or outer fusion in the root of the word.(In **child-children** addition of the affixal morpheme to the root morpheme causes the change of the phoneme inside the root, in **house-houses** the addition of the affixal morpheme to the root morpheme causes the change of the phoneme at the end of the root: in the first case we observe **inner fusion**, in the second case-**outer fusion**).

Sanskrit, old Greek, Latin, Gothic, old Slavonic, (at present) Lithuanian, German and Russian languages belong to typical synthetic inflected languages.

Roman, English, Danish, New Greek, New Persian, New Indian languages belong to synthetic languages too, but in the course of historical development these languages has changed their typological structure greatly and now they are synthetic inclined to be analytic

Expression of grammatical meanings by grammatical means

Synthetically					Analytically	
Affixation			The change of the place of the stress in the word	Suppletion	Combination of function word with notional word	Order of words in the sentence
Inner fusion	Outer fusion	Phoneme inter-change				
child, children, keep-kept, break-broken, rise-risen	house-houses	man-men, foot-feet, tooth-teeth	засып'ать (несов.) зас'ыпать (сов.)	go-went, bad-worse, good-better, be:am-is-are-	I go – I shall go, beautiful – the most beautiful	I work (intr.) in the garden – I work (tr.)

				was-were		my son in the garden, I sleep (intr.) in the garden – I sleep (tr.) my child in the garden

Typology of main grammatical categories

Learning grammatical structure of the language we start with concrete grammatical categories. Therefore comparative typology studies concrete grammatical categories comparatively. Comparison of grammatical categories of the English and native language's structure is carried out on the basis of transformational method , that is syntagmatic and paradigmatic opposition of word forms. As a metalanguage Russian is taken, as its morphology is highly developed.

There are two kinds of grammatical categories
1. Primary grammatical categories
2. Secondary grammatical categories

Primary grammatical categories

Primary grammatical categories are parts of speech. In modern English, Russian and Uzbek languages parts of speech are classified according to the following peculiarities:

1) according to lexical and lexical-grammatical meanings;
2) according to morphological structure;
3) according to the function of words.

Classifying parts of speech lexical and grammatical forms are taken into account and therefore parts of speech are called lexical-grammatical categories. Parts of speech are love, building, clever, run, walk, sleep. They are stems or root- words.

Secondary grammatical categories

Secondary grammatical categories (form of words) are classified according to the plan of meaning (content) and the plan of expression (form) followed by function, that is, while defining any form of the word the linguist should not forget that this form has the meaning followed by function. Therefore after M. N. Peterson we say that the form without the meaning is not the form and the meaning without the form is not the meaning. That's why these two plans are inseparable. As forms of words are defined in morphology, it is reasonable to begin typological analysis of the language with morphological categories.

We'll analyse some grammatical categories in this item of the manual so that we should display the method used as etalon (typological theory , given in item 5 "Methods of investigating foreign and native languages") by the authors of the manual for the furher description of the compared languages' structure.

Gram. means		English	Russian	Uzbek
Affix-ation	Agglutinated affixation	book – books, work – worked, red - redder	лошадь – лошади	Bola – bolalar, kitob - kitoblar
	Fusional affixation	house – houses, child – children, rise – risen, break - broken	вязять – вяжу, сидишь - сижу	oyoq – oyog'im, tilak - tilagim
Sound interchange		foot – feet, man – men, rise – rose, break - broke	-	-
The change of the place of the stress in the word		-	засыпа́ть (несов.вид-засы́пать (сов.вид)	-

Suppletive forms	good – better, bad – worse, go – went, be : am – is – are-was-were	иду – шёл, хороший – лучше, плохой - хуже	-
Combination of function word with notional one	go – shall go, beautiful – more beautiful	писать-буду писать, читать-буду читать	yaxshi – eng yaxshi, baland – eng baland
Word order	I sleep(intr.v.) in the open air, I sleep(tr.v.) my child in the open air	-	-
Repetition	orang – orang(человек-люди) in Indonesian language	-	-
Intonation	Father has come? Father has come. Father has come!	Отец приехал? Отец приехал. Отец приехал!	Dadam keldilar? Dadam keldilar. Dadam keldilar!

Grammatical means expressing grammatical meanings in the English and native languages

Typological category of case of nouns

Under the category of case we understand the meaning denoting relation between objects, actions, signs and means of their material expression. This category is formed by case forms consisted of sound combination or a sound giving concrete meaning to the word it is united

with. Some of case forms, making up concrete system of changes, form the declension. Quantity of case forms is not identical in several languages and this fact can be considered as one of the criteria of the typological characteristic of the language. We have already stated that the presence or absence of case forms is connected with the presence or absence and sometimes with the poor developed system of prepositions. For example, Finnish language possesses 14 case forms of nouns and therefore sum of prepositions is very few here.

The English language, which has the limited system of case forms possesses considerable sum of prepositions. There are languages where nouns don't possess the system of case forms. Bulgarian, Italian, French, Russian and Uzbek languages possess 6 case forms. Analyzing the meaning of each case form as the special grammatical category we notice that it has composite character and consists of some sems (the smallest meanings). One of the meanings is objectness as the category of case is peculiar to the nouns (in English) denoting objects and phenomena. Another meaning is belonging of nouns to the concrete grammatical gender (in Russian). The third meaning is number: plurality and singularity. Fourth is the meaning of animate and inanimate objects. These meanings are called sems.

So under the meaning of sem we consider the smallest and indivisible element of grammatical meaning. In Russian the category of case is characterized by the presence of the following sems:

1.   objectness
2.   gender
3.   number
4.   animate and inanimate objects

Besides these sems every case form in Russian possesses its own meaning, for ex., accusative case expresses the direction of the action. One of the meanings of the genitive case is the meaning of possession. In Uzbek the category of case of nouns doesn't possess these sems, as it does in Russian. The category of case of nouns in Uzbek corresponds only to the first characteristic in Russian that is the meaning of objectness. It doesn't possess 2nd, 3rd, 4th characteristics. Because case forms in Uzbek are monosemantic, case forms in Russian are polysemantic. There is a typological similarity between the Uzbek and English languages, as English case forms: common case and genitive case are monosemantic too.

Typological category of number of nouns

The English, Uzbek and Russian languages possess grammatical category of number. This category expresses quantitative relations expressed in the morphological level of the languages. For example, in Indo-European languages, that is in Sanskrit, Greek and Latin the category of number possessed three numbers: singular, plural , dual.

The category of number, which expresses quantitative relations between objects is materially connected with the noun. In the English, Russian and Uzbek languages the category of number possesses sems of singularity, plurality expressed in the forms of singular and plural numbers. In Russian sems of singularity are expressed both by marked and unmarked morphemes, that is by special morphemes and without them. For example, «й» for the nouns in masculine gender: край, сарай, ручей; «а», «я» for the nouns in feminine gender: река, земля; «о», «е», «мя» for the nouns in neuter gender; окно, море, знамя.
In stated words singularity is expressed materially, that is by means of special morphemes. Now we'll see the words where singularity is expressed by zero morpherme : городØ, домØ, зверьØ, дверьØ, etc.

In Russian the meaning of singularity is expressed in case forms:(нет)реки, (нет)тетради, (нет)окна, (нет)дома. In stated examples singularity is expressed in case forms by «и» and «а». This way we find out that morphemes «и» and «а» (genitive case forms for feminine, masculine and neuter genders) express singularity. In word-forms городом-городами one can easily notice that the morpheme **-ом** expresses: singularity, objectness, case, gender and morpheme **-ами** expresses sems of plurality, objectness and case.

In English singularity is expressed by the zero morpherme which is opposed to the marked plurality of the noun, for example: townO-towns, playO-plays, benchO-benches, etc. It is interesting to mark that in Uzbek as it is in English singularity of nouns is expressed by the zero morpherme as well: bolaO-bolalar, kitobO-kitoblar, odamO-odamlar . Further we'll use words marked for the presence of word form, non-marked for the absence of word form. So we can see that the meaning of singularity of nouns in Russian can be marked and non-marked, in English and in Uzbek it is only non-marked. The category of plurality in these languages is marked. In Russian it can be non-marked too.

Examples show that in Russian singularity and plurality of nouns can express the meanings of case and gender both by marked and non-marked(zero)
morphemes

	Nouns in Singular		Nouns in plural	
	Marked	Non-marked	Marked	Non-marked
Feminine	стрел**а** стен**а**	лошадь∅	стрел**ы** стен**ы**	стрел∅ стен∅
Masculine/Neuter	сара**й** окн**о** мор**е**	город∅	город**ов** окон (**кн/кон**) мор**я**	

In English and Uzbek languages plurality of nouns is expressed by special morphemes. In English: by **-s** and **-es**, in Uzbek by: **-lar**: book-books, bench-benches, bola-bolalar. In English very few words form plurality by sound interchange: foot-feet, man-men, woman-women. But this way of expressing plurality is limited and can't be related to the typological characteristic of the language.This way of forming plurality has been preserved from the ancient English language.

Typological category of gender in nouns

Majority of modern Indo-European languages possess lexical-grammatical category of gender. The category of gender is manifested in the ability of nouns to assimilate pronouns and adjectives with their forms. In Russian the grammatical category of gender is widely used. Every noun has the meaning of gender that is: masculine, feminine and neuter. The category of gender in Russian has the formal character with nouns denoting concrete and abstract objects; with nouns denoting persons or animals it has a semantic character, for example, in the words звезда, месяц, молоко, надежда, любовь, доверие the category of gender has a formal character; in the words мать, отец, тетя, дядя the category of gender has a semantic character.

Sems of gender, case and number are expressed in affixal morphemes of nouns. The morpheme **-ем** in the noun «месяцем» includes sems of objectness, singularity, masculine gender and case, the morpheme **- ой** in the noun «звездой» includes sems of objectness, singularity, feminine gender and case. Comparison of the two affixal morphemes clears out that the difference in gender is expressed materially. As we have seen the morpheme **-ем** expresses masculine gender and morpheme **–ой** - feminine gender. The category of gender of nouns in Russian agrees with adjectives, numerals, possessive and demonstrative pronouns in number and case, forming free word combinations with them: большое окно, два окна, эти окна, две школы, моя школа.

Another special characteristic of morphological structure of the Russian language being absent in the English and Uzbek languages is the ability of nouns to agree in gender with forms of verbs in the past tense. Девочк**а** опоздал**а** на урок. Этот ученик**О** пришел**л** на репитицию вовремя. Sensation of gender in Russian is so great that even borrowed words according to their appearance belong to the concrete form of gender. Inanimate nouns with the ending **-о** as лет**о**, кин**о**, бюр**о** belong to the neuter gender.

The category of gender(masculine, feminine and neuter) was the characteristic of the old English language. But at the result of historical development of the English morphological structure the category of grammatical gender has lost its formal expression.

Summing up analysis of the category of gender we can say that this category, including three genders (masculine, feminine and neuter) is the typological characteristic of the Russian language.

In the English and Uzbek languages there is no grammatical category of gender. There is a semantic category of gender, which is expressed by the addition of some words denoting natural gender, such as mother, father, girl, boy, a schoolboy, a schoolgirl, mother – wolf in English, **ona -bo'ri, ota-bo'ri** in Uzbek.

Besides, we should mark that in the Uzbek language in some borrowed words we notice morphological expression of gender, for example: shoir – shoira, Hamid – Hamida, tolib – talaba, kotib – kotiba, Muslim – Muslima. But these words are few and they can't be the characteristic feature of the Uzbek language.These words have

come to the vocabulary of the Uzbek language from the Arabic language

Typological category of the degrees of comparison of adjectives in the English and native languages:

According to the typological characteristics adjectives in the Uzbek, English and Russian languages differ from each other greatly. According to the meaning adjectives in Russian are divided into three groups:

1) qualitative adjectives (these adjectives are : большой, маленький, высокий, низкий, толстый, тонкий);

2) relative adjectives which are formed of nouns (камень-каменный, весна-весенний, Москва-Московский) ; these adjectives don't have degrees of comparison and they are not combined with the adverbs such as очень, слишком and they don't have contracted forms;

3) possessive adjectives (отцов дом, сестрина сумка, мамина школа).

Differing from the Russian language adjectives in English possess only qualitative adjectives (white, large, strong). There are few relative adjectives. Most relative adjectives in English are scientific terms: biological, chemical, industrial. Absence of the system of relative adjectives is supplied by attributive constructions consisted of two nouns: a brick wall, a gold watch, Moscow streets.

These phenomena exist in the Uzbek language too: tilla soat, jun ro'mol. As we have seen in the above word combinations the first noun (in the English and Uzbek languages) perform attributive function to the second one; tilla soat- gold watch.

Possessive adjectives don't exist in the English and Uzbek languages either, this function is performed by the particle **'s** in English, by the affixal morpheme -**ning** in Uzbek : отцов дом - my father's house - otam**ning** uyi.

According to the expression of their grammatical categories adjectives in the English and Russian languages differ from each other greatly. Adjectives in Russian agree with nouns they modify in number, gender and case, for example: зеленый лист-зеленая трава- зеленое яблоко, adjectives in English don't possess such a typological characteristic. In this case the English language corresponds to the Uzbek language where adjectives don't agree with nouns they modify

in number, case and gender: a beautiful woman - a handsome man, chiroyli ayol-chiroyli yigit.

Next differential peculiarity of Russian adjectives (qualitative adjectives only) is that, they possess two forms: short and full forms. Adjectives with full forms perform attributive function in the sentence (высокая башня-голубое небо), sometimes they perform the function of the predicate: наш**а** улиц**а** широк**ая**. Adjectives in short forms perform the function of the predicate too: жизн**ь** коротк**а**. Adjectives in short forms in the function of the predicate agree with the noun they modify in gender and case: неб**о** мутн**о** - ноч**ь** мутн**а**.

In the English language adjectives don't possess short and long forms. The same adjective is used both for the attribute and predicative functions. This characteristic is found in the Uzbek language too.

According to the structure degrees of comparison in the Russian, English and Uzbek languages are expressed both synthetically and analytically : полный-полнее, старый-старше, тонкий-тоньше. As we have seen in mentioned adjectives comparative degree is expressed on the morphological level of the language synthetically by adding affixal morphemes **-ее, -ей, -е, -ше**. This way of adding affixal morphemes to the stem of adjectives shows that it is a synthetical-inflected means of uniting the root morpheme with the affixal one, as the root morpheme changes its appearance by taking a required affixal morpheme. Some adjectives in Russian form their comparative degree analytically by the combination of the words **более, менее**(in these combinations these words loose their lexical meaning at some extent and they perform the function of analytical forms of expessing degrees of comparison of adjectives) with the adjectives: более сильный, менее удачный.

In the English and Uzbek languages the comparative degree is also expressed on the morphological level of the language. But this kind of synthetic expression of the comparative degree differs from the synthetic expression of the comparative degree in the Russian language greatly. In the Uzbek and English languages the way of adding the affixal morpheme to the stem of adjectives is not synthetical-inflected as it is in Russian, but it is synthetical- agglutinative. Because the root morpheme doesn't change its appearance by taking affixal morphemes, for example: **yaxshi-roq**, **qulay-roq**; **wide-r, strong-er**. In the English language as it is in Russian, adjectives , which possess two or more

syllables form their comparative degree analytically by the words **mor**e or **less**, for example: **more beautiful**, **less beautiful.** Examples show that in this combination words **more** and **less** have come out of **many** and **little**; in combination with the adjectives for the formation of the comparative degree their sound structure has changed and at some extent they have lost their lexical meaning ; it gives us the right to consider the words **more** or **less** to be analytical forms expressing comparative degree in combination with the adjectives consisting of two or more syllables. In this case the English language corresponds to the Russian one.

The superlative degree is expressed analytically in the Russian, English and Uzbek languages by the combination of the words **самый, the most, eng** with the adjectives: самый большой, the most handsome, eng baland.

Besides this, the superlative degree is also expressed on the morphological level of the Russian and English languages synthetically by adding the morphemes **айш**, -**ейш** in Russian: мелкий- мельчайший, новый- новейший, by the morpheme **-est** in English: the smallest, the strongest. The Uzbek language doesn't possess this characteristic feature. The superlative degree in the Uzbek language is expressed only analytically by the combination of the word **eng** with the adjective: eng baland, eng aqlli, eng katta.

Analyses of the factual material shows that there is a great difference in the synthetic way of adding affixal morphemes to the stems of the English , Russian and Uzbek languages. In Russian affixal morphemes change root morphemes, that is a synthetical-inflected way of adding affixal morphemes to the root morphemes. In the English and Uzbek languages in most cases the affixal morpheme doesn't change the appearance of the root , that is the synthetical-agglutinative way of adding morphemes.

Self-control questions:
1. What do you mean by "synthetic structure"?
2. What do you mean by "analytic structure"?
3. What do you mean by "typological category"?
4. What do you mean by "grammatical means"?
5. What is inner-flexion ?
6. What is outer-flexion?

7. What is flexion?
8. What are suppletive forms?
9. What is agglutination?
10. What is inflected affixation?
11. What are primary grammatical categories?
12. What are secondary grammatical categories?
13. What do you understand by "sems"?
14. What do you understand by "marked/non-marked morphemes"?

The list of recommended literature:

1. Азизов А.А. Сопоставительная грамматика русского и узбекского языков. Ташкент, 1960

2. Alimova M. Kh. Some considerations about the relation of morphological causativizaion to the category of voice in the verb. European Science. M., 2018, №9(41), pp.40-44

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4. Алимова М.Х., Мамадалиев А.М. , Султонова Л.А. О принципе определения степени родства и типологической близости разносистемных языков. Материалы 15 международной научно-практической конференции.София , 2019, vol.8, стр.17-20

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8. TYPOLOGY OF WORD FORMATION IN THE ENGLISH AND NATIVE LANGUAGES

Plan:
1.   Word formation in the English and native languages
2.   Similarities and distinctions in the English and native languages in the field of word-formation

Basic concepts of the subject:

Lexicography, transformation, isomorphous and allomorphous units, interlevel correspondence, literal translation, compiling dicitionaries, conformity of words, the stage of analysis, the stage of synthesis, comparative lexicography, stylistically marked units, stylistically non-marked units.

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. Word formation can also be contrasted with the formation of idiomatic expressions, though sometimes words can form multi-word phrases. Word building is one of the main ways of enriching vocabulary. The words can consist of the root and affixal morphemes. The boundary between word formation and semantic change can be difficult to define, as a new use of the previous word can be seen as a new word derived from the previous one will be identical to it in form.

Word formation in Gemanic languages mainly takes place by means of compounding and affixation . Compounds are usually right-headed, and there is often a linking element in N+N-compounds that derives historically from a case ending . In addition to endocentric compounds there are also copulative compounds. Compounding also takes place with roots of Greek and Latin origion that do not occur as words by themselves. Some compound consituents have developed into affixoids. Affixation is used to derive words of major categories:

nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Some of these affixes behave phonologically similar to compound constituents. Many non-native affixes , identified on the basis of sets of borrowed non-native complex words , are being used in word formation as well. Other means of word formation are affix substitution , conversion, reduplication , prosodic morphology , abbreviation and blending. For the construction of numerals above 20 , syntactic coordination may be used. The word formation patterns of Germanic languages have been strongly influenced by contact with Greek, Latin and French. In addition they have been influenced by contact with English.

The following ways of word-formation are observed in the English and native languages.

Type of word-formation	Russian	Uzbek	English
Phonological	м'ука – мук'а з'амок – зам'ок	'olma – olm'a y'angi – yang'i	'present-pre'sent
Morphological (affixation)	ночь – ночник ходить выходить	ish – ishchi bola - bolalik	write-writer
Compounding of words	диван - кровать	oziq - ovqat	notebook, blackboard
Compounding of stems	сум**асшед**ший	otboq**ar**	likelihood, dishwasher
Morphological syntactical	рабочий (adj) человек – молодой рабочий (n)	(xatni) yoz (v) yoz (keldi) (n)	gold(noun)is a metal-gold(adj) watch
Lexical-semantical	долг (debt) – долг (duty)	ot (name) - ot (horse) o't (fire) - o't (plant)	row(argument)-row(a linear arrangement): (to go for a)row
Abbreviation	ООН	BMT	UK, USA

The main similarity of forming words is affixation in compared languages: pefixation, suffixation and prefixation-suffixation.

English prefixes are particles added to full words and it is mostly observed in forming verbs. Prefixes are 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 considered to be bound morphemes: re- rewrite. Auxiliary words used in the function of affixes are considered to be semi-bound morphemes , because they are met in the language as independent words :

over- overprotected (as prefix) - over the book (as the preposition)

Prefixes can be classified according to the meaning:

a) prefixes of negative meaning: im- (impossible), non- (non-payment) , un- (unable) etc.;

b) prefixes denoting repetition or contrastive actions: de-(demotivate), re-(write), dis- (disagree);

c) prefixes denoting time, space, degree relations, such as : inter-(international), hyper- (hyperactive) , pre- (pre-historic), super -(superhe

In the Russian and Uzbek languages prefixes can also express negative meaning : безоружный , неприятный (in Russian), noma'qul, notog'ri (in Uzbek) There are many prefixes in the Russian and Uzbek languages which are not classified according to their meaning : с-, при-, раз- : спутник, приобрести, разоблачать .

In the Uzbek language prefixes be -, ba-, no-, ham-, ser-(bebaho,baobro' serhosil, hamshahar, noma'lum) are borrowed from the Tajik language. Prefixation is a productive way of word formation in these languages. Differing from English and Russian, prefixes in the Uzbek language do not form verbs, they are used for the formation of nouns and adjectives. The adverbs in English can't be formed by prefixes, in Russian they do.

The main function of suffixes in compared languages is to form one part of speech from another, the second function is to change the lexical meaning of the word in the same part of speech: govern (verb)-government (noun), music (noun)- musician (noun), писать (verb)-писатель (noun), шахмат (noun)-шахматист (noun) , suhbat (noun)-suhbatlash (verb), bola (noun)-bolalik (noun).

Word formation by affixation:

1. Formation of parts of speech. Suffixes which can form different parts of speech:

a) noun-forming suffixes, such as: -er (teacher), -dom (kingdom), -ism (socialism), -ник (ночник), -uvchi ('oqituvchi), –lik (bolalik);

b) adjective-forming suffixes: -able (comforable), -less (homeless), -ous (famous), -ный (умный), -li (aqlli), -siz (aybsiz);

c) verb-forming suffixes: -ize (critisize), -ify (classify), -ать (обедать),

-ничать (нервничать), -lan/-la (uylan, ishla) ;

d) adverb-forming suffixes: -ly (angrily, badly), -о (заметно),

-ски (варварски), -lab (yaxshilab), -ona (oqilona);

e) numeral-forming suffixes: -teen (seventeen), -ty (ninety), -надцать (шестнадцать), -ой (-ый) (пятый, шестой), -ta (uchta),-nchi/-inchi (beshinchi,ikkinchi).

2. Formation of new words. Suffixes changing the lexical meaning of the stem can be subdivided into groups: noun-forming suffixes can denote:

a) the agent of the action: -er (writer), -ist (scientist), -ant (assistant),

-тель (писатель), -chi(ishchi);

b) nationality: -ian (Russian), -ese (Japanese), -ish (English). In Russian and Uzbek languages in this case the place of the nation is expressed: - ич (москвич), -lik (Xorazmlik);

c) quality: -ness (darkness), -ity (ability), -ота (красота, темнота), -chan (o'ychan, ishchan);

d) collectivity: -ship (relationship, friendship), -чество (человечество) -ба (дружба) -lik (do'slik, birdamlik);

e) diminutive meaning: -y (doggy, daddy), – ie (birdie, sweetie), -ек(огонек), -ик (домик), -ка(книжка) , -chan (uyatchan, k'ongilchan) – chil (dardchil) – simon (odamsimon), -cha(bog'cha), .

3. Word formation by adding affixes to verbs, nouns and adjectives:

a) suffixes added to verbal stems, such as: -er (teacher), -ing (painting, failing, building),

-able (acceptable, considerable), -ment (enjoyment), -ation (information); - ство (руководство,), - qich (tutqich, ochqich);

b) suffixes added to noun stems: -less (priceless), -ful (beautyful), -ism (socialism), -ish (boyish), -ный (умный), - kor

(bunyodkor), -gar (kimyogar);

c) suffixes added to adjective stems, such as: -en (weaken), -ly (pinkly), -ish (longish), -ness (whiteness), -ость (милость), - lik (g'ozallik).

Other means of word formation:

Conversion, compounding and abbreviation are observed in the compared languages' word formation. **Sound interchange** is the characteristic feature of the English language: to heat – hot, to bleed – blood; siz-sez(you-feel).

Stress interchange is also observed in compared languages: to ex`port -`export, to ex`tract - `extract, з`амок -зам`ок, м`ука - мук`а, `olma - olm`a, 'yangi-yangi'. **Word formation by sound imitation(onomatopeya)** is 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: to whisper, to giggle, to mumble, чихать, хихикать, бормотать, shivirlamoq, ming'irlamoq;

b) sounds produced by animals, birds, insects, such as: to hiss, to buzz, to bark, лаять, мычать, miyovlamoq, vovullamoq;

c) sounds produced by nature and objects, such as: to splash, to clatter, to ding-dong, звенеть, греметь, dukurlamoq, qars-qurs, jivir-jivir, lip-lip.

Blending is the word formation by joining parts of two words: biographical picture - biopic, breakfast lunch - brunch, web seminar - webinar. This way of word formation is the characteristic feature of the English language where the beginning of the first word is joined with the ending of the second word .

Clipping is also the characteristic feature of the English language word formation :examination-**exam**, gymnasium-**gym**, laboratory-**lab**. This way of word-formation is the reduction of a word to one of its parts.Clipping is also known as shortening. Clipped forms can pass into common usage when they are widely used and become part of standard English. Clipping is different from back-formation; **back-formation** may change the part of speech or the word's meaning, whereas clipping creates shortened words from longer words, but does not change the part of speech or the meaning of the word. Back-formation is the process of creating a new word by removing actual or supposed affixes.The term back-formation is given by James Murray in

1889. For example, the noun 'resurrection' was borrowed from Latin, and the verb 'resurrect' was then back-formed hundreds of years later from it by removing the suffix '-ion'.This segmentation of 'resurrecion' into 'resurrect' was possible because English had examples of Latinate words in the form of 'verb' and 'verb +ion' pairs, such as 'opine/opinion'. These became the pattern for many more such pairs, where a verb derived from a Latin supine stem and a noun ending in '–ion' entered the language together, such as 'insert/insertion, project/projection'.

Analysis of the structure of the English and native languages demonstrates some similarities and distinctions in word formation process. Similarities: productivity of affixation forming new words, existence of lots of derived words and productivity of affixation which change words from one part of speech into another, word formation by compounding. The distinction is that in Russian conversion is not well developed. Conversion is observed in the Uzbek language: tilla (noun) - rangli temir, tilla (adjective) soat, but it is not so productive. Word formation by conversion is productive in English: round (noun), round (verb), round (adjective), smoke - to smoke, play – to play, gaze – to gaze.

Self-control questions:
1. What means of word formation do you know?
2. What are the main types of morphological word- formation?
3. What is the distinctive feature of the English word-formation concerning native languages?
4. What is the distinctive feature of the Uzbek word- formation concerning English and Russian languages?
5. Why is word- formation by conversion is productive in the English language.
6. What similarities are observed in word-formation of the English and native languages.
7.Why can't we express grammatical meaning by the change of the place of the stress in the English and Uzbek languages?
8. Can we form new words by the change of the place of the stress in the English and Uzbek languages?
9.Why has the typological character of the English word structure changed in the cause of historical development?
10.Has the typological character of the Uzbek word structure

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changed in the cause of historical development?

11.Why hasn't the typological character of the Uzbek language changed in the cause of historical development?

The list of recommended literature:

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5. Азизов О. , Сафаев А., Жамолхонов Х. Узбек ва рус тилларининг киесий грамматикаси. Тошкент,1986

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8. Жигадло В.Н. и др. Современный английских язык. М., 1957

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9. TYPOLOGY OF WORD COMBINATIONS IN THE ENGLISH AND NATIVE LANGUAGES

Plan:

1. Theoretical interpretation of word combinations in the English and native languages.
2. Types of word combinations in the English and native languages.
3. Creating word combinations in the English and native languages.
4. Verbal phrases in the English and native languages

Basic concepts of the subject:

Isomorphous and allomorphous units, interlevel correspondence, literal translation, compilinig dicitionaries, conformity of words, the stage of analysis, the stage of synthesis, stylistically marked units, stylistically non-marked units, agreement, government, adjoining, coordinative, subordinative, subjective, predicative, syntactical relations

Typology of word combinations is connected with the syntactic level of the language which deals with more complicated units than a simple word. Syntactical level , as any other level of the language , has its own set of units – a phrase and a sentence. A phrase is a combination of two or more notional words , united on the basis of a certain syntactical relations , playing a nominating function: a new watch / новые часы/ yangi soat.

A successful typological comparison of syntactic systems of the English and native languages becomes possible according to the existence of isomorphic and allomorphic features in their structure. The main criteria of comparison are the following: common classes of syntactic units, types of word combinations and sentences, types of syntactic units, isomorphic or allomorphic means of these units' syntactic connection, identical or distinctive expression of syntactical relations and functions performed by parts of speech in the sentence.

Specific features on the syntactic level of the language are defined in the following ways: by means of expressing the relations among the words in the sentence, by the differential and identical peculiarities of parts of speech, by differential and identical ways of expressing

predication, by means of realization of coordination and subordination and by the type of the word order in the sentence.

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

The word combination and the sentence are the main syntactic units. The smallest word combination consists of two members, the largest word combination may theoretically be large . In Russian, it is described as non-communicative units served for the concretization of object naming, actions, features and etc. In Uzbek it is defined as a wider conception than a word, expressing description of object and action and modifying the object of the action as well. A substitution of word expressed by word combinations is called descriptive expression. Descriptive expressions are used for concretization of word's semantic meanings, making the fact emotional and the text more literary by avoiding repetition of some words . They basically exist in nouns: paxta – oq oltin (cotton - white gold), neft – qora oltin (oil - black gold), makkajo'xori – dala malikasi (corn - queen of field).

Predicative word-groups consist of two parts: subjectival and predicatival . So in the sentence I want you to tell me the truth: (I want) **you** (subjectival part) to tell me the truth (predicatival part).

The relations between the subjectival and predicatival are similar to those of the subject and the predicate. There is no correspondence in person and number between the predicatival and subjectival. Predicative word-groups like other word groups are semantic and grammatical units; they can't function as independent sentences as they do not express communications.The person(thing) expressed by the subject of the sentence and the subjectival are different: Tom likes you to look nice. The subject **Tom** and the subjectival **you** denote different persons.

As it is seen in the table above there are some differences in classifying and naming word combinations in the English and native languages. In independent relations words have equal independent meaning. In dependent relations word combination consists of the the head word and adjunct.

Word combinations with the head word are syntactical units where the head word demands the adjunct either receiving all the grammatical

forms existed in it or receiving the grammatical forms which don't exist in it . The subordinating element is called the head of the word combination. The following word combinations consist of the head element and adjunct : green leaves, to type a letter, quite simple. According to the head element word combinations have the following types in compared languages:

English: noun-phrase - a bunch of flowers; verb-phrases - to read the book, to fly directly; adjective phrase – full of toys; adverb phrases - very quickly, very careful; pronoun phrases – some of the girls, nothing to do ; numeral phrase- five of them; prepositional phrase - in the sun; infinitive phrase- to sleep late; gerundial phrase -injoy swimming; participial phrase - Removing his pants Tom jumped into the water to save the child (here the participial phrase **removing his pants** functions as the action of the subject of the sentence **Tom**).

Russian verb phrase – читать про себя, просить зайти; adverbial phrase: крайне важно, вдали от дороги; nominal phrase: план сочинения, поездка по городу; adjective phrase: готовый помочь, достойный награды; pronoun phrase: кто-то из учеников, нечто новое; quantitative phrase: два карандаша, второй из претендентов .

Uzbek: verb phrase : xatni o'qimoq, baland gapirmoq, nominal phrase (noun phrase): katta bog', adjective phrase: akasidan baland , quantitative phrase : mehmonlardan biri , pronoun phrase : mehmonlarning hammasi.

Syntactical relations are coordination and subordination. In coordinative word combinations , words are in equal positions and it is possible to change their places (mother and son, son and mother). The same character we observe in the Russian and Uzbek languages: ona va o'g'il , o'g'il va ona / мать и сын, сын и мать. In subordinate word combination , words can't change their places (a big house); in the Russian and Uzbek languages we observe the same character (katta uy / большой дом. In any language word combinations, words are combined according to the models of this language.Thus a word combination , formed with the help of subordination   may be characterized by the following features:

1. by forms of expression of syntactical relation (attributive, objective, adverbial);

2. by types of expression of syntactical relations (agreement, government, adjoinment);

3. by the position of the dependent or adjunct word, upon the kernel word in preposition or post position.

In the English, Russian and Uzbek languages, there are word combinations, in which a dependent component gives some temporary characteristic to an object or person which appears during a certain action (he sat pale, он сидел бледный, u bo'zarib o'tirardi). This type of relation is called predicative and it is typical   in the languages compared in this item of the manual.

Syntactical ties in the English, Russian and Uzbek languages are of three types: agreement, government and adjoining .

Agreement is not often found in Modern English, but it is widely used in Modern Russian and Uzbek languages. The agreement between the noun and the demonstrative pronoun in English takes place in number (there is no agreement between the noun and other parts of speech used in the function of the attribute in English) : this book- these books, that book- those books. There is an agreement between the subject and the predicate if the verb is used in Simple Present, Present Perfect , Present Continuous, Past Continuous, Present Perfect Continuous Tense Forms: I read- He reads, I am writing-He is writing, We are writing, I was writing-We were writing, I have written -He has written, I have been writing- He has been writing. Agreement in Modern Russian is found in such grammatical categories as gender, number, case, and person, and in the Uzbek language it is found between the subject and the predicate only in person and number: 1) Full forms of adjectives in Russian agree with corresponding nouns in gender, number and case : высокий дом-высокая стена , высокое дерево (in gender); высокие дома – высокие стены-высокие деревья (in number) ; высокого дома –высокой стены – высокого дерева (in case). In plural no agreement in gender is observed (высокие дома-высокие стены-высокие деревья). 2) Short forms of adjectives do not agree in case. In singular they agree in gender and number (дом красив, улица красива - agreement in gender; дом красив - дома красивы –agreement in number). Cardinal-numerals agree in case (двух домов, пятью домами). Verbs in Future and Present Tense forms agree in number and person (девочка читает- девочки читают). In the Uzbek language there is an agreement between the subject and

the predicate in person and number : men yozdim, siz yozdingiz, u yozdi); there is an agreement between the noun and its modifier concerning the category of possession, in this case the head word receives the affixal morpheme of the genitive case and the dependent word receives affixal morpheme of the category of possession : mening kitob**im**, sizning kitob**ingiz**, uning kitob**i**, bizning kitob**imiz**, sizning kitob**ingiz**, ularning kitob**lar**i .

Government is a syntactical tie where the head word of the word combination governs the adjunct (the dependent word) to receive the grammatical form which doesn't exist in it. The government exists in compared languages . In English government is used to combine two nouns: the noun in the function of the attribute is usually used in the genitive case: (A student's bag - students' bags, father's house, mother's dream). In verbal combinations the verb demands the personal pronoun to receive corresponding form (Tell him, give me). There are some verbs which are used with prepositions governing the object expressed either by the noun or pronoun in English (to insist on, agree with, suffer from). In this case the verb governs through the preposition. In Russian governing words may be expressed by different parts of speech and the head word demands the adjunct to receive the acquired case form: 1) by a noun (кусочек пирога , чашечку бульона,); 2) by an adjective (способный к языкам); 3) by a numeral (пятеро гостей); 4) by a pronoun (кто нибудь из соседей); 5) by an Infinitive (гулять в парке , нарисовать картину, варить бульон, не хотеть молока); 6) by an adverb (диссертация удостоена внимания). A concrete or an abstract (substantivized) noun is governed by the head word (выпросить позволения, доверять друзьям). In Russian head word governs the adjunct in the following ways: the noun without preposition : составить план, писать письмо; the noun with preposition: жить в городе , говорить об искусстве; the noun in the genitive case : чтение письма , the noun in the genitive case with the preposition : подарок для дочери, краснеть от стыда, demanding the adverb : говорить смело , demanding the noun in the accusative case: строить школу, demanding the noun in the dative case : идти в школу. In the Uzbek language according to the expression of the head word government can be called as noun government and verb government. The head word demands the adjunct expressed by the noun to receive the affixal morphermes of the dative, accusative, locative and ablative

cases in the noun government: boqqa kir, sinfda yozdi, do'stingdan ol, xatni yoz; In the verb government the adjunct is combined with the head word by the help of auxiliaries: adabiyot **bilan** qiziqadi, yoshlar **tomonidan** tavsiya etilgan, o'qituvchi **bo'lib** ishlaydi, u kitobni ukasi **uchun** oldi; the head word demands the auxiliary of the adjunct to receive the case form : maktab tomon**ga** qarab ketdi.

Adjoining is a variety of syntactical connection when the dependence of adjunct word upon head word is expressed not morphologically but semantically: my room-my rooms, a small room-small rooms; читать лёжа, тихо сидеть, чересчур громкий, скромно улыбающаяся; xushbo'y gul, oltin soat, aytilgan so'z, baland bino, qaysi bekat. There are three types of adjoining in compared languages:

Attributive phrases: a beautiful flower, a written letter, an interesting story, two storied building, my dream , покрой реглан, соль экстрат, ikki xona, yozilgan xat.

Objective phrases : to die the death of a hero, to live a happy life, to smile a happy smile, смотреть фильм, писать диктант, xat yozdi , kitob o'qidi.

Adverbial phrase : to drive slowly, to arrive in time, to travel north, повернуть направо, прогулка верхом, очень молодой, говорить по английский, to'g'ri o'qidi .

Adjoining with the comparative degree of adjectives: дети постарше, бежать быстрее , run faster, speak louder, balandroq gapirmoq, tezroq yurmoq.

Adjoining with the infinitive: приехал учиться, привычка курить, came to study, decided to leave, o'qish **uchun** keldi, ko'rish **uchun** ketdi (in the Uzbek language the auxiliary word is used in post position to the adjunct)

Adjoining with possessive pronouns:их семья, их дом, их дети, their family, their house, their children.

Adjoining with the adverbial participle: молча улыбался, есть стоя, идет прихрамывая,walked laming, spoke laughing, **kulib** gapirdi, **oqsoqlanib** yurdi(in Uzbek adjoining takes place with adverbial participle "ravishdosh")

The syntactic ties 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 head word expressed by a verb, an

adjective, or another adverb. At the same time, there are some differences in the structure of attributive phrases.

In Russian and Uzbek the adjunct of the attributive phrase (adjective phrase) is frequently expressed by an adjective, but in English such phrases are made up of two nouns, because relative adjectives are not productive in English: straw hat, gold ring; we find the same peculiarity in the Uzbek language: tilla uzuk, kumush qoshiq.

In the course of historical development the pure inflected English language has lost its rich system of declension and conjugation, at the result of which word order in the sentence and combination of auxiliary (functional) words with the notional ones began to perform the function of inflexion, this typological characteristic makes the Modern English language inclined to be analytical and the syntactical tie adjoining be productive.

Sometimes it is difficult to differ whether the adjunct in such phrases is a noun or an adjective, if we proceed from the plan of form only. Taking into consideration the plan of form and the plan of meaning interconnected with each other and followed by function, of course, we will have the chance of differing the noun and its modifier in spite of their identical morphological character. Lack of inflexion in the parts of speech makes the order of words in the English sentence be fixed. That is why the order of words in the English sentence is meaningful.

In the English and Uzbek languages the adjunct of an attributive phrase can be expressed: by the passive infinitive in English: This is the book **to be read**; by passive Participle in Uzbek: Mana bu **o'qiladigan** kitob. This phrase is expressed in Russian by attributive clause: Эта книга, которая должна быть прочитана.

As the Russian language is still deeply inflected the syntactical ties government and agreement are productive in forming word combinations; here it is reasonable to say that the Russian words, in the majority of cases, can grammatically be analysed

out of the sentence. Adjoining is less productive than the agreement and government. In the structure of the English language these three syntactical ties are also used for the formation of word combinations, but adjoining is productive; government and agreement are restricted to the phrases with pronouns: to show them, this book- these books. Here it is desirable to say that the agreement is important

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between the subject and the predicate and in the formation of tense forms of verbs.

In the Uzbek language government and adjoining are productive for the formation of word combinations; agreement is restricted and it is observed in the following cases: verbs in the present and future tense forms agree with the nouns and pronouns in the function of the subject in person and number: men yozayapman/yozaman, biz yozayapmiz/yozamiz; in the 3rd person in plural this agreement is not obligatory: studentlar keldi(lar). Verbs in the past tense form, both in singular and plural, agree with the personal pronoun in the function of the subject in person and number: Men o'qidim-biz o'qidik, u o'qidi-ular o'qidilar ; in English there doesn't exist agreement in the Past Simple: I worked-We worked, He worked-They worked.

In Uzbek there is an agreement between the subject (expressed by nouns and personal pronouns)- the possessor and the object, belonging to the possessor (while expreesing the category of possession) in person and number: Mening kitobim-sening kitobing-sizning kitobingiz. Another kind of agreement exists between the attribute expressed by the noun with marked or non-marked form of the genitive case and the word modified receives the affixal morpheme of the category of possession: studentning kitobi- книга студента - student's book. In this case we observe similarity in compared languages, where the adjunct (the word modified) receives the affixal morpheme of the genitive case. In the sentences LondonO ko'chalari- LondonO streets in the Uzbek and English languages the genitive case is non- marked in the attributive word combination for stylistic purposes.

Some peculiarities of verbal phrases:

Gerundial phrases can perform the functions of the subject, object , adverbial modifier and attribute.

In the following example, the gerund phrase "Riding the Spanish bull" acts as a noun. In the sentence "Riding the Spanish bulls terrified Hugh" the gerundial phrase performs the function of the subject.

In the sentence "The teacher helped the students in using types of phrases" the gerundial phrase performs the function of the object. In the sentence " I don't like your going off without saying good bye"- in the function of the part of the complex object; "He said about his watch being slow"- in the function of the part of the complex object; His being a foreigner …was bad enough (Aldingon)- in the function of the

subject; He was born with the gift of winning hearts (Gaskell)- in the function of the attribute; After leaving her umbrella in the hall, she entered the living-room (Cronin)-in the function of the adverbial modifier.

Infinitive phrases can perform the functions of the subject, object, attribute and adverbial modifier: Even to think of it gave him ineffable torture (Bennet)- in the function of the subject; Everybody expected her to marry Pete(Caine)- in the function of the part of the complex object; Batsheba was not a woman…to suffer in silence(Hady)- in the function of the attribute; She was driven away, never to revisit this neighbourhood – in the function of the adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances.

In the example , "To dance freely" , the infinitive phrase acts as a noun.

In the sentence "To dance freely was his only wish" the infinitive phrase performs the function of the subject.

The infinitive phrase "to spend foolishly" acts as an attribute modifying the nouns **time** and **money** in the sentence "He had plenty of time and money to spend foolishly". In the sentence "He went out to have written the lettert" the infinitive phrase in perfect tense form performs the function of the adverbial modifier of time.

In the sentence "It is a book for you to read" the infinitive phrase is used in the function of the attribute. In the sentence " I don't like your going off without saying good bye"- in the function of the part of the complex object; "He said about his watch being slow"- in the function of the part of the complex object; His being a foreigner …was bad enough (Aldingon)- in the function of the subject. The English Infinitive phrases are equivalent to Harakat nomi so'z birikmasi in the Uzbek language which are formed by the verb in the Imperative form + affixal mophemes –moq, -sh/-ish , -v/-uv combined with the auxiliary wods : kelish bilan, o'qish uchun, olmoq uchun, o'qimoq uchun. These phrases perform the functions of the adverbial modifier of time , reason and purpose.

Kitobni undan olishing bilan qayt (adverbial modifier of time); Bu kitobni o'qish uchun oldim (adv.mod.of purpose); Sizni ko'rish uchun keldim (adverbial modifier of purpose); Haqiqatni aytish uchun siznikiga keldim (adv.mod. of purpose);   Uni davolatish uchun

shifoxonaga yotqizdim (adv.mod.of purpose); Uzbek Infinitive phrases (harakat nomi birikmasi) are dependent on the verb. They are substantivized and can receive the forms of the categories of possession , number and case : o'qish-im-ga/o'qish-imiz-ga/ o'qish-im-ni/o'qish-imiz-ni/   o'qish-im-ning/o'qish-imiz-ning/o'qish-im-da/o'qish-imiz-da/o'qish-im-dan/o'qish-imiz-dan. The English Infinitive and Infinitive phrases don't have this characteristic feature.

Participial phrases perform the functions of the attribute, adverbial modifier and the part of the complex object: The fence surrounding the garden is newly painted- in the function of the attribute ; Having reached the classroom, she became the object of many questions (Collins)- in the function of the adverbial modifier; I saw that young man and his wife talking to you on the stairs (Galsworthy)- in the function of the part of the complex object. In the Uzbek language participial phrases are also productive : Hal **qilingan masala** haqida gapirildi- in the function of the attribute. The difference between the participial phrases in the English and Uzbek languages is that the noun used in combination with the participle in Uzbek can be declined: Hal qilingan masalaga/ masalada/ masalani/ masalaning/masalani/ masalaning/ masaladan.The Uzbek participial phrases   are substantivized and can receive the forms of the categories of possession, number and case: Xatni yozganimni qara; Kitobni o'qiganiga qara; Inshoni tekshirganingizdan xursand bo'ldim; Ashula aytganlarini eshitdik. The English participial phrases don't have this characteristic feature. The Uzbek participial phrases are also dependent on the verb.

In conclusion, the awareness of the English and Uzbek word combinations , phrases are an important topic to cover for the English syllabus of all classes and for students to excel in creative writing and presentation skills , because in order to learn the language effectively , learners should have a proper understanding of word combinations, phrases which play an important role in expressing our thought.

Self-control questions:

1. What is the unit of the syntactic level ?
2. What is the difference between a phrase and a sentence ?
3. What does the phrase denote?
4. How do we define phrase types ?

5. What syntactic ties are used in formation of word combinations ?
6. What similarities and distinctions do you find in the formation of word combinations in the English and native languages?
7. What types of syntactic relations exist in the English and native languages?
8. Why is agreement productive in Russian?
9. Why is adjoining productive in English?
10. Why is agreement not productive in the English and Uzbek languages?
11. What types of verbal phrases do you know?
12. What is the difference between English and Uzbek verbal phrases?
13. What similarities do you find between English and Uzbek verbal phrases?

The list of recommended literature:

1.Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков. Л., 1979.
2.Азизов О., Сафаев А., Жамолхонов Х. Узбек ва рус тилларининг киесий грамматикаси. Тошкент 1986.
3.Iriskulov M. T. Theoretical grammar of the English language. Toshkent, 2006
4.Maksumov A. G. English grammar: Theory and usage. Tashkent,2012.
5.Rasulova M.I., Shukurova Z. I. Comparative typology of English,Uzbek and Russian languages.Toshkent, 2017
6.Юсупов У. К. Теоретические основы сопоставительной лингвистики.Ташкент, 2007.
7.Yusupov U.K. Comparative linguistics of the English and Uzbek languages. Tashkent, 2013

10. TYPOLOGY OF SIMPLE SENTENCE IN THE ENGLISH AND NATIVE LANGUAGES
Plan:
1. Sentence as the basic unit of syntax
2. Classification of sentences according to their structure in the English and native languages

3.Classification of sentences according to the purpose of utterance in the English and native languages

Basic concepts of the subject:

One-member sentences, two-member sentences, elliptical sentences, completed sentences, non-completed sentences, purpose of utterance, declarative, interrogative, imperative, exclamatory, word order,in post-position, in preposition, extended constructions, main parts of the sentence, secondary parts of the sentence, predication

Basic unit of syntax is the sentence. Any sentence is a structural unit built in accordance with the patterns existing in the given language. All the sounds of a sentence are united by typical intonation. Grammatical meanings are expressed according to the system of rules of the language and summarized in its grammar.To create communication these grammatical rules and fixed patterns are used on the basis of the system enhancing the act of speech, the speaker and the reality.

In linguistics, a speech act is an utterance defined in terms of a speaker's intention and the effect it has on a listener. It is the action that the speaker hopes to provoke in his or her audience. Speech acts may be requests, warnings , promises, apologies, greetings or some declaration. So, speech acts are an important part of communication. The speaker is the person whose speech is addressed to other person or persons and things in the sentence which perform the syntactic function of the subject in the sentence. The speaker's attitude towards the reality is expressed in modality by the category of tense, the category of mood, modal words, modal verbs, intonation and etc.. The category of modality is expressed on the phonological, lexical, lexical- grammatical and on the grammatical levels of the language.

The sentence 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 other, because the scientists analyze this question according to different viewpoints. Some of them consider the sentence from the point of view of phonetics, others - from the point of view of semantics (the meaning of the sentence) and so on.

Some linguists say that a sentence expresses a complete thought. This interpretation given to the sentence is connected only with the logical side of the sentence.

Otto Jespersen speaks about the completeness and independence of a sentence, being able to exist alone and having a complete utterance. B.A.Ilyish says that the sentence is the minimal syntactic structure used in communication and characterized by its predicativity which expresses thought and has its intonation pattern. Any sentence should express the meanings of tense, person and mood. As we noted above in order to be a sentence there should be the act of speech, the speaker and the reality.The speaker's attitude towards the reality is expressed in modaliy by the category of tense, the category of mood, by modal words, modal verbs and intonation.

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. In the sentence, We love our native country , the grammatical meanings of tense, mood and person are expressed. Professor M.I. Rasulova is completely right to assert that predicativity is the structural basis and the 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 conformity with their combinability and structurally united by intonation and predicativity (Rasulova M. I.,Shukurova Z.I. Comparative typology of English,Uzbek and Russian languages.T.,2017), in order to develop her interpretation given to the sentence she gives academician G.Pocheptsov's interpretation: 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 consideration 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 or more syntactically connected words that have primary predication and that have a certain intonation pattern(Rasulova M.I….).

The main parts of the sentence are the subject and the predicate which make up the predication of the sentence.

The syntactic relations among the words in the English sentence are expressed by the order of words; order of words in the English sentence is meaningful. As in the cause of historical development the inflected English language has lost its rich system of declension and conjugation , and the functions of flexions are performed by the combination of auxiliary (function) words and notional words (analytically) and by prepositional constructions.

The syntactic relations among the words in the Uzbek sentence is mosly expressed by the syntactic tie- government which demands the adjunct to receive grammatical forms not existing in the head word of the word combination.These grammatical forms are mostly expressed by case forms and case forms followed by function (auxiliary) words in postposition.

Syntactical relations among the words in the structure of the English, Uzbek and Russian sentences were described in detail in this manual while speaking about the typology of word combinations in the English and native languages.

This item of the manual deals with the simple sentences according to the structure and purpose of utterance.

According to the structure English simple sentences are devided into one-member and two-member sentences. A two-member sentence consists of the main parts of the sentence: subject and the predicate: Young Jolyon could not help smiling (Galsworthy). The two-member sentence can be complete and non-complete: Fleur had established immediate contact with an architect (Golsworthy)- complete. The simple sentence is complete when it consists of both the subject and the predicate. The simple two-member sentence is incomplete when one of the principle parts or both of them are missing , but can be easily understood from the context or by putting questions to the missing part; these kind of sentences are called elliptical and are mostly used in colloquial speech , especially in dialogue: What were you doing? - Drinking. (Shaw), Where were you yesterday? -At the cinema.

1. **One-member sentences** consist of one member which performs the function of both the subject and the predicate. These kinds of sentences are usually used in descriptions and in emotional speech. As the subject and the predicate are correlative notions, the leading member of a one-member sentence can conditionally be interpreted as subject or predicate.

One-member sentences consisting of a noun or a noun with its attributes are called nominative sentences: The sky, the flowers, the songs of birds! (Golsworthy). Another day of fog.(London) . These kinds of sentences always refer to the present. They are uttered with an expressive intonation. Nominative sentences differ from elliptical sentences with a suppressed verbal predicate in that, they do not contain any secondary parts which might be connected with a verbal predicate:A small but cosy room. One member sentences also can be extended and non-extended and they can be declarative, interrogative, exclamatory or negative in their form: Dusk of a summer night (Dreiser). The dull pain and the life slowly dripping out of him. (Heym)- declarative. A thunderstorm? Let's look for shelter-interrogative. What a still, hot, perfect day! (Bronte'); Freedom! Bells ringing out, flowers, kisses, wine. (Heym)- exclamatory.

One member sentences may comprise an infinitive in the function of its leading member. Such sentences are usually emotionally coloured: Why not go there immediately? How tell him!(Golsworthy). How keep definite direction without a compass, in the dark! (Golsworthy).

One member sentences may also be formed by words of affirmation and negation:"Did you leave the dove cage unlocked?" I asked.- "Yes."(Hemingway). "You'll let me me go?" -"No."(Golsworthy).

One member sentences may consist of modal words such as certainly, of course, all right, sure when these words are used independently but not inserted parenthetically into a sentence: "But, mother, do you really think it's a good idea?" said Laura… -"Of course!"(Mansfield).

Set expressions of polite address also form one member sentences:" Have a drink?" -"Thanks, very much!"(Golsworthy).

2.Sentences with only one predication are called **two-member simple sentences**: The child is sleeping. This sentence is non-

extended, as it consists of only the subject and the predicate (main parts of the sentence).

A simple sentence containing secondary parts of speech besides the predication is called extended two-member sentence. An extended two-member sentence contains subject, predicate and secondary parts of the sentence. There are simple sentences with several subjects to one predicate or several predicates to one subject.

A sentence with several subjects to one predicate or several predicates to one subject is called contracted simple sentences : The teacher came up to the pupil and stood there watching his writing

Types of two-member simple sentences according to the subject referring to no particular person or persons but to people in general:

1. **Impersonal two-member simple sentences** where the subject expresses natural phenomenon, time and distance. In this case   the pronoun " it"is used in the function of the subject: It is getting dark; It is five minutes past six; It is a long way to the station.

In English there is an impersonal two-member simple sentence where the pronoun "it" is used in the function of introducing the sentence with the subject referring to no particular person or thing: It is no use disguising facts; It was curious to observe that child.

2. **Indefinite-personal two-member simple sentences**. In this case the subject is often expressed by the indefinite pronoun **one** or the personal pronouns **you, we**: A day is like a page in a book. **One** can not read it without commas, and periods. (Heym); **You** can see many-storied , beautiful buildings in the centre of the city; Every pleasure is transitory. **We** can't eat long. (Dickens). Here it is reasonable   to comment that the pronouns **one, you, we** are used when the speaker is included in the action to be performed.

According to the purpose of utterance and to the role in the performance of communication, due to modality expressed, **the two-member simple sentences are classified into the following**: 1. declerative sentences containing statements, hypothetic and incentive modality, 2. interrogative sentences, 3. exclamatory sentences, 4. imperative sentences.

1.**Declarative sentences** state the facts in the affirmative and negative forms. They are the most common type of sentences in the English language which state the facts or an opinion so that the reader may know something specific and they always end with a period. The predicate in these sentences can have only one negation: Charles

Dickens was born at Landport, Portsmouth; They don't want anything from us… (Douglas) - Ular bizdan hech narsa xohlamaydilar : In the Uzbek language several negations can be used in one sentence(in the sentence mentioned above negation is used twice , in English in the same sentence negation is used only once).

The usual word order for the declarative sentence is: S+V+O, S+V+Adv., S+V+O+Adv.

In two-member simple declarative sentences hypothetic or incentive modality is expressed this way: I had better tell him about it. Mother walked her child in the garden. The teacher let the pupils go home earlier. I will try to have my dress made by then…(Dreiser). He had succeeded in making her talk. (London)

2.**Interrogative sentences** ask a question and always end with a question mark. The usual word order for the interrogative sentence is: (wh-word+) auxiliary+subject+verb….Interrogative sentences can be positive or negative. They are formed by means of inversion, that is by placing the predicate or part of it before the subject. If the subject of the interrogative sentence is an interrogative word the inversion is not used: Tom is working in the garden. - Who is working in the garden? -What is Tom doing?

There are four kinds of interrogative sentences: general questions, special questions, alternative questions , disjunctive questions.

General questions require the answer yes or no, they are pronounced with a rising intonation and formed by placing the part of the predicate, that is the auxiliary or modal verb before the subject of the sentence: Do you like art? Are you a doctor? Can you speak English? Sometimes such questions have a negative form and express astonishment or doubt: Haven't you seen him yet? General questions are sometimes rhetorical and don't require any answer expressing some emotion: Can you commit a whole country to their own prisons? Will you erect a gibbet in every field and hang men like scarecrows?(Byron)

Special questions begin with an interrogative word and is pronounced with a falling intonation. The interrogative word precedes the auxiliary verb, the order of words is the same as in general questions: Where do you live ? If the interrogative word is the subject of the sentence or an attribute to the subject, the order of words is that of a statement , that is no inversion is used: Who lives in this room? Whose pen is on the table?

Alternative questions indicate choice and are pronounced with a rising intonation in the first part and a falling intonation in the second part: Do you live in the town or in the country?

Disjunctive questions require the answer yes or no and consist of an affirmative statement followed by a negative question , or a negative statement followed by an affirmative question. The first part is pronounced with a falling intonation and the second part with a rising intonation: You speak English, don't you? You are not tired, are you?

3.**The imperative sentence** serves to induce a person to do something expressing a command, a request, an invitation ,wish or desire. Imperative sentences are formed both synthetically and analytically. Commands are pronounced with a falling intonation: Go to the blackboard. Stop talking - command (synthetically) ; Let's visit our friend. - request(analytically) ; May there always be sunshine, may there always be blue sky… - wish/desire (analytically).

4.**The exclamatory sentence** expresses some emotion or feeling. It often begins with words **what** and **how**. It is always in the declarative form, that is no inversion takes place. It is generally pronounced with a falling intonation: What a lovely day it is! How wonderful!

As we have seen , we use the declarative form to make a statement, the interrogative form - to ask a question, the imperative - to issue a command, exclamatory form - to make an exclamation. But it is desirable to comment that function and form do not always coincide, especially with a change in intonation: we can use the declarative form to give a command –You will now start the exam. Or we can use the interrogative form to make an exclamation - Wow, can you play the piano! We can ask even a question with the declarative form - Bangkok is in Thailand ? So it is important to recognize this and not be confused when the function does not always match the form.

In the structure of the Uzbek language simple sentences are also classified into one-member and two-member sentences. As it is in the English language the two-member sentences are classified according to the purpose of utterance and according to the basis of the structure.The professor I. Rasulov, the author of the monograph «Hozirgi o'zbek adabiy tilida bir sostavli gaplar», Tashkent, 1974, says: "Gapning structura asosi bir bosh bo'lakli yoki ikki bosh bo'lakli bo'ladi. Gapning nisbiy tugal fikrni ifoda qilishi, predikativlik, intonatsion butunlik, so'z yoki so'zlar qo'shilmasidan iborat bo'lishi, qo'shilmadagi so'zlarning o'zaro grammatik aloqada bo'lishi kabi

asosiy belgilari ikki sostavli gaplarga qanchalik taalluqli bo'lsa , bir sostavli gaplar uchun ham shunchalik aloqadordir"(p.43). Further he says that the categories of tense and mood expressed in the predication are demonstrated both in two-member and one-member sentences. He says that the categories of tense and mood are expressed by two parts in two-member sentence predication , in one-member sentences these categories are expressed by one part.

According to the purpose of utterance and to the role in the performance of communication, due to modality expressed, the two-member simple sentences in Uzbek are classified into 1. declarative, 2. interrogative, 3. imperative, 4. exclamatory sentences.

1.**Declarative two-member simple sentences in Uzbek** express 1) statement: Qosh qorayganda odamlar choyxonaga tomon kela boshladi (A.Qahhor); 2) dream and hope: Men yorug'likni, erkinlikni istayman (H.Olimjon); 3) confidence, pride: Alisher Navoiy sehrli qalami bilan bir turtib, qovoqdan ko'z yasaydi (Oybek); 4. advice and joy: U keldi, ota (A. Muxtor), Sabr qil, qo'zichog'im (Oybek); 5. astonishment and suspicion:Tovba, bunday ustomonni ko'rgan emasman (Oybek), Oq podshoning tagi puchga o'xshaydi (Oybek); 6) regret, anxiety, concern: G'am ustiga g'am ko'rdim, boyvachcha aka (Oybek); 7.displeasure, insult, irony: Samoviy muzalar biz uchun yotdir (Yashin), Bu g'arib onangizdan tez-tez xabar olmaysiz (Oybek), Ey Akramjon, nafasing muncha saraton (Yashin).

Declarative two-member simple sentences can be extended and non-extended as they are in the English language: Imoratlar qurildi - non extended, Dilbar ingliz tilida yaxshi gapiradi - extended. In Uzbek the subject usually agrees with the predicate in person and number as it is in English (this agreement in English was demonstrated in detail earlier). U keldi, men keldim, biz keldik. But this peculiarity can't be a strict rule in Uzbek. We have observed it in the given above example: Imoratlar qurildi: here the subject is in plural , predicate is in singular. This typological peculiarity is productive in Uzbek. The nominal predicate of the sentence as it is in English can be expressed by the noun, adjective, numeral, pronoun, adverb, infinitive (harakat nomi): Bu, shubhasiz, bizning yutug'imiz (A.Qahhor), Qiz o'z yoridek uddaburon, chechan (H. Olimjon), Dilda doston Farg'onamiz – shu (G'.G'ulom), Tong yaqin, tong yaqin, oppoq tong yaqin (H.Olimjon), Insonga hurmat, bu o'zini tanimoq (G'.G'ulom). The difference between the English and Uzbek languages in this case is that in English

the nominal predicate is compound which consists of the link verb and the nominal part (predicative), but in Uzbek in this case the predicate is not compound, it is a simple nominal predicate.

2. **Interrogative sentences in Uzbek** are formed in the following ways: 1. by adding affixal morphemes to the word performing the function of the predicate **: -a, -ya, -da, -ku, -mi, -chi** . Onaxon nishon olgani uchun sen juda xursandmisan? (Yashin); 2. by interrogative pronouns **kim, nima**: G'azaldan bu kabi zavq olmagan kim? It is desirable to comment that these interrogative pronouns can receive any case forms (kimni, nimani, kimda, nimada, kimdan, nimadan, kimning, nimaning). This typological characteristic does not exist in English. 3. by using pronouns **qanday, qaysi, necha, qancha** in order to define the quality of the object: G'ulom aka, o'sha vaqtlarda qancha hosil olar edingiz?(A. Qahhor); 4. by using pronouns **qayerda, qachon, qanday, qanday qilib, nechuk, nima uchun nima sababdan** in order to define the place, the time, the state, the reason or the purpose of the action to be performed: Qachon keladilar? (A.Qahhor), Men qayoqdan bilaman uning nima niyatda kelganini?(A.Qahhor); 5. by repeating the interlocutor's word out of the sentence uttered by him/her : Olimjonni siz qachondan beri bilasiz? - Olimjonni?-so'radi Oyqiz (Sh.Rashidov). Sometimes interrogation in Uzbek is expressed only by a rising intonation, the word order is as it is in the declarative sentence: Ota, juda xayol surib qoldingiz?(A.Qahhor).This peculiarity of interrogative sentences is similar to the English language as we have seen it above. In some other cases interrogation in Uzbek is expressed by adding the affixal morphemes **–a(r), -dir** to the word performing the function of the predicate, and by using modal words such as **kerak, shekilli, balki, ehtimol**: Hoy-hoy, o'rgilay otasi, muncha qiynaysiz uni? Ilgari durust edi shekilli?(A.Qahhor).

Interrogative sentences in Uzbek can express different meanings: emotion and various attitude of the speaker towards the reality: 1. a simple question: Xo'sh, sen o'tkazadigan tajriba nimani isbot qilishi kerak?(A.Qahhor); 2. a rhetorical question: Bo'yraday joyga sholg'om ekkan odamga ham suvmi?(Oybek). There is a special kind of a rhetorical question which is formed by using the words **aytmaysizmi, bo'ladimi** : Ertasiga ot og'rib qolsa bo'ladimi?(Oybek). Rhetoric questions express modal meanings, such as astonishment, concern, anxiety, hatred, anger, suspicion and agitation: Iyye, men kimni ko'rayapman?(A.Muxtor) -astonishment; Kanizak mendan qattiq

xafadir? (A Qahhor) - concern; Ko'zing bormi, qanaqa aravakashsan? (Oybek) - hatred/anger; Paxtalar ham yaxshi ochilmagandir?(R.Fayziy) -suspicion; Tokaygacha ezilamiz, ota?(Oybek) -agitation.

3.**Imperative sentences in Uzbek** according to their structure are formed in the following ways:1. by the form of the predicate in the imperative mood: Onajon qayg'urmang (Oybek ; 2. by the form of the predicate in the subjunctive mood (sometimes the modal word **nahotki** or the particle –**ya** is used in the structure of the sentence in the subjunctive mood): To'qqiz kishi muzokaraga chiqsa-ya, ; 3. by the combination of the modal words **kerak, mumkin, darkor** with the infinitive (harakat nomi): Bu ablahni qiynab o'ldirish kerak (Yashin).

Sometimes incomplete sentences in Uzbek can express order: 1. incomplete sentences without the predicate: O'lim yovga!(H.Olimjon); 2. incomplete sentences without the predicate and the subject: Qani , ho , yigitlar! Ishga!(A.Qahhor).

Imperative sentences in Uzbek according to the purpose of utterance. Imperative sentences in Uzbek express various modal meanings, such as order, advice, request, dream, desire, propaganda, agitation, emotional request, hatred and threat: Salim ketgan joyga uni ham jo'natish kerak (Oybek) -order; Shira tutib qiyshaygan go'zani yulib tashlash kerak (A.Qahhor) -advice; Shohim, Alisherga ozor bermang…(Uyg'un) -request; Qani hamma xotin ham sizday bo'lsa (A.Qahhor) -dream/desire; Sovqotib qolma, issiqroq yot, Shermatjon do'stim (Yashin) -concern; Shu ona hurmati turing oyoqqa (Uyg'un) -propaganda/agitation; Ayajon, menga rahm eting. Arzi-dodimga yeting (N.Safarov) -emotional request; Uyini yelkamning chuquri ko'rsin (A.Qahhor) -hatred/threat.

Intonation is strong when emotional request, hatred, threat and strict order are expressed, intonation is neutral when advice , request and suspicion are expressed, intonation is rising when propaganda, agitation, dream and desire are expressed in Uzbek imperative sentence440s. So intonation plays a great role in defining the polysemantic meaning of modality in Uzbek imperative sentences.

4.**Exclamatory sentences in Uzbek**, as they are in English, express various emotional attitudes and inner feelings of the speaker towards the reality. Declarative, interrogative and imperative sentences pronounced with the special intonation in the English and native languages can express different emotional attitudes of the speaker towards the reality, but the leading meaning of these sentences will be

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declarative, interrogative , imperative and they can't be considered to be exclamatory sentences. Exclamatory sentences in the English and native languages have the specific structure, grammatical peculiarities and the speaker's inner emotional feelings and attitudes towards the reality are expressed.

1)Exclamatory sentences in Uzbek according to the structure: In the Uzbek language exclamatory sentences are formed by the following means: 1)by the pronouns with the emotional meanings , such as **qanday, qaysi, qanaqa, naqadar**, **qancha, necha, shuncha, shunday**: Kechki salqin tushishi bilan boshlangan shabadada bog'ni kezish naqadar mash'ala!(Sh.Rashidov); 2. by interjections: E, baxtlarni balog'atga yetkazgan ona!(H. Olimjon); 3. by particles **ana, mana** : Ana tantana-yu, mana tantana!(A.Qahhor); 4. by some phraseological phrases: Holingga voy!, Ey xo'rlik qursin!(Oybek); 5. by special intonation , such sentences can be similar to declarative and imperative sentences by their form and structure, but by the special strong intonation the inner emotional feeling of the speaker is expressed so that the sentence becomes exclamatory: Vahshiy, lekin go'zal manzara (Oybek); 6. by using some words with emotional meaning: Bu qanday dahshatli manzara, hayhot!(Yashin);

2)Exclamatory sentences in Uzbek according to the purpose of utterance: Exclamatory sentences in Uzbek express the following emotional meanings:1. astonishment: Ajab zamona ekan!(Oybek); 2. gratitude, sympathies: Otangga rahmat!(A.Qahhor), Hormang, ota!(Oybek); 3. surprise: Ajab dunyo ekan!(Oybek); 4. enthusiasm , joy and satisfaction: Qoyilman , polvon inim!(Oybek); 4. dream and love: Xudo baxtingni bersin-da, Andryusha!(M.Gorkiy); 5. compassion, irony, hatred, displeasure and fear: Evoh, essiz umr, essiz qizim!(Oybek), Yangi kasb qulluq bo'lsin, boyvachcha- dedi O'rmonjon(A.Qahhor); Voy, la'nati!(Yashin) , Bu qanday bedodlik, bu qanday zulm!(Yashin), Voydod! Voy o'lay! Onajon! (H.Hakimzoda).

In the Uzbek language a sentence may include more than one negation : Men **hech** qachon **hech** kimning bu haqda gapirganini eshit**ma**dim - I have **never** heard anybody speak about it. In the English sentence negation is used only once: either by the predicate in the negative form or by the negative pronoun/negative adverb…. The Uzbek sentence given above shows that negation is used three times in one senence.

One- member sentences in Uzbek are classified in the following way:1. one-member personal sentences: Shu yorug' yo'lda sizga baxt tilayman ; 2. one-member impersonal sentences: Jo'jani kuzda sanaydilar; To'rt-besh kundan keyin terimga tushiladi ; 3. one-member sentences with the subject referring to no particular person or to people in general : Dehqon bo'lsang shudgor qil, mulla bo'lsang takror qil; 4. one-member nominative sentences : Ana sovuq , mana qor! Samarqand. Registon maydoni.

The linguist I.Rasulov , who thoroughly analyzed one-member sentences in the structure of the Uzbek language , classified them in the following way (I.Rasulov.Tanlangan asarlar.Toshkent ,2015,1 jild):

One member personal sentences: In these sentences the subject is not hidden, but this way of expressing the subject of the sentence is a syntactic norm of the language: Endi o'zingizning ishingiz haqida gaplashib olaylik(Tuyg'un). Here the meaning of the subject is expressed in the predicate of the sentence by the so called category : shaxs-son kategoriyasi (the category of person-number in the verb): keldim-kelding-keldi-keldik-keldingiz-keldilar. The basic structure of the sentence is considered to be the predicate.

One-member impersonal senences:In these sentences the subject of the sentence is also not hidden , but differing from the one-member personal sentences, here the meaning of the subject is not expressed in the predicate of the sentence:1) the doer of the action is unknown both for the speaker and listener/ interlocutor: Omon: Dehqonboy aka, devoriy gazeta chiqdi. Klubga osib qo'yishdi.(A.Qahhor); 2) the doer of the action is known to the speaker, but it is not used in the speech; both the speaker and the listener pay attention to the action: Meni qo'yarda-qo'ymay xotin-qizlar klubida tashkilotchi qilib qo'yishdi(G'.G'.); 3) the doer of the action is not planned to be expressed, the main attention is attracted to the action and for some reason the speaker preferes not to mention the doer of the action: Bu noxush voqea haqida hozir aytishdi; 4) the doer of the action is understood from the context : Normat, kecha taqsimot bo'ldi. Hammamizning ishlaganimizni tekshirib chiqdilar (H.Sh.); 5) the speaker doesn't have the concrete information of the doer of the action: Otlaringni kata-katta qilib yozishibdi (A.Q.); 6) the doer of the action can be the speaker himself. But it is not necessary for the listener: Chorvaning haqiqiy jonkuyari deb shundaylarni aytishadi-da.(H.Sh.).

One member-sentences with subject referring to no particular person or to people in general:1)the action is addressed to everybody, in the majority of cases in these sentences exclamation or appeal is expressed: O'zining butun kuch-quvvatini, bilimini hormay-tolmay xalq xizmatiga sarf etayotgan o'qituvchilarimizni sharaflaylik ! (I.Rasulov); 2) the action which doesn't belong to the definite time and place; these one-member sentences consist of proverbs expressing Uzbek nation's customs, traditions, experiences obtained in the cause of centuries: O'xshatmaguncha uchratmas; Oz-oz o'rganib dono bo'lur; Haqni aytsang , urarlar, xushomadni suyarlar; Tanimasni siylamas; Bildingki, bevafodir, ko'ngil qo'ymoq xatodir.

One-member sentences where the subject is expressed neither explicitly nor implicitly:Hamrobuvi: Ko'sak chuvishda sizga yetib bo'ladimi?(A.Qahhor). These are the one-member sentences the basic structure of which consists of the predicate and the grammatical subject can't be defined: Yo'lbars uyasiga kirmoq kerak(maqol); Guloyimdan so'rash kerak bu sirni.(H.O.).

One member sentences without the predicate: Martning oxirgi kunlari. Ko'k yuzida suzib yurgan bulut parchalari oftobni bir zumda yuz ko'yga solyapti.(A.Q.). The first sentence in this example is a one-member sentence without the predicate. In the combination of words considered to be a one-member sentence in this example intonation, context and the situation play a great role. These sentences are not used in the interrogative and imperative forms. The concept of existence expressing emotion lays on the basic structure of these sentences: Mana ko'm-ko'k dala! Dam olishga chiqqan yoshlarning qiyqiriq ovozlari eshitilib turibti. I. Rasulov classifies the one-member sentences without the predicate into 1) nominative one-member, 2) nominal one-member, 3)one-member sentences expressing appraisal, 4) one-member sentences expressing imagination or presentation.

Nominative one-member sentences without the predicate express the existence of some object, event or phenomenon. These sentences are not used in the negative form: Bahor. Daraxtlar ko'k libosni kiya boshladi. One-member nominative sentences express joy, astonishment, grief, sorrow. In the majority of cases one-member nominative sentences express the reason of the action performed in the sentence which follows it: Qop-qora tun. Ko'kda na oy ko'rinadi, na yulduz bor.(I.R.). In some other cases these sentences express the result of the action performed in the sentence which precedes it: Oq podshoh

hammani qiradiganga o'xshaydi. Urush qursin! Ochlik, qimmatchilik.(O.)

Nominal one-member sentences without the predicate express:1) titles of books, articles…: "Qutlug' qon" , "Bo'rondan kuchli" , Physics , Chemistry; 2)Names of journals , papers: "Sharq yulduzi" , "O'qituvchilar gazetasi"; 3) names of months, days, year: 2021 yil. May. Yakshanba . 15 fevral.

One-member sentences without the predicate, expressing appraisal are those where the speaker's appraisal given to the object, event or phenomenon is expressed: Bechora yigit! Bilmay yurgan ekanmiz.(Ch.A.). Sometimes there are cases when in the one-member sentence without the predicate expressing appraisal, the modifier performs the function of the word modified (in his case the principle part , the noun, is omitted): - Voy bechora!(qiz) - dedi Gulsumbibi birdan. – Sho'rlik qizga qiyin bo'libdi hammadan.(O.) In this sentence the principle part , the word modified, **qiz**, is omitted , the existence of which is understood from the context ; this sentence can be considered to be elliptical one-member sentence without the predicate expressing appraisal.

One-member sentences without the predicate, expressing imagination or presentation: In the one-member sentence without the predicate of this kind the event or the object is reminded, imagined: Odamzod! U qanday sharoitda yashamasin, necha yoshga kirmasin, yashashga, go'zallikka intiladi; To'y, yangicha to'y! Qanchalar go'zallikni, qanchalar quvonch, shodlikni o'zida tarannum etgan bu so'zlar.(I. Rasulov).

Nominative sentences without the predicate are strong stylistic means, make the speaker's utterance emotional and colourful attracting the reader's or the listener's attention to the object, event or phenomenon.

Analysis of one-member and two-member simple sentences in the English and Uzbek languages show that **the basic unit of syntax is the sentence.** Any sentence is a structural unity built in accordance with one of the patterns existing in a given language. All the sounds of a sentence are united or theby typical intonation. All the meanings are interlaced according to some pattern to make some communication. There exists a system of coordinates to fix the position or the direction of thought. These coordinates are **the act of speech, the speaker (the writer), reality (as viewed by the speaker). The act of speech** is

the event with which all other events mentioned in the sentence are correlated in speech (the category of tense, time markers). **The speaker** is the person with whom other persons and things in the sentence are correlated (the category of person of the verb and nouns and pronouns performing the syntactic function of the subject in the sentence). **Reality** is either accepted as the speaker sees it , or an attempt is made to change it, or some irreality is fancied (the category of mood, words like must, may, probably , etc.).

The relations to the act of speech , to the speaker and to the reality comprise the relation to the situation of the speech. The relation of the thought of a sentence to the situation of a speech is called **predicativity.** Predicativity is an essential part of the content of the sentence . So, as we noted above , the sentence can be defined as a communication unit made up of words (and word morphemes) in conformity with their combinability , united by predicativity and intonation. The predication is made by the function of the main parts of the sentence : subject and predicate of the sentence.

The character of formal means of rendering syntactic relations is a determining unit for the language structure . As we have seen above , in English the syntactic relations among the words in the sentence are expressed , in most cases, by order of words in the sentence and by the combination of function words with the notional ones; of course some grammatical meanings are expressed with the help of flexions(plurality of nouns : child-children, tense forms: spend-spent) , by sound interchange (man- man, foot-feet, rise-rose), by suppletion (go-went, good- better, be-am/is/are/ was/were), etc. which have been preserved from the Old English language as an inheritance from the pure inflected language. In modern English expression of grammatical meanings by agglutinated affixation (as it is in the Uzbek language) is productive (work-worked, wide- wider, pen-pens).

As we have seen in the examples analysed above, the word order in the Uzbek sentence is relatively free . It is considered to be a dominant factor in the information structure of the sentence . A certain sentence can be used with differen informative shades and carry out different communicative functions , depending on the purpose of the speaker / author , and in Uzbek , it is mainly carried out through word order. The main characterisics of word order variations are demonstrated by the examples given above which are taken from literary texts.

Self-control questions:

1.Give the theoretical interpretation of the sentence.

2.Give the classification of the sentence according to the structure?

3.Give the classification of the sentence according to the purpose of utterance?

4.What can you say about elliptical sentences in the English and native languages?

5.What can you say about two-member sentences in the English and native languages?

6.What can you say about one-member sentences in the English and native languages?

7.What can you say about word order in the simple sentences of the English language ?

8.What can you say about word order in the simple sentences of the Uzbek language?

9.What can you say about word order in the simple sentence of the Russian language?

10.What can you say about the role of intonation in the simple sentences of the English and native languages?

11.What can you say about the usage of negation in the simple sentence of the English and native languages?

The list of recommended literature:

1.Alimova M. Kh., Jilina O.Yu. Pragmatic approach to the analysis of expressing connotative meaning in the English and Uzbek literary texts. Central Asian Journal of Education. 2021,Vol.6, issue 1, pp.1-19.

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11. COOPERATION OF THE COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY AND OTHER THEORETICAL AND APPLIED BRANCHES OF LINGUISTICS

Plan:

1. Comparative typology and Theory of translation
2. Comparative typology and Methodology of teaching foreign languages
3.Comparative typology and Lexicography
4.Comparative typology and Science of style

Basic concepts of the subject:

Lexicography, transformation, isomorphous and allomorphous units, interlevel correspondence, literal translation, compiling dicitionaries, conformity of words, the stage of analysis, the stage of synthesis, comparative lexicography, stylistically marked units, stylistically non-marked units,interference,differential tags, detection of errors, deep and surface identity

The comparative typology of the native and foreign languages is based on theoretical courses of the language.

The history of the language acquaints the students with the complicated and various processes in the development of the language structure. In the result of historical development during XIth and XVth centuries the typology of the English language has changed greatly. A peculiarity of the grammatical structure of the modern English language obtained by the practical and theoretical grammars acquaints the

students with the system existing in the language structure. The system of the language represents the generalization of the private and single phenomena. The grammatical structure of the language gives the typology two kinds of facts: morphological (for ex: the universal of plurality) and syntactic (for ex: the structure of some word combinations).

Analogous generalized facts let typology dispose some other theoretical courses. They are theoretical phonetics, lexicology, theoretical grammar, history of the English language and methodology of teaching.

The comparative typology directly deals with the theory of translation, the methodology of teaching foreign languages, the comparative science of style and lexicography. Each of these branches of science is independent, at the same time all of them are interconnected with each other.

The comparative typology and theory of translation. The comparative typology and the theory of translation are interconnected and they give necessary facts to each other in order to operate. Such a tie is a natural phenomenon as both of them deal with comparison. The most important thing for translation is the transformation of concrete content and here grammatical meaning can be changed. Theoretical generalization of isomorphous and allomorphous units of compared languages can be realized in typology by means of using the results of translation. Concrete peculiarities relating the comparative typology to the theory of translation are following: 1) common character of the plan of content; 2) identity of the process of comparison; 3) interlevel correspondence; 4) indifference to the genetic relationship.

Principle differential signs of comparative typology and the theory of translation are following: In spite of common operation and the presence of common features, there are some distinctions between the comparative typology and the theory of translation. Being independent both comparative typology and the theory of translation possess a row of distinctive peculiarities. The theory of translation possesses: 1) the freedom of choice and 2) distinctions in the plan of content.

The freedom of choice is the choice of necessary variant without preserving one level correlation. This feature is less characteristic for the typology. The comparative typology deals with the determination of interlevel correspondence.

The freedom of choice can be used in the comparative typology too, but it is limited within the definite levels. So proceeding from the typological correspondence this category can be given in Turkic languages by 1) adding word-changing and word-forming morphemes to the stem of the verb, b) by means of nominated and non-nominated verbal combinations. Differing from the typologist the translator goes out of these regularities, as the most important thing for him is to convey the definite meaning in the other language; literal translation of the text can be made a) by preserving regularities of the system correspondence, b) by not preserving regularities of the system correspondence. In the first case the translator uses the synonymity, variantness, stylistic colourance of some words, forms, affixes and etc., in the second case he uses such means, which don't possess correspondence of typological regularities. Here the translator is compelled to make free translation.

Under the plan of content we consider two kinds of meanings: I) abstract grammatical, 2) concrete lexical meanings. The first is called typological and the second is the basis for translation; these two kinds of meanings are interdependent. They can't exist without each other. Linguist Retsker (Я. И. Рецкер) is right to say: «Голая, лишенная лексического наполнения, грамматическая структура также мало показательна для переводчика, как железный каркас для будущих обитателей дома». (Теория перевода и переводческая практика. М. 1974 , стр. 7-8).

The concrete lexical meaning is expressed by means of words, phraseological units and grammatical meaning is expressed by connecting affixal morphemes to the root morphemes or stems, by phonetic modification of the root sound structure, by the complete change of the root, by order of words in the sentence, by the combination of function words with notional ones (analytical forms), by suppletion and modulation. The sum of the lexical-semantic categories is not restricted, and the sum of the grammatical categories is limited. Sometimes the change of grammatical structure of the sentence doesn't cause a change in content. The tourists will arrive tomorrow morning – Turistlar ertaga ertalab kelishayapti. As we see two kinds of grammatical structures of the sentence don't cause any change in the content of translation. Though the linguistic typology is closely connected with translation, the latter can't be the constituent

part of the former. The comparative typology compares the system with the system; translation compares the text with the text.

The linguistic typology has relations with many scientific subjects, such as psychology, physiology, logics, anthropology, literature, mathematics and so on. But it has a direct regard to the theory of translation, methodology of teaching foreign language, lexicography and stylistics. The linguistic typology and the theory of translation are closely connected with each other, because both of them are generally engaged in comparison of language phenomenon.

There are many points of contacts between them. For example, if linguistic typology studies characteristic features of the system of two or more languages and establishes the corresponding features between them, in the theory of translation the interpreter transforms speech units from one language into another establishing common points in the system of both languages at the same time.

In this case professor L.S. Barkhudarov is completely right when he stresses that the theory of translation is a scientifically well-grounded comparison of the systems of two languages in its essence (A linguistic theory of translation. M., 1975, p. 22). That's why we can say that translation plays an important role in comparing the systems of languages.

In its turn, complete description of two languages from the point of view of linguistic typology would give much for the interpreters in their practical work. While comparing the systems of two or more related and non-related languages the process of translation should be taken into account. While translating from one language into another it will be possible to find common elements of the grammatical meaning in both languages and to separate grammatical categories common to both languages. That's why isomorphic and allomorphic features of compared units can be carried out by using the results of translation, because the interpreter can find hidden features common to both languages which are not known in typology. So translation works for linguistics.

The problem of training to foreign languages serves as an object of research for many sciences, including linguistic typology. The applying of linguistic typology can be implemented through the methodology of teaching foreign languages.

Comparative typology and methodology of teaching foreign languages. Methodology of teaching uses regularities established by

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typology. In general, as any analytical investigation, the linguistic typology has two purposes: theoretical and practical. The first is connected with the typological analyses of the system of each compared language separately, the second is connected with the further applying the results, obtained in the cause of analytical investigation.

The linguistic typology can be connected with the methodology of teaching foreign languages while defining interfering means.

The native language of the pupils they speak from childhood can influence the system of the foreign language they start to learn.

The analysis of the interference is connected with the comparative analyses of the system of two or more languages with detection of differential tags of phonological, lexical and grammatical systems.

From the idealized point of view the analysis of interference is connected with the installation of typological isomorphism and allomorphism. From the practical point of view such analysis can help the detection of errors arising under the influence of the system of the native language.

Now we'll see the cooperation of some other branches of linguistics with comparative typology .

The methodology of teaching foreign languages is connected with the structural typology on the linguistic basis of training as a whole, applying different methods of structural linguistics in different languages: by the definition of the deep structure of this or that category, by consideration of separate problems of semantic and formal typology and many others.

Given problem serves as a subject of discussion for the linguists and methodologists.

As for genetic typology it is connected with studying languages in connection with related and non-related patterns on the basis of the definition of deep and surface identity.

Concerning areal typology, for example, in order to teach foreign languages in separate areas of Central Asian republics it is necessary to allow the knowledge of two or more languages of the local residents. In some cities of Uzbekistan in the process of teaching foreign languages the interfering role is simultaneously played by the systems of the Uzbek, Tadjik and Russian languages.

Comparative typology and lexicography. Comparative typology has direct connection with the lexicography, as both of them compare

equivalent units. Lexicography needs typological analysis of the systems of languages and compiles dictionaries.

Modern lexicographic science doesn't have enough experience and well done universal principles in compiling dictionaries.

Comparative typology and lexicography draw together on the basis of their applied tasks, both of them deal with the process of learning the systems of different related and non-related languages. The fact is undisputable that lexicographic work of a two languaged dictionary, at the same time, is a work on comparing languages. In dictionaries general and constant conformity of words are given with maximal exactness (accuracy), even if those languages are non-related. Without typological reference books or preliminary exactness dictionary may not be valuable.

The comparative typology and lexicographical process also can be divided into two stages:

1. The stage of analysis
2. The stage of synthesis

On the first stage comparative typology gives an opportunity to lexicographists to organize the process of compiling dictionaries. The second stage gives equivalent units on the basis of the first stage.

The unit of lexicography which deals with the matter of comparing the systems of languages for compiling dictionaries, can be named comparative lexicography. It can study linguistic questions synchronically and diachronically.

The following lexicographic features are characteristic for the modern English language :
•   defining security meaning of root words and their grouping
•   defining relations to the system of security of derivatives
•   groups of compound words on their relation to the system of security
•   revealing basic causative , reflexive, passive and other constructions.

Investigation of some questions of borrowing human names, for example, Abraham- Иброхим, Israel- Исроил, Jacob-Ёкуб, Isaak-Исхок. There are a lot of signs which deal with the comparative typology and lexicography.
•   comparative typology and lexicography investigate the systems of two or more languages at the same time;

• comparison of languages can be genetically related and non-related;

• comparative typology and lexicography base on both internal and external comparison;

• comparative typology and lexicography are not limited with the units of the levels they are operated with.

In the process of comparing this or that grammatical category we can exclude units of non-grammatical units.

Comparative typology and science of style. The typologist comparing the definite linguistic category can't ignore the stylistic side of the question. Galperin I.R. is right to say: "языковые средства, используемые в одних и тех же функциях, постоянно вырабатывают своего рода новые качества, становятся условными средствами выразительности и постепенно складываясь в отдельные группы, образовывают определенные стилистические приемы" (Очерки по стилистике английского языка. М .1958, стр.4). While analyzing the definite plan of content the following forms of the plan of expression are defined: 1) stylistically marked , 2) stylistically non-marked forms. Stylistically marked units are always expressive means of the language. Comparing the systems of the native and non-native languages the typologist must deal with defining stylistically marked and non-marked units as the comparative typology analyzes the systems of compared languages as a whole. Without defining stylistically marked and non-marked units one can't fix regularities corresponding to the structures of the compared languages. All the linguistic units: sounds, affixes, words, constructions, sentences and texts can be stylistically marked. The comparative stylistics studies the stylistic peculiarities of the units of every level of the language separately. The phonological typology is connected with the phonostylistics, the morphological typology with the morphological stylistics and the lexical typology with the lexical stylistics.

Self control questions:

1. Speak about the cooperation of comparative typology with theory of translation

2.Speak about the cooperation of comparative typology with methodology of teaching foreign languages

3.Speak about the cooperation of comparative typology with lexicography

4.Speak about the cooperation of comparative typology with science of style

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12. IMPORTANCE OF COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY IN OVERCOMING NATIVE LANGUAGE INTERFERENCE IN THE PROCESS OF TEACHING EFL

Plan:

1. Native language interference on the morphological level of the language
2. Native language interference on the syntactical level of the language

Basic concepts of the subject:

Inflected character, suppletive means, zero morpheme, agglutination, fusion, synthetic, analytical, characteristic feature, stylistic colouring, fixed word order, free word order, minimizing harmful interference.

The inflected character of the Germanic and Russian languages and the fact that the pure inflected Old English language is inclined to be analytical in Modern English the Uzbek English learners make the most common mistakes in their speech as there is a great difference between English and Uzbek phonology, morphology and syntax. Uzbek English learners' mistakes in their speech usually occur in word order, sentence patterns and in the ways of expressing syntactic relations among the words in the sentence.

English and Uzbek languages can be compared for theoretical and practical purposes. Comparison of English and Uzbek languages for the practical purposes is the most topical issue as in the century of globalization the role of English language as the leading means of intercultural communication is rapidly increasing.

Everyone needs to learn English so that he\she should get in touch on an international level, which paves the way for developing our country in the fields of economy, science, technology, and demonstrates to the world the privileges of the Uzbek mentality, customs, traditions, Islamic religion, culture, history and science as well.

Knowing English and speaking this language perfectly not only contributes to the international ties of the country, it also improves smooth communication among academic communities. Nowadays, knowing English is performing the function of the bridge among the

academic and scientific researchers from all corners of the world. Knowing English, the youth of our country enjoy great opportunities in gaining access to the most developed countries of the world in the fields of culture, sport, science and technology.

Language interference is one of the current problems in foreign language teaching. This manual will help the students to the constructive analysis of non-related languages and to teach their English-learning pupils in future, ways of liquidating errors and overcoming interference mistakes. As the language learning opens the door for interaction between people and nations, the learning of foreign language faces with many errors especially for a learner of a new language. A learner of a new language consciously and unconsciously transfers structural patterns of an already acquired language into a new language. These structural patterns from other languages may constitute errors in the new language and may be unacceptable. This type of errors is considered to be linguistic interference. Language interference can either be positive or negative and can be from a mother tongue, or a second language or another foreign language. This manual gives the chance of analyzing the interference errors made by Uzbek English learners in acquiring the English language. The special attention is paid to contrastive analysis of non-related languages , ways of liquidating errors and overcoming interference mistakes. The aim of the manual is to improve the quality of language knowledge and its transformation into language competence.

Applied linguistics is a branch of linguistics mediating between theory and practice concerned with solving the problems of interference in learning the foreign language.

Comparative typology deals with comparing languages of different systems and with defining similarities and distinctions in language phenomena. At the same time the comparative typology studies interlanguage correspondence and interlevel synonymy among languages compared. Besides, comparative typology proposes ways of liquidating negative influence of one language in the process of learning a new one. In the process of teaching a foreign language the teacher should explain his/her learners positive and negative influence of their native language. Interference exists in all levels of the language, that is in phonological, morphological, syntactical and lexical levels of the language. If the pupils know the phonological, morphological, lexical

and syntactical levels of their native language consciously it will be easy for them to liquidate the interferences they come across in the process of learning a foreign language .

The teachers of the English language of our country need to work out new mechanisms of teaching the pupils to acquire English perfectly so that they should be able to demonstrate our country's rich culture, historical heritage to the world by translating Uzbek literature and academic works of our national scholars and ancestors.

Uzbek English learners usually make mistakes 1) in agreement of the predicate with the subject, 2) in sequence of tenses where the pupils should know the certain dependence of the tense of the verb in a subordinate clause on that of the verb in the principle clause which does not exist in the Uzbek language, 3) in using the indirect speech where in contrast to direct speech, in which the exact words of the speaker are given, indirect speech is a form of utterance where these words are reported, 4) in using compound nominal predicate (in Uzbek simple nominal predicate is used), 5) in using one-member and two-member sentences (while expressing natural phenomenon, distance and time), 6) in expressing the category of person and number in verbs which does not exist in the structure of the English language, 7) in using reflexive pronouns after some verbs which destroy the meaning of the sentence in English, 8) in using English tense forms as they greatly differ from the Uzbek tense forms where the grammatical meaning is mostly expressed by the agglutinated affixation, while in Modern English one or more auxiliary verbs are used in combination with the notional verb in order to express the concrete tense form (besides Present Simple and Past Simple), 9) in rendering the Uzbek extended attributes into English, etc.

There are some interferences depended on the native language of pupils, for example, in the English and German languages there exists the usage of the article before nouns which does not exist in the native language of the pupils: a book – kitob (biror xil kitob, bitta kitob); the book – bu kitob (aniq bir kitob).

The inflected character of the Germanic and Russian languages and the fact that the pure inflected Old English language is inclined to be analytical in Modern English, the Uzbek English learners come across some difficulties such as:

In German	In English
Ich bin student	I am a student
Du bist student	You are a student
Er ist student	He/She is a student
In Tadjik	In Uzbek
Man student astam	Men studentman
Tu student asti	Sen studentsan
Oʻ student ast	U student

Given above examples show that in the structures of the German, English and Tadjik languages (Indo-European languages) the compound nominal predicate consists of the link verb and the predicative (being expressed by all parts of speech besides the verb). The link verb in these languages in order to express the grammatical meanings of person, number and tense changes its sound structure completely, that is by suppletive means: in German the link verb **sein** changes into **bin, bist, ist**, in English the link verb **be** changes into **am, is, are, was, were**, in Tadjik the link verb **budan** changes into **astam, asti, ast**.

Given above examples show that the meaning of the predicate in the German, English and Tadjik languages is expressed by the compound nominal predicate which consists of the link verb **be/sein/budan** and the predicative expressed by the noun <u>student</u>. At the result of this combination the link verb changes its appearance completely which is the characteristic feature of inflected languages. But in the Uzbek language the meaning of the given above examples is expressed by the nominal predicate (not compound), where the grammatical meanings of person, number and tense are expressed by the markers of the category of person and number <u>-man</u>, <u>-san</u>, and a <u>zero morpheme</u> in the third person singular. These markers are connected to the stem or the root of the nominal part of the predicate by agglutination where neither the root (or the stem) nor the markers of the category of person and number changes, that is the characteristic feature of agglutinated languages. Ye. D. Polivanov considers this connection of the affixal morpheme to the root morpheme as analytical agglutination, because separation of affixal morpheme from the root morpheme does not harm either the root or affixal morpheme. [4, pp. 51-52, p. 82; 5, p. 91].

English-learning Uzbek pupils usually do not use the link verb **to be** in these cases proceeding from the habits they have already acquired from their childhood in their mother tongue; there occur such mistakes as <u>He a student</u> instead of <u>He is a student</u>, <u>You a student</u> instead of <u>You are a student</u>.

In the English sentence <u>I shall go to school</u> the grammatical meanings of person, number and tense are expressed pure analytically, where by the combination of the auxiliary verb **shall** and the notional verb **go** neither the auxiliary and nor the notional verb changes its sound structure. In the sentence <u>He has written a letter</u> → Present Perfect Tense, that is the completed present action is expressed analytically by the combination of the auxiliary verb **have** and the notional verb **write**. At the result of this combination both the auxiliary verb **have** and the notional verb **write** change their sound structure. [6, pp. 41-52; 7, pp. 55-56]. We find the following phenomenon: have → has: V → Z in the auxiliary verb; write → written: R + aɪ → ɪ + af (root + the change of phoneme [aɪ] into [ɪ] + the addition of the affixal morpheme -<u>en</u>). The analysis of this phenomenon shows that it is not a pure analytical form of expressing the grammatical meaning, it is a mixed analytical form, that is the characteristic feature of the inflected languages. This characteristic feature does not exist in the structure of the Uzbek language sound structure. In Uzbek the expression of the grammatical meaning analytically differs from the English language. In the example given below (sentence 3) we find the analytical form **tomosha qilayotgan edim**, where by the combination of the auxiliary verb **edim** and the notional verb **tomosha qilayotgan** neither the notional and nor the auxiliary verb changes its sound structure.

In Uzbek: 1) Men yozaman – 2) Men yozdim; 3) Men bogʻda oʻynayotgan qizaloqni tomosha qilayotgan edim. In these Uzbek sentences grammatical meanings of person, number and tense are expressed by the agglutinative addition of affixal morphemes to the root morphemes (or stems). The separation of these affixal morphemes from the root morphemes (or stems) does not harm the sound structure of the word and the word being separated from the affixal morphemes, expressing the grammatical meaning, preserves its independence (sentences 1 – 2). In the structure of the English and Russian languages this linguistic phenomenon occurs differently:

In English 1) child – children; 2) rise – risen; 3) break – broken: 1) R + aɪ → ɪ + af; 2) R + aɪ → ɪ + af; 3) R + eɪ → ou + af; In Russian: 1) окно – окна; 2) дом – дома: 1) R + a → o + af; 2) R + o → a + af.

The separation of the affixal morphemes from the English words child – chil<u>dren</u>, rise – ris<u>en</u>, break – brok<u>en</u>, in Russian the separation of the affixal morphemes from the roots of words окн<u>о</u> – окн<u>а</u>, (ʌкпɔ → окпʌ), дом – дом<u>а</u> (dɔm → dʌmʌ) harms the sound structure of the given above words.

The analysis of the given above examples shows that in the English language, at the result of the addition of the affixal morphemes to the root morphemes (or stems), there occurs fusion, that is the affixal morpheme is so alloyed to the root morpheme that its separation from the latter makes it loose its independence. [5, pp. 64-92]. This phenomenon is the characteristic feature of the Old English language which has been preserved in the Modern English as inheritance.

In Modern English relation among the words in the sentence in most cases is expressed analytically, that is by the pure analytical and mixed analytical forms as we have already shown it above and by the word order in the sentence. Word order in English is fixed, in Uzbek it is at some extent free, at the result of which there occurs another language interference for English- learning Uzbek pupils. We harm both the structure and the meaning of the English sentence by changing word order in the sentence: <u>The hunter killed the wolf</u> → <u>The wolf killed the hunter.</u> The analysis of these sentences shows that by the change of the word order the performer of the action (the subject) is subjected to the influence of the previous object **the wolf**, which has become the performer of the action **killing** (the wolf, which was the object, has become the subject of the sentence). But in the Uzbek language this phenomenon occurs this way: Ovchi bo'rini o'ldirdi → Bo'rini ovchi o'ldirdi. The analysis of the Uzbek examples shows that the change of the word order does not harm either the structure or the essential meaning of the sentence. Uzbek English- learner should not forget that in the Uzbek language, whatever he may change word order in the sentence, the predicate must be used at the end of the sentence. While in the English language it is used after the subject. The change of the word order in the Uzbek sentence given above has not changed the essential meaning of the sentence, it has given only the additional stylistic colouring, it has made the sentence more emphatic. We will see

this phenomenon in the structure of the Russian language: 1) Охотник убил волка → 2) Волка убил охотник → 3) Убил волка охотник. The analysis of the Russian sentence shows that the change of word order in the sentence preserves the essential meaning of the sentence just giving additional stylistic colouring where in the first sentence the performer of the action is underlined, in the second sentence the object is emphasized (that the hunter killed the wolf not the other animal), in the third sentence the performed action is emphasized. This phenomenon occurs in connection with the fact that in Russian every word in the sentence is grammatically formulated and that is why wherever it is used in the sentence it does not change its grammatical function. That is why word order in Russian is free. In Russian words, in most cases, out of the sentence are grammatically formulated and can be grammatically analyzed: the word **школа** out of the sentence expresses the feminine gender, common case, singularity and we can define this word as a noun (in the system of the parts of speech). In English, in most cases, the words out of the sentence can not be analyzed grammatically or can not be defined to what part of speech they belong: **smoke, gold**. These words, proceeding from their place in the sentence (word order), can function either as a noun or a verb. For the Uzbek English-learners it is important to know that an English word can sometimes be in more than one part of speech, for example, the word **increase** can be a verb: <u>Prices increased</u>, and **increase** can also be a noun: <u>There was an increase in the number of followers</u>.

This phenomenon is connected with the typological characteristic of the Modern English language which in the course of historical development has lost its rich system of declension and conjugation and has lost the category of gender, that in Modern English there does not exist the agreement in gender, case and number. Changes occurred in the structure of the English language in the course of historical development made it inclined to be analytical, at the result of which English word order in the sentence has become fixed.

Another language interference for the Uzbek English learners is that the predicate in the Uzbek language is in the center of the sentence and it gathers the other parts of the sentence round it. The sentence can exist without the subject, but it can not exist without a predicate: Hayron qolasan kishi. Aqllisan. In these sentences we find the expression of person and number in the predicate by the addition of the marker **-san**

to the root (or the stem) of the nominal predicate. Though the subject is not expressed explicitly we can find it by putting a question: Hayron qolasan kishi. – Kim? – Sen; Aqllisan. – Kim? – Sen. But in the structure of the English language the existence of the subject in the sentence is compulsory. There are two kinds of subjects: real subject and formal subject. Subject is always explicitly expressed in English:

In Uzbek	In Russian	In English
Kech. Qorong'i.	Поздно. Темно.	It is late. It is dark
Yoz. Qish.	Лето. Зима.	It is summer. It is winter.

In these sentences in the function of the formal subject the pronoun "it" is used. We can name it as an impersonal it which is used to express natural phenomena, such as the state of the weather, time and distance, as we have seen it in the examples given above.

Sometimes the formal subject "It" is used in impersonal English sentences such as: It is no use disguising facts. – Haqiqatni qalbakilashtirish foydasiz. Qadimiy va navqiron Buxoroda ko'pgina tarixiy obidalar, madrasalar, masjidlar va qutlug' joylarni ko'rish mumkin. – One can see many historical monuments, madrasahs, mosques and sacred places in ancient and eternally young Bukhara. In English the Uzbek impersonal sentences are expressed by the pronouns **one** and **it** in the function of the formal subject.

The category of person and number in the verbs of the Uzbek language is also one of the language interference for the Uzbek English -learners. In Uzbek we can say Keldim – (I) came; Kelding – (You) came; Keldi – (He) came, where the presence of the personal pronouns in the function of the subject is compulsory in English, while in Uzbek this function is expressed by the markers of the category of person and number in verbs, in English the latter exists only in the third person singular of verbs in Present Simple, Present Continous, Present Perfect, in all other persons and numbers we do not find this phenomenon:

I write[x]	We write[x]
You write[x]	You write[x]
He\she write**s**	They write[x]

I am writing-He is writing, We /you/they have written-He has written

The usage of the reflexive pronouns after the verbs in Uzbek is sometimes another language interference; the learners may destroy the meaning of the sentence in English by using them: Men o‘zimni yaxshi his etaman. – I feel myself well, where the usage of the reflexive pronoun **myself** after the verb in English changes the essential meaning of the sentence. This sentence will mean I feel my pulse well instead of **I feel well**

The sequence of tenses in English is another topical issue for the Uzbek English learners; in the Uzbek language this phenomenon greatly differs from the English language: in English the sequence of tenses is a certain dependence of the tense of the verb in a subordinate clause, on that of the verb in the principal clause, as it was said above. So, if the verb in the principal clause is in one of the past tenses, a past tense form (or one of the future in the past) must be used in a subordinate clause. This rule is generally observed in object clauses:

1. He said: I live in Tashkent. – He said that he lived in Tashkent. → U aytdi: Men Toshkentda yashayman. – U Toshkentda yashashini aytdi; 2. He said: I shall go to the village tomorrow. – He said he would go to the village the next day. → U aytdi: Men ertaga qishloqqa boraman. – U ertaga (keyingi kun) qishloqqa borishini aytdi.

Analysis of the given above sentences in the English and Uzbek languages shows that in the Uzbek language while converting the direct speech into the indirect one the complex sentence which consists of the principal and subordinate clauses (the latter is the object clause) changes into the simple sentence (examples 1 – 2).

Given above examples show that in the Uzbek indirect speech the predicate of the direct speech changes into the participle in the accusative case or into the object expressed by the verbal ("harakat nomi" – in English "infinitive") in the accusative case); 1) O‘qituvchi talabalarga aytdi: Men yangi mavzuni tushuntiraman. → O‘qituvchi talabalarga yangi mavzuni tushuntirishini aytdi (the verb tushuntiraman changes into "harakat nomi" in Uzbek in the accusative case); 2) Ona aytdi: Bolalar bog‘da o‘ynayapti. → Ona bolalarning bog‘da o‘ynayotganini aytdi (the verb **o’ynayapti** changes into participle in the accusative case in Uzbek); 3) Parvina so‘radi: Oyi, qanaqa yangiliklar bor? → Parvina oyisidan qanaqa yangiliklar borligini so‘radi (the verb changes into the Uzbek "harakat nomi" in the accusative case); 4) Akbar so‘radi: Komil, teatrga borasanmi? → Akbar Komildan teatrga

borish-bormasligini so'radi (the verb changes into Uzbek "harakat nomi" in the accusative case). Examples 1 – 4 show that the predicate (expressed by the verb) of the subordinate clause changes into the verbal (harakat nomi) in Uzbek which receives the affixal morpheme of the accusative case. In the structure of the Uzbek language "harakat nomi" ("infinitive" in English) and participle have the category of declension, for example: bor "go" (imperative) – borish "to go" ("harakat nomi" in Uzbek, "infinitive" in English) are declined: borish (common case), borishni (accusative case), borishga (dative case), borishdan (locative case). In English the verbals don't have category of case.

In English the agreement of the predicate with the subject should be observed in all cases and in this item of the manual we analyzed some of them which differ from the Uzbek language greatly and it should be taken into consideration by the Uzbek English- learners:

1. With the nouns expressing multitude the predicate-verb is in plural: 1) The weather is warm and the people are walking in the garden. – Havo iliq va odamlar bog'da sayr qilayapti[x]; 2) The police are looking into the event. – Politsiya voqeani o'rganayapti[x].

2. With the collective nouns such as family, band, army, team, etc. the predicate-verb in English is used either in the singular or in plural, this depends on what is uppermost in mind: the idea of oneness or plurality: 1) My family lives in Tashkent. – Oilam Toshkentda yashaydi. My family are sitting at breakfast table. – Oilam hozir nonushta dasturxoni atrofida o'tiribti[x]. 2) The band is playing a pleasant music in the garden. – Orkestr bog'da yoqimli bir musiqani chalayapti. The band are having breakfast. Orkestr nonushta qilayapti[x].

English examples analyzed above show that the agreement of the predicate with the subject is a complicated issue for the Uzbek English-learners. Paying attention to these language interferences improves smooth communication among academic communities.

The analysis of the material given in the manual embraces peculiarities concerning the problem of language interference and shows that as the Uzbek (Turkish) language belongs to the Altaic branch of Ural-Altaic family of languages and English is a West Germanic language of Indo-European family of languages, most English- learners are assumed to transfer linguistic structures in a

negative way because of different typological characteristic features between these two languages. This manual will help to minimize harmful interference of English-learners' mother tongue in their English as a foreign language.This problem is one of the primary concerns of any English teacher.

Self- control questions:

1.What can you say about native language interference concerning agreement between the subject and the predicate?

2.What native language interference is observed concerning Sequence of Tenses?

3.Speak about language interference concerning transformation of the direct speech into indirect speech.

4.Speak about language interference concerning the structure of the compound nominal predicate in the English and native languages.

5.Speak about language interference concerning one-member and two-member sentences in the English and native languages.

6.What is the specific peculiarity of the Uzbek category of person and number in verbs and what native language interference do you see in this language phenomenon?

7.What can you say about typological characteristic of the English word order in the sentence?

8.What can you say about typological characteristic of the Uzbek word order in the sentence ?

9.What can you say about typological characteristic of the Russian word order in the sentence?

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PART 2. SEMINARS ON COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY OF THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

1. THE VERB AND ITS GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES IN THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

Plan:

1. The verb. Characteristics of the verb according to the suggested criteria
2. Classification of the verb according to the structure and semantic peculiarities in the English and native languages
3. Grammatical categories of the verb in the English and native languages

Basic concepts of the subject

Conversion, back –formation, composition, compound verbs, regular verbs, irregular verbs, notional verbs, functional verbs, weakened lexical meaning, the category of voice, the category of mood, reflexive voice, middle voice, active voice, passive voice, disputable problem, transitive verbs, intransitive verbs

At the previous items of the manual we noted that grammatical categories are divided into primary and secondary. Primary grammatical categories consist of parts of speech. Secondary grammatical categories are those which exist in each part of speech. As every grammatical category is the expression of some general idea, the verb, as a primary grammatical category, expresses some action, state or the description of an action or state: walk, work, live, love, like, wish, want intend, try.

The term verb comes from Latin: "Verbium" which means "a word". The verb is the most complex part of speech and it is the heart of the sentence. Recognizing the verb is the most important step in understanding the meaning of the sentence.

1.1. **According to combinability in English** verbs can be combined with nouns, pronouns, prepositions, adverbs:

Dilbar	speaks	English
↓	↓	↓
noun	verb	noun

Dilbar	speaks	fast
↓	↓	↓
noun	verb	adverb

She	goes	to school
↓	↓	↓
pronoun	verb	preposition

1.2. According to combinability verbs in the Uzbek language can be combined with nouns, pronouns and adverbs on the right hand and the verb is always used at the end of the sentence:

Dilbar   kitob(noun) o'qidi(verb)

Dilbar   tez (adverb)   o'qidi(verb)

Dilbar   uni (pronoun)   ko'rdi (verb)

1.3. **English verbs can be combined with modal verbs**, modal expressions and auxiliary verbs. These verbs are used to express the attitude of the speaker towards his (her) action, state and the reality. These verbs are: can, could, may, might, should, must, have to, be to, ought to, need, shall, should, will, would, have, had, be, etc.: I can help you today ; You must come to the lessons in time ; You should help your mother at home ; You may come to me any time you like ; I have to look after my mother today , she has fallen ill ; I was to visit my granny yesterday, she asked me to, but I was too busy and couldn't keep my promise; You ought to help your grandparents. In the structure of

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the Uzbek language modal verbs don't exist. The function of the English modal verbs are performed by modal words: Siz darslarga vaqtida kelishingiz kerak ; Siz uyda oyingizga yordam berishingiz lozim ; Siz menikiga xohlagan paytingizda kelishingiz mumkin.

2. **According to word-formation** the verbs can be formed by:
a) affixal morphemes: realize, blacken, signify; ish-ishla, qaychi-qaychila;
b) by prefixes which are productive in English : misunderstand, mispronounce, undertake, rewrite, outcome; verb-formation by prefixation is not peculiar to the Uzbek language . Prefixation is not a typological characteristic of the Uzbek language. Existed words with prefixation in Uzbek are those which are borrowed from Arabic and Iranian   languages;
c) by sound interchange: blood- bleed, food-feed; siz-sez(you-feel);
d) by the change of the place of the stress in the word : 'export- to ex'port, 'import- to im'port, 'transport- to trans'port; olm'a-'olma(an apple-don't   take);
e) by lexico – grammatical means: take- take off, see- see off, look-look for, put- put on, put- put off ; sot(sell)-sotib ol(buy); olib kel(bring)- olib ket(take);
f)   by   composition: whitewash,   daydream,   browbeat;
g) by conversion: smoke- to smoke, love- to love, hope- to hope;
h) by the combination of noun+verb and verb+verb: compound verbs in Uzbek are formed by this pattern: bayon qilmoq, hurmat qilmoq, kashf etmoq, olib kelmoq, sotib olmoq

3. **According to the structure** verbs are divided into:
simple verbs : read, walk, write; yozmoq, aytmoq, chizmoq;
derived verbs: rewrite, undo, overcome; moylamoq, ajablanmoq, ahdlashmoq, chirsillamoq(from imitative words), kechikmoq(from adverbs), kengaymoq(from adjectives), sensiramoq(from pronouns);
compound verbs: broadcast , sayr qilmoq, hurmat qilmoq, kashf etmoq;
composite verbs:give- give up, look-look for, see-see off, sotmoq(to sell)- sotib olmoq(to buy)

4.1 According to the semantic classification English verbs are divided into the following groups:

Notional	Seminotional	Impersonal
to see, to write	can, may	to rain
to go, to open	must, shall	to snow
to read	will, ought to	
to paint	need, should	
to love, to hope	could, would	
	might, be, have	

1) Notional verbs have their full meaning.They can form the predicate without the help of the auxiliary or semi-notional verbs: She speaks   English   well.   My   sister   lives   in   London. 2) Semi notional verbs are functional verbs which with the help of the notional verbs form the predicate of the sentence, expressing the attitude of the speaker towards his(her) action, state or to the reality. They are modal verbs, auxiliary verbs, link verbs. 2.1. Modal verbs express the attitude of the speaker towards his/her action or state : She may come tonight ; You must keep your promise (these modal verbs form compound verbal modal predicate) ; 2.2. Modal verbs should, would, may, might, could are used for the formation of the subjunctive mood expressing the attitude of the speaker towards the reality : I crouched against the wall of the gallery so that I should not be seen.(Du Maurier) ; If any of your family should come to my house, I should be delighted to welcome them.(Trollope) ; I could have done very well if I had been without the Murdstones.(Dickens) ; Of course, I shall come for your marriage, whenever that may be fixed.(Trollope) ; However tired he might (may) be he will go to the concert. 2.3. There are verbs which have lost their lexical meaning at all or preserved them at some extent , in these cases they are used in the function of link verbs in combination with the nominal part (predicative) and form the compound nominal predicate : be , seem, look, grow , etc. : She looks young ; He seems old ; He grew pale when he heard this sad news ; She   is   a   student 3) Impersonal verbs don't have determinate subject. In the example "It

rains", **rain** is an impersonal verb and the pronoun "it" does not refer to anything. Impersonal verbs are used to express operation of nature, mental activity and acts with no reference to the doer: It snows ; It lightenes.

4.2.**According to the semantic classification verbs in the Uzbek language** are divided into two groups : notional and auxiliary. **1)Notional verbs** express a) an action: Maktabni a'lo baholar bilan bitirdi ; b)governs some word: sayohatga chiqdi; c)receives the object : xatni yozdi, kitobni o'qidi; d) doesn't receive the object: bola yugurdi, Dilbar kuldi ; e) verbs being able to have the grammatical categories concerning the verb and functional forms(participle<sifatdosh, infinitive<harakat nomi, adverbial- participle<ravishdosh): keldim: affirmative form, indicative mood, past tense, first person, singular (the verb **kel** with the affix –**dim** expresses numerated above grammatical categories), kelgan (participle), kelgach (adverbial-participle), kelish (infinitive<harakat nomi). **2) Auxiliary verbs** don't express action , they don't have the concrete lexical meaning, they are used to add some additional meaning to the notional verb or for some other purposes: a) for the formation of the new words: xursand bo'lmoq, xabar qilmoq; b)notional verbs being combined with the auxiliary verbs acquire some additional meaning: Dilbar kitobni o'qib chiqdi, Bola uxlab qoldi ; c) incomplete (auxiliary) verbs **edi, ekan, emish** are combined with verbs or other parts of speech expressing various meanings: kelgan edi(tense), shifokor emish(distrust), yaxshi ekan(conclusion).

5. **According to the formation of the Past Indefinite and the Past Participle** verbs are divided into three groups:

Regular	Irregular	Mixed
to show	showed	shown

6.1. **According to the capability of taking objects English and Uzbek verbs** may be transitive (which take direct object) and intransitive (which don't take direct object).

Transitive verb	Intransitive verb
Oleg wrote a letter	Oleg went to school
Dilbar read a book	Dilbar slept in the open air

There are verbs which are used both as transitive and intransitive in different contexts : The woman opened the door at once almost breathlessly. (Hardy); While she stood hesitating, the door opened, and old man came forth shading a candle with one hand.(Hardy)

6.2. In the Uzbek language any intransitive verb can be used as transitive by receiving one of the affixal morphemes **–dir, -tir, -ir, -r, -kaz, -gaz, -qaz, -kiz,-qiz qiz, -sat, -t** : kirdi- kirgizdi, o'tdi- o'tkazdi, yurdi-yurgizdi, ketdi-ketgizdi; in these cases the intransitive verbs receive direct object (becoming transitive) and one of the additional modal meanings of obligation, permission, request , persuasion, causation is added to the verb : Ona bog'da sayr qildi- Ona bolasini bog'da sayr qil**dir**di ; Ota bog'da ishladi- Ota o'g'lini bog'da ishla**t**di ; Ona hovlida ochiq havoda uxladi- Ona bolasini bog'da ochiq havoda uxla**t**di. These cases of using intransitive verbs in the function of transitivity is also observed in Modern English: Mother walked in the garden- Mother **walked her child** in the garden ; Father worked in the garden- Father **worked his son** in the garden; Mother slept in the open air in the yard- Mother **slept her child** in the open air in the yard. Transitivity is formed on the morphological level of the Uzbek language by agglutinative addition of the affixal morpheme to the root morpheme of the intransitive verb or to the stem of the intransitive verb , in English this phenomenon occurs on the syntactical level of the language by using the direct object after the intransitive verb (by changing the order of words in the sentence). In this case the English intransitive verbs also become transitive receiving one of the modal meanings of obligation, permission, request, persuasion and causation; in the Uzbek language the verb preserves its lexical meaning and one of the mentioned above modal meanings is added to the existed lexical meaning.

Sometimes intransitive verbs are used as transitive for stylistic purposes in order to make the fact more emotional : The man died of cancer- The man died the death of a hero

8. **According to formal properties** there are the following basic forms of verbs in English:

Infinitive	Present	Past	Participle 1	Participle 2
To go	Go	went	Going	Gone
To write	Write	Wrote	Writing	Written
To work	work	worked	working	Worked

According to formal properties there are the following basic forms of verbs in the Uzbek language:1. categorical forms; 2. functional(non-categorial) forms.1. verbs of categorical forms are those which express the categories of tense, voice, person, number, mood : ishlayapman, ishlayapsan, ishlayapti, ishlay,ishlayin, ishla, ishlasang, ishlasam, ishlasa, yozdi, yozildi, yozishdi; 2. Verbs of functional (non-categorial) forms are those having none of the verbs' grammatical categories and being used for the expression of various meanings or which are used to perform the functions of the participle (sifatdosh-kelgan, o'qigan), adverbial participle (ravishdosh- kelgach, o'qigach) and infinitive (harakat nomi-kelish, o'qish).

8. The category of voice in the verbs of the English and native languages

Linguists H. Sweet, G. Gurme and some others consider two forms of the voice in English verbs: active voice/passive voice. Voice is a two members opposition where passive voice is opposed to the active voice. Active voice is formed by zero morpheme. Passive voice is formed analytically , that is by the combination of the auxiliary verb "be" in the required tense form , person and number with the notional verb in the form of past participle (P.2)

In English:

Active voice:	Passive voice:
Oleg writes a letter	The letter is written by Oleg
Oleg wrote a letter	The letter was written by Oleg

The active voice shows that the subject is the doer of the action , passive voice shows that the grammatical subject of the sentence is

acted upon by the object which is sometimes is given and sometimes is not given in the sentence.

Some linguists as Ilyish B.A. and Kaushanskaya V.L. consider that there are some more forms of the voice in Modern English:

Reflexive voice	Reciprocal voice	Middle voice
He shaved	They greeted (each other)	The door opened
He dressed	They met(with one another)	The paper burned

Analyzing the sentences given above we see that the verbs **shave** and **dress** have the lexical meaning of reflexiveness, not having the form expressing this meaning (in Russian Он побрился; Он оделся;). Verbs **greet** and **meet** in the given above sentences have the meaning of reciprocal voice, not having the form of expressing this meaning (in Russian они встретили**сь**, они поздоровали**сь**). The meanings of the reflexive voice and the reciprocal voice in the given above examples are expressed lexically . According to the linguistic interpretation given in the item " Methods and ways of investigating foreign and native languages" , in order to be the grammatical category of voice in the verb the form of the Active Voice with a zero morpheme should be opposed to all other forms of the voice of the same verb. In English we can see this opposition only between the Active and Passive Voice forms. In the verbs **shave** and **dress** the meaning of reflexiveness is expressed in their lexical meaning; in the verbs **meet** and **greet** the meaning of the reciprocal voice is also expressed in their lexical meaning. In the Russian language the meanings of the reflexive and reciprocal voice forms are expressed on the morphological level of the language by the addition of the affixal morphemes **-ся, -сь** ; these voice forms are opposed to the active voice form which make up the category of voice in the verbs of the Russian language.

In the Uzbek language the form of the active voice with the zero morpheme is opposed to the forms of the reflexive voice, reciprocal voice and the passive voice: yuvdiO (active v. He washed smth.)- yuvindi (reflexive v. He washed(himself)-yuvisddi (reciprocal v. They washed(smth.)- yuvildi (passive v.: **smth. was washed**); these forms of

the verb make up the category of voice in the verbs of the Uzbek language.

According to the given theoretical interpretation "the causative voice" given in the grammars of the Uzbek language is not included in the system of the category of voice in the verbs , because by the addition of the affixal morphemes of causation the attitude of the speaker towards his/her action or state is expressed ; the speaker's attitude towards his/her action or state may express obligation / permission/persuasion/request/causation. B.A. Serebrennikov's opinion deserves to be mentioned in this case. He marks that in Turkic languages the verbs having the affixal morphermes of causation at present do not correlate with the forms of the voice and it is possible that these affixal morphemes have acquired a new and special function. [11, p.68]

Analysis of the given above examples shows that the definite grammatical meaning expressed by zero morpheme in the structure of the Uzbek language is depended on the position of its usage, that is what form of the word of the same class it is opposed to: 1. writeO(present simple)-wrote(past simple); 2. (we) writeO(active v.)- (the letter) was written(passive v.): the first writeO(with the zero morpheme) expresses the category of tense, the second writeO(with the zero morpheme) expresses the category of voice.

Verbs **open** and **burn** in the given above sentences (the door opened and the paper burned) express the action being performed in the subject itself not being able to enter the binary opposition with the form of the active voice (here we see the existence of the meaning of the middle voice, not having the form of expressing this meaning (in Russian: Дверь открылась, Бумага сгорела , in Uzbek: Eshik och**i**ldi, Qog'oz yondi). In these English examples the meaning of the middle voice is expressed lexically, that we can't concider it to be used in the middle voice form of the English verb.

In Russian:
Я одеваю ребенка(active voice)   Дом строит**ся**
(passive voice)

Я одеваю**сь** кусают**ся**	Мы встречаем**ся**	Комары
↓	↓	↓
reflexive voice forming affix	reciprocal voice	**-ся** is the word- expressing the quality of the object

In Uzbek:

Men xat yozaman (active voice)   Xat yoz**il**di (passive voice)

Men kiy**in**aman (reflexive voice)   Biz ko'r**ish**dik (reciprocal voice)

Bu mato yaxshi yuv**il**adi (-**il** is the word forming affix expressing the quality of the object)

The affixal morpheme –**ся** in Russian , **-il** in Uzbek express the quality of the object in the given above examples; this peculiarity is seen in the following English sentence : This book sells well.

The analyses of the given above examples show that in the Russian and Uzbek languages there exist active, passive, reflexive, reciprocal and middle forms of voice. We can see the interconnection of the grammatical form with the grammatical meaning which is the main criteria of the grammatical category. As to the form, it has already been said that the passive voice is marked by "be + P2" which is opposed to the active voice expressed by the zero morpheme having the meaning of the active voice, where the doer of the action is the subject of the sentence. In the passive voice the subject is acted upon. This solution of the voice problem in Modern English is convincing.

9.**As for the category of tense** in the verbs of the English and native languages it is desirable to note that tense forms are expressed synthetically, analytically, synthetical-analytically. Tense forms expressed on the morphological level of the English and Uzbek languages are performed by agglutinated affixation:

Formation	English	Uzbek
R+af	I work / He work**s**	Men ishla**y**man /Men ishla**dim**
	I work / He work**ed**	Men yoz**a**man / Men yoz**dim**

This kind of agglutinated affixation can be considered as agglutinated-analytical ((Polivanov Ye.D.,1934, p.82), because at the result of the separation of the affixal morpheme from the root morpheme or the stem of the verb neither the basic nor the formal part changes its sound structure and the basic part can exist in the language as an independent word, that is the latter does not loose its independence after the separation of the affixal morpheme.

 In the structure of the English language tense forms can be expressed on the phono-morphological level of the language, this peculiarity has been preserved from the inflected Ancient English language which does not exist in the Uzbek language; this typological peculiarity is productive in the Russian language:

Fomation	English	Russian
i:<e+af	creep-crept, deal-dealt, keep-kept	сид**и**шь-си**ж**у,
	mean-meant, sweep-swept	пи**с**ать-пи**ш**у

Examples in the English and Russian languages show that at the result of adding tense forming affixal morphemes in the compared languages' verbs change of phonemes occurs inside the root. The separation of the added affixal morphemes from the roots of verbs makes the latter loose their independence.

In the English language tense formation may occur on the phonological level of the language by interchange of phonemes inside the root of the verb which has also been preserved from the Old English:

write<wrote:ai<ou	rise<rose:ai<ou
begin<began:i<e	build<built:d<t
bend<bent: d<t	send<sent:d<t
fall<fell: o<e	wake<woke:ei<ou

This typological peculiarity of tense formation does not exist in the Russian and Uzbek languages, by this way only the new words can be formed:

siz-sez (you- you feel)   bir-ber(one-give)
kuz-ko'z(autumn- eye)   sen-son(you-numeral)

Tense formation in English can be expressed pure analytically , that is by the combination of the notional verb with the auxiliary verb , where neither the notional nor the function verb changes its sound structure:

I go< I shall go   We go< we shall go
You go< you will go   They go< they will go

The rest of tense forms are expressed by the combination of one or more function verbs with the notional verb where the notional and function verbs are subjected to the complete or partly phonemic changes. Analysis of the factual English material shows that the lexical meanings of the auxiliary verbs **be, have**, **shall, will, should, would** in combination with the notional verbs become so abstract and they are so alloyed in the notional verb they are combined with , that we can consider them to be the analytical forms expressing tense forms (and in the formation of the passive voice as we have seen it above). In combination with the notional verbs these auxiliary verbs change their phonemic structure expressing person, number and tense of the verb they are combined with. Notional verbs also change their phonemic structure in combination with these auxiliary verbs. This peculiarity is the typological characteristic of the synthetical-inflected languages:

 I have spoken< I had spoken   He has spoken< He had spoken
 I am speaking<I was speaking   He will have spoken<He would
have spoken

Differing from link verbs which are used for the formation of the compound nominal predicate (I am a teacher, the wall is white: auxiliary verb **to be** is used in the function of the link verb) auxiliary verbs used in the function of the analytical forms are equal to the

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synthetic forms expressing grammatical meanings. Link verbs being combined wih the nominal part of the compound nominal predicate (predicative) perform syntactic function, auxiliary verbs used in the function of the analytical forms being combined with the notional verbs express the categories of tense , voice and mood of the verb. In the structure of the Uzbek language also analytical formation of tense forms are observed: Bu yozuvchi asarlarini yoshligimda o'qir edim; Siz kelganingizda bu asarni o'qimoqda edim (Past Continuous- o'tgan zamon davom formasi); Bu asarni yoshligimda o'qigan edim (Past Perfect- uzoq o'tgan zamon formasi). Analysis of the analytical expression of tense forms in the English and Uzbek languages shows that in the Uzbek language by the combination of the auxiliary verb **edi/edim** with the notional verb the latter does not change its sound structure receiving affixal morphemes expressing person, number etc. by agglutination. In Russian also the analytical formation of tense forms is observed: Я эту книгу буду читать завтра: Future Tense in the imperfective aspect .The given example in Russian shows that the auxiliary verb **быть** changes its sound structure at the result of its combination with the notional verb:**быть- буду** which is the typological characteristic of inflected languages.

Analysis of the English tense formation shows that inspite of the productivity of the analytical tense formation the inflected character of the English language is being preserved; it is observed in the change of auxiliary and notional verbs' sound structure at the result of their combination: He **has written** the letter : in this example we see the change of the sound structure of both the auxiliary and the notional verbs while expressing the categories of tense, person and number. It is the typological characteristic of the inflected English language which is inclined to be analytical.

In the Uzbek language the analytical expression of tense forms are completely perfect which is equal to the agglutinated affixation that is the long-standing typological peculiarity of the Turkic Uzbek language.

10.**Mood is the grammatical category of** specific methodological aspects and effective ways to apply them in oral and written forms where **the verb** indicates the attitude of the speaker towards the action expressed by the verb from the point of view of its reality. Modality expressed by the category of mood and the analysis of the theory of

modal relations in linguistics are analysed by the linguists Vinogradov V.V, Serebrennikov B.A, Yartseva V.N, Barkhudarov L.S. Grammatical mood differs from grammatical tense and grammatical aspect, although the same word patterns are used for expressing more than one of these meanings at the same time in many languages, including Engish, most other modern Indo-European languages and Turkic languages as well. English and Uzbek languages have indicative , imperative and subjunctive moods.

The definite form of the mood is used to represent an action as real, problematic, unreal, or as a request or order. In linguistics the following terms are used concerning the grammatical category of mood in the verb: indicative, interrogative, imperative, subjunctive, injunctive, optative and potential. These are considered to be expressed in the finite forms of the verb. Infinitives, gerunds and participles which are non-finite forms of the verb don't have the category of mood, they have the grammatical categories of tense and voice. Terminology mentioned above vary from language to language, for example "the conditional mood" in one language may largely overlap with that of "the hypothetical" or "potential mood" in another .

The grammatical category of mood is closely connected with the categories of tense, person and number of the verb. The speaker's or the writer's mental attitude towards his/her action or to the reality plays a great role in expressing one or the other form of the mood: Indicative, Imperative or Subjunctive. The category of mood in English is expressed both analytically and synthetically. Auxiliary verbs **should, would, may**, **might** are used in combination with the notional verbs in the required form of tense, number and person to form the analytical form of the mood; these are mood auxiliaries which are devoid of their lexical meaning in this function and equal to flexions expressing grammatical meaning.

Yespersen Otto (1935), Gurme G.O.(1931) classify three forms of mood: Indicative, Imperative and Subjunctive; Sweet H. A.(1892), classifies five forms of mood: Indicative, Subjunctive, Conditional, Permissive and Compulsive. Smirnitsky A.I. classifies six forms of mood: **1**.Indicative (The sun **rises** in the East, She **wil**l **translate** this book), **2**. Imperative (**Read** the letter; **Be** silent) , **3**. Subjunctive**1**(I suggest that **he go** there; If **it be** so). (A.I.Smirnitsky says that in

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Subjunctive**1** there is no meaning of impossibility). **4**. Subjunctive**2** (If I **had** time I **would have come).** A.I.Smirnitsky says that in Subjunctive**2** negative meaning is expressed ; in the example above given by A.I. Smirnitsky: the speaker didn't have time to perform the action) , **5**. Potential (**Should** you **meet** him, tell him to come : in this form of the mood he   considers improbable supposition),   **6**. Conditional (What **would** you **answer** if you **were asked** : A.I. Smirnitsky differs conditional mood from Subjunctive**2** saying that in conditional mood unreality is depended on non-real conditions, while in Subjunctive**2** unreality is supposed from the starting –point , it is not depended on anything).

In this manual we consider it to be desirable to suggest three forms of mood as the majority of grammarians do: Indicative, Imperative, Subjunctive. Conditional, Potential , Subjunctive**1** and **2** are included in the Subjunctive Mood expressing non-real action depended on the existed conditions: non-real action not depended on existed conditions and the Subjunctive Mood expressing an emotional attitude of the speaker to real facts: It is strange I **should never have heard** him even mention your name.(Austin)

1.The Indicative Mood expresses the action or state presented as a fact: We went home early in the evening (Dickens).- Biz barvaqt uyga ketdik. It also expresses a real condition , the realization of which is considered possible: If Catherine disobeys us, we shall disinherit her (Eliot).- Agar Katerina bizga bo'ysinmasa, uni merosdan mahrum qilamiz. Indicative mood in English is formed both synthetically and analytically(Present simple and Past simple in the indicative mood are expressed synthetically, all other tense forms in the indicative mood are expressed synthetical-analytically, Future simple is expressed analytically, where by the combination of the auxiliary and notional verbs neither of them changes its sound structure). In the Uzbek language indicative mood is mostly   expressed by agglutinated affixation: o'qiyman, gapirasan: 1.1. Hozirgi zamon(Present simple)- by affixal morphemes **–y, -a** ;1.2.Hozirgi-kelasi zamon(Prezent-future) - by affixal morphemes **-y, -a**: Kutubxona har kun soat to'qqizda ochilaydi, Yer o'z o'qi atrofida aylanadi; 1.3.Hozirgi zamon davom fe'li (Present Continuous Tense) - by affixal morphemes -**moqda, -ayotir, -yap**: Men hozir qiziq bir roman o'qiyapman, Men bog'da ishlamoqdaman, Ukam xat yozayotir; 2.1. O'tgan zamon(Past tense) -

there are several forms of the Uzbek Past tense:1.Aniq o'tgan zamon(Definite past tense): yozdim, yozding, yozdi – by the affixal morpheme **–di**; 2.2.Yaqin o'tgan zamon (Present perfect tense) : o'qiganman , o'qigansan, o'qigan – by the affixal morpheme forming Participle **-gan** ; 2.3. O'tgan zamon eshitilganlik formasi (Past tense expressing the action heard about) : o'qibman, o'qibsan, o'qibdi – by the agglutinated affixation **–b** ; 2.4.O'tgan zamon davom formasi (Past Continuous): o'qir edim, o'qir eding, o'qir edi- by affixal morpheme **–r** added to the root morpheme in combination with the auxiliary verb **edi** (**edi**- from **emoq**), this tense form is expressed by the agglutinated affixation followed by the analytical form; 2.5.Uzoq o'tgan zamon (Past action performed long ago) : o'qigan edim, o'qigan eding, o'qigan edi - by agglutinated affixation forming Participle in combination with the auxiliary verb –**edi**, this tense form is expressed by agglutinated affixation followed by analytical form; 3.1 Kelasi zamon (Future tense) - by affixal morphemes –**ajak, -yajak**: borajakmiz , borajaksiz; Usually this tense form is expressed by affixal morphemes **–y, -a** : Men ertaga buvimnikiga boraman, Men ertaga bog'da ishlayman; there is another form of futuarity which is called : 3.2. Kelasi zamon gumon fe'li (Future tense expressing uncertainty) - by affixal morphemes **–r , -ar** forming Participle: yozarman, yozarsan, yozar. Analysis of the Uzbek tense forms shows that affixal morphemes expressing the category of person of verbs are added to the formulated tense forms.

 2.The Imperative Mood expresses a command or a request. It is expressed both synthetically and analytically: Be quiet and hear what I tell you. (Eliot) –synthetically; Auxiliary verb **do** is used to make the order or request more emphatic: But now, do sing again for us (Eliot) -analytically. The subject expressed by the pronoun **you** is sometimes used in colloquial speech to make order or request emotional: I'll drive and you sleep awile. (Hemingway). A request addressed to the third person singular or plural is usually expressed by the combination of the auxiliary verb **let** with the notional verb: Let the child go home at once – analytically.

 In the Uzbek language the Imperative Mood (Buyruq mayli) is expressed by the verb without the affixal morphemes of tense, mood, person and number: Yoz- write, kel- come, o'qi-read – synthetically; One of the affixal morphemes **-qin**, -**kin, -gin** is added to the root of the verb by agglutination ; in this case request or advise is expressed:

olgin, yozgin, chiqqin, borgin. One of the affixal morphemes –**ngiz, -ingiz, -iz(lar), -ng(lar), -ing** is added to the root of the verb to express respect: bering, keling, ishlangiz, ishlanglar. In the Uzbek language a request is expressed by the agglutinated affixal morphemes **–y, -ay, -ayin, -yin, -sin(lar):** o'qiy, ishlay, boray, yozayin, kelsinlar, aytsinlar. If affixal morpheme **-sin** is added to the verb in the passive voice strict order is expressed: Bu narsalar ertaga yuborilsin.

3.The Subjunctive Mood shows that the action or state expressed by the verb is presented as a non-fact, as something imaginary or desired. The Subjunctive Mood is also used to express an emotional attitude of the speaker to real facts. The Subjunctive Mood in Modern English is formed both synthetically and analytically.

Synthetic forms of the Subjunctive Mood. In the course of historical development English language has lost most of the synthetic expression of the Subjunctjve Mood, so there exist the following synthetic expression of the Subjunctive Mood : Though all the world be false , still will I be true (Trollope). This use of the synthetic Subjunctive Mood may be found in poetry, in elevated prose for stylistic purposes. It is usually called the Present Subjuncive.

The Past Subjunctive is also expressed synthetically : I wished he **were** less remote (Da Maurier). In simple sentences the synthetic Subjunctive Mood is more productive than the analytical Subjunctive Mood : Success attend you!-- Yutuqlar hamrohingiz bo'lsin! (wish is expressed). To express wish the analytical Subjunctive with the mood auxiliary **may** is also used: May success attend you! (wish is expressed). If only he **were** free!(Galsworthy): an unreal wish is expressed- Qani endi u ozod bo'lsa!(ozod emas). The Subjunctive Mood in simple sentences is characteristic of literary style. An unreal action referring to the present or future also is used in the synthetic Subjuncive : "I wish I were ten years older", I said. (Braine)- Koshki yoshim o'n yilga kattaroq bo'lsa, men aytdim. An unreal condition referring to the present or future in conditional clauses are also used in the synthetic Subjunctive: If I **were** you I would tell the truth - Sizning o'rningizda bo'lganimda, haqiqatni aytardim(In this example both in the principle and subordinate clauses the acion is simultaneous); an unreal condition referring to the past is used in the analytical Subjunctive formed by the auxiliary verb **had** combined with the participle 2 (by the Past Perfect Tense form): If you **had**

taken your medicine yesterday, you would be well now- Kecha doringizni ichganingizda, bugun o'zingizni yaxshi his etardingiz (In this example the action of the principle clause refers to the present, the action of the subordinate clause refers to the past; it is a mixed type of the conditional clause); If he were not so absent-minded, he would not have mistaken you for your sister (In this example in the conditional clause the action refers to no particular time, in the principle clause the action refers to the past; it is a second type of a mixed conditional clause) - U shunchalik parishonxotir bo'lmaganda, sizni opangiz bilan adashtirmagan bo'lardi; In the sentence "He (Mr. Barkis) set looking at the horse's ears as if he **saw** something new there" (Dickens) the actions of the principle and subordinate clauses are simultaneous - Janob Barkis biror yangilik ko'rgandek otining qulog'iga tikilib turardi. In this case, that is in the adverbial clause of comparison, as we have seen, the synthetic Subjuncive is used (as if he saw) . In the sentence "I felt as if the visit had diminished the separation between Ada and me" (Dickens) the action of the subordinate clause is prior to the action of the principle clause. In this case the analytical Subjunctive (Past Perfect Tense form) is used - Menga bu tashrif men bilan Adani yaqinlashtirgandek tuyuldi.

The analytical Subjuncive Mood is formed by the combination of the mood auxiliaries should, would, may/might (shall is seldom used) with the notional verb; mood auxiliaries have developed from modal verbs which in the course of historical development have lost their modal meaning and perform the function of the analytical forms of the analytical Subjunctive. But there are cases when the mood auxiliary retain some shade of modality, for ex., Lizzie stood upon the causeway that her father might see her. (Dickens) -Lizi otam meni ko'rsin deb, yo'lakda turardi (Lizzie stood there where her father could/might see her). In this example the simultaneous action is expressed both in the Principle and subordinate clauses.

The analytical Subjunctive is productively used in complex sentences (the usage of the Subjunctive Mood in the conditional clauses is given above while demonstrating the usage of the synthetic Subjunctive): 1.1. In adverbial clauses of purpose with the mood auxiliary may/ might, when a clause of purpose is introduced by the conjunctions **that, so that, in order that** : He got up cautiously so that

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he might not wake the sleeping boy.(Cronin) - Uxlayotgan bolani uyg'otmaslik maqsadida u ehtiyotkorlik bilan o'rnidan turdi ;1.2. Occasionally the mood auxiliary **should** is used for making the utterance more emotional: I made shorthand notes of all that she said, however, so that there should be no possibility of a mistake.(Conon Doyle) -Xato tushib qolmasin deb , uning barcha aytganlarini stenografiyada yozib oldim; 1.3. If a clause of purpose is introduced by **lest** the mood auxiliary **should** is used for all persons: She … looked steadily at her coffee lest she also should begin to cry, as Anna was doing already.(Eliot) - Anyadek yig'lab yubormaslik maqsadida , u qahvasiga tikilib turdi; 2. In adverbial clauses of concession with the mood auxiliary may/might , when a clause of concession is introduced by the conjunctions and connectives **though, although, however, no matter, whatever, whoever,** etc.: I must return to the city, no matter what dangers may lurk there.(Dreiser)- Shaharda qanday xavf-xatar kutilishi mumkinligidan qat'iy nazar, u yerga qaytishim kerak; 3. In adverbial clauses of time and place with the mood auxiliary may/might after conjunctions **whenever** and **wherever** additional concessive meaning is expressed: Of course, I shall come for your marriage, whenever that may be fixed. (Trollope) Nikoh marosimingiz qachon bo'lmasin , men, albatta, kelaman; 4.1. In adverbial clauses of comparison (or manner) the synthetic Subjunctive is used if the action of the principle clause is simultaneous with the action of the subordinate clause: She greeted him as if he were her brother.(Galsworthy) - Akasi bilan salomlashgandek u bilan salomlashdi; 4.2. The analytical Subjunctive in the Past Perfect form is used if the action of the subordinate clause is prior to that of the principle clause : She shook hands with him as though they had known each other all their lives…(Trollope) - Bir-birovlarini bir umr bilgandek u bilan qo'l berib salomlashdi; 5.1. In predicative clauses the synthetic Subjunctive is used if the action of the subordinate clause (introduced by the conjunctions as if, as though) is simultaneous with the action of the principle clause: I feel as if we **were** back seven years, Jon.(Galsworthy) -Yetti yil orqaga qaytgandek o'zimni his etdim, Jon; 5.2. The analytical Subjunctive in the Past Perfect form is used if the action of the subordinate clause is prior to the action of the principle clause:…now I feel as if you had never been away.(Shaw) - Hech qachon ketib qolmagansizdek , o'zimni his etayapman ; 6. In subject

clauses the analytical Subjunctive with the auxiliary **should** is used; in these cases the principle clause consists of **It is necessary, It is important, It is desirable**, etc.: It was necessary that the child's history should be known to none.(Trollope) - Bolaning tarixini hech kim bilmasligi kerak edi ; 7. In object clauses both the synthetic and the analytical Subjunctive are used : 7.1. If the predicate of the principle clause consists of the verb **wish** in order to express the simultaneous action of the principle clause with the action of the subordinate clause the synthetic Subjunctive is used: She wished she **were** free and could follow them.(Ch.Bronte) - Ozod bo'lmaganligi(ga) va ular bilan boraolmaganiga afsuslandi; 7.2. If the action of the sudordinate clause is prior to the action of the principle clause the analytical Subjunctive in the Past Perfect form is used : Antie, I wish I had not done it. (Twain) - Xolajon bu ishni qilib qo'yganimga afsuslanaman; 7.3. In object clauses expressing request or annoyance with different subjects in the principle and subordinate clauses the analytical Subjunctive with the mood auxiliary **would** for all persons is used ; in these cases the action refers to the present or future: I wish you would stay with me for a while. (Voynich) -Men bilan bir oz birga qolishingizni xohlardim; 7.4. The analytical Subjunctive with the mood auxiliary should is used in object clauses if the predicate of the principle clause consiss of the verb denoting fear; in this case the subordinate clause is introduced by the conjunction **lest** : He trembled lest his secret should be discovered.- U sirim ochilib qolmasin deb q'o'rqardi; 7.5. The analytical Subjunctive with the mood auxiliary **should** is used in object clauses if we find words and word groups denoting order, suggestion, advice, desire, etc. in the principle clause: She (Agnes) proposed to my aunt that we should go upstairs and see my room.(Dickens) - Agnis xolamga yuqori qavatga chiqib xonamni ko'rishimizni taklif etdi; 7.6. In American English in these cases the synthetic Subjunctive is used : …she insisted that they open a bottle of wine and toast his success. (Stone) - Shishani ochib, uning muvaffaqiyati uchun ularning ichishlarini so'radi ; 8.1. In attributive clauses with the principle clauses consisting of **It is time, It is high time** the synthetic Subjunctive is used : It's time you learned you are in the army.(Heym) - Armiyada ekanligingizni tushunishingizning vaqti keldi; It's time we went home - Uyga ketish vaqti keldi; 8.2. In these cases sometimes the analytical

Subjunctive with the mood auxiliary **should** is used : It's time we should go home

In the previous item it was noted that the Subjunctive Mood is also used to express an emotional attitude of the speaker to real facts : 9.1. The analytical Subjunctive with the mood auxiliary **should** in combination with the notional verb is used to express simultaneous action of the principle and subordinate clauses or if the action of the subordinate clause refers to the present or future: I am sorry you should take such needless trouble!(Ch.Bronte) -Foydasiz tashvishlarni zimmangizga olishingizdan afsuslanaman! 9.2. If the action of the subordinate clause is prior to the action of the principle clause Perfect analytical Subjunctive is used: It is strange I should never have heard him even mention your name!(Austen) -Ismingizni hatto eslaganini hech qachon eshitmaganim g'ayri tabiiy hol!

Analysis of the material concerning the synthetic and the analytical Subjunctive Mood in English shows that while rendering this grammatical category into Uzbek the following affixal morphemes are added to the root or the stem of the Uzbek verb:1) **-sa, -ganda**(in conditional clauses) , **-gandek** (in adverbial clauses of comparison and in predicative clauses), **-sin** (in sentences expressing emotional attitude of the speaker towards the reality), 2) affixal morphemes added to the root or the stem of the verb followed by auxiliaries: **-gan bo'lardi** (in conditional clauses referring to the past), **-dan qat'iy nazar** (in adverbial clauses of concession), **-sin deb**, **-masin deb**, **- maslik maqsadida**, **- ish maqsadida** (in the adverbial clauses of purpose), **-masligi kerak** (in subject clauses), **-ganligiga afsuslanaman** (in the sentences expressing emotional attitude of the speaker towards the reality), **-ingizni xohlardim, -ingizni/-imizni/-larini taklif etdi** (these affixal morphemes are added to the Infinitive/harakat nomi in the object clauses), infinitive/harakat nomi combined with **– vaqti keldi**: it is time (in the attributive clauses).

The Subjunctive Mood in the Uzbek language   in the majority of cases is expressed by the addition of the affixal morpheme 1**. –sa** to the root or the stem of the verb followed by the auxiliary verb **emoq** in the form **edi**, in the principle clause affixal morpheme **–ar** is added to the stem of the predicate; in this case the non-real or supposed action is expressed: Tuzalsa edi, odamlardek yura olsa edi, boshiga ko'tarardi.(S.Ahmad), Oy chiqsa edi! Mehmonlar tezroq kelsa edi;

Non-real action is also expressed by the past participle (the verb with the affix -**gan**) with the required forms of the category of person (-**im, -ing, -imis, -ingiz**) and the locative case –**da** (sometimes followed by the auxiliary verb **edi**): Men ham doim qishloqda turganimda, mashinani o'rganib olardim.(H.N.); If non-real action refers to the past, in the subordinate clause past participle (the root or the stem of the verb with the affixal morpheme –**gan** followed by the affix of the locative case **da** –) followed by the auxiliary verb **edi** and in the principle clause , affix –**gan** added to the root or the stem of the verb followed by the auxiliary verbs **bo'lar edi**(-**k,-im, -ing, -ingiz**) are used: Agar aloqamiz ilgariroq boshlanganda edi, biz bu qora yuz sharmandalarni ilgariroq fosh qilgan bo'lar edik.(Z.Fatxullin); O'sha vaqtda oyoqlaringni mahkam tirasanglar edi, dadam Gulnorga uylanmagan bo'lardi : in this example also the non-real action refers to the past which is formed by adding affixal morpheme –**sa**(-**nglar, -ngiz**) to the root of the verb followed by the auxiliary verb **edi** , sometimes without it, in the subordinate clause , past participle with the affix (-**ma**)-**gan**, (-**mas**)-**dingiz** followed by the auxiliary verb **bo'lmoq** in the form **bo'lardi**. As it is in English, the Subjunctive Mood with the mixed tense form is used in the Uzbek language as well: Agar siz yaxshi odam bo'lsangiz , uydagi sirni ko'chaga chiqarmasdingiz.(Z.Fatxullin); 2. by adding affixal morpherme –**sa** the speaker's non-real wish/dream can be expressed: Ertaga bir to'yib uxlasam; 3. If the eddition of the affixal morpheme –(**ma**)**sa** to the root or the stem of the verb is followed by the auxiliary verb **edi** on the one hand it makes the speaker's wish more emotional and strong, on the other hand the performance of the action may be impossible :Bir kun Elobod kolxozi seni bag'rimdan uzmasa edi,…((O.); 4. If the addition of the affixal morpheme –(**ma**)**sa** to the root or the stem of the verb is followed by the auxiliary verb **ekan** the absence of possibility for the action to be realized is expressed: Chaqaloqlar katta bo'ladi…Lekin inson o'lmasa ekan.(Mirmuhsin); 5) Advice and request are expressed by adding affixal morphemes –**sa-m/ -sa-ng/-sa /-sa-k/ -sa-ngiz/-sa-lar** to the root or the stem of the verb: Onajon, shu suratni menga bersangiz.(A.Q.) -request ; Shoshmang, vistavkani shu yerda tashkil qilsak…Nima deysiz?(O.) -advice; 6)Suspicion or astonishment is expressed by adding affix -**sa** to the root or the stem of the verb with the usage of the modal word **nahotki** in the sentence: Nahotki Muqaddas ham shu yotoqxonada tursa?(O.Yo.);

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7) Supposition, inaccuracy and suspicion can be expressed by the mentioned in item 5 affixal morphemes with the usage of the modal word **kerak** in the sentence: Bu yerda sho'r imoratning ofati bo'lsa kerak.(A.Q.); 8)Insistence is expressed by the mentioned in item 5 affixal morphemes followed by **hyphen** and suffix **–chi** : Ha, Saltanat, nima bo'ldi? Saltanat, gapirsangiz-chi.(A.Q.); 9) Absence of the obstacle is expressed by adding affix **-(ma)sa** to the root or the stem of the verb followed by the conjunction **ham** (this type of the Uzbek Subjunctive Mood is alike the English Subjunctive in the adverbial clause of concession): Tilim kelishmasa ham dilim kelishadi. Sening tiling kelishsa ham, diling kelishmaydi(A.Q.); Safoyev ellikdan oshgan bo'lsa ham, bu kiyimda yoshroq ko'rinar edi.(A.Q.); Ey qo'ying, xafa qilmang ularni, bola-da. Sho'xlik qilsalar ham, juda to'ydirib sug'orayaptilar.(O.);10) Time and place with the additional meaning of comparison is expressed by adding affix **-sa** to the root or the stem of the verb (we have seen this peculiarity in using the Subjunctive Mood in the adverbial clauses of time and place and in the predicative clause): Qayerda o't ochilsa, o'sha tomonga granata yog'dirildi (N.S.)

In the Uzbek language as it is in English, the Subjunctive Mood is used to express the emotional attitude of the speaker towards the reality; in this case affixal morpheme **–sa** is added to the root or the stem of the verb: Ichini ko'rsang, voy, biram gilamlar bilan yasatib qo'yilganki, og'zing ochiladi.(Sh.R.); Emotional attitude of the speaker towards the reality is also expressed by the affix **–sa** added to the root or the stem of the verb , sometimes followed by   the words **qani/qani endi** with the special intonation: Qani endi bu maslahatga ko'nsa! Hali ketyapmiz, hali ketyapmiz, qani lolazor ko'rina qolsa!

Analysis of the material above shows that both the synthetic and analytical formation   of the Subjunctive Mood are productive in the English and Uzbek languages.

Self-control questions:
1.What is the primary grammatical category?
2.What is the secondary grammatical category?
3.Give the definition of the verb.
4.What grammatical categories does the verb have?
5.What combinability does the English verb have?
6.What combinability does the Uzbek verb have?

7.Classify English and Uzbek verbs according to the structure.

8.Give the semantic classification of the English and Uzbek verbs.

9.What can you say about transitivity and intransitivity of the English and Uzbek verbs?

10.What can you say about the category of voice in the English language?

11.What can you say about the category of voice in the Uzbek language?

12.What does the category of mood express?

13.What does the Imperative Mood express?

14.What does the Indicative Mood express?

15.Speak about the formation of the Imperative Mood in the English and Uzbek languages.

16.What does the Imperative Mood express?

17.Speak about the formation of the synthetic Subjunctive Mood in English.

18.Speak about the formation of the analytical Subjunctive Mood in English.

19.Speak about the formation of the synthetic Subjunctive Mood in Uzbek.

20.Speak about the formation of the analytical Subjunctive Mood in Uzbek.

21.How did A.I. Smirnitsky classify the category of mood in the verbs of the English language?

22.What meanings does the Subjunctive Mood in the English language express?

23.What meanings does the Subjunctive Mood in the Uzbek language express?

24.What can you say about the tense forms of the English Subjunctive Mood?

25.What can you say about the tense forms of the Uzbek Subjunctive Mood?

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2. THE NOUN AND ITS GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES IN THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

Plan:

1.The Noun. Characteristics of the noun according to the suggested criteria
2.Classification of nouns according to the structure and semantic peculiarities in the English and native languages
3.Typological categories of nouns in the English and native languages

Basic concepts of the subject:

Lexical- grammatical category, grammatical category, primary grammatical category, secondary grammatical category, category of number, category of case, purely lexical , semantic category, masculine gender, feminine gender, neuter gender, animate objects, inanimate objects, stem- building elements, linguistic peculiarities

A noun (from Latin nomen, literally name) is a word that functions as the name of a specific object or set of objects, such as living creatures, places, actions, qualities, states of existence, or ideas. The noun is a primary grammatical category.We don't characterize the noun according to its meaning. Thus actions and states of existence can also be expressed by verbs , qualities by adjectives, places by adverbs. Linguistically, a noun is a member of a large, open part of speech whose members can occur as the main word in the subject of a clause, the object of a verb, or the object of preposition. In English nouns are those words which can be used with articles and attributive adjectives. In English, some modern authors use the word 'substantive' to refer to a class that includes both nouns (single words) and noun phrases (multiword units, also called noun equivalents). It can also be used as a counterpart to 'attributive' when distinguishing between a noun being used as **the head** (main word) of a noun phrase and a noun being used as **a noun adjunct**, for ex., the noun 'knee' can be said to be used 'substantively' in: **my knee hurts**, but 'attributively' in**: the patient needed knee replacement**. Nouns form a large proportion of the English and Uzbek vocabulary. Nouns can name a person (Albert Einstein, doctor, mother), a place (Disneyland, England, bedroom), things, activities, concepts, processes , even hypothetical or imaginary

phenomenon.

Noun belongs to the notional parts of speech and should be characterized according to the following criteria which was suggested by the famous Russian linguist L.V. Sherba:

Meaning
Form
Function

Nouns have grammatical categories of case, number and definiteness/indefiniteness in English , in Uzbek nouns have the categories of case, number and the category of possession.

 In **English nouns may express the functions** of the subject, object, attribute , the part of the compound nominal predicate , and the nouns in combination with   prepositions perform the function of the adverbial modifier in English:

1. **Dilbar** studies at the university - subject
2. I saw **Dilbar** at the university - object
3. This **gold** watch is very expensive – attribute
4. His father is a **teacher** – part of the compound nominal predicate(predicative)
 5. She studies **at the University-** adverbial modifier of place

In Uzbek the nouns may express the functions of the subject, object, attribute, nominal predicate and adverbial modifier:
1.**Kamola** maktabda o'qiydi- subject
2.Men **Kamolani** maktabda ko'rdim- object
3.Onam tug'ilgan kunimda **tilla** soat sovg'a qildilar- attribute
4.Kamola **o'quvchi**- nominal predicate
5.Kamola **kutubxonada** dars tayyorlayapti- adverbial modifier of place
Nouns in English have the right hand and the left hand combinability:
1) right- hand combinability with nouns, adjectives , articles, pronouns and numerals:
2) left- hand combinability with verbs, attributes:
  1. Mother gave her daughter **a new watch** on her birthday(adjective); **The book** is on the table (article); **My mother**

works at school (pronoun); **Two students** were absent at the lesson (numeral); My mother gave me a **gold watch** on my birthday (noun)

2. **Kamola speaks** English fluently(verb); The **boy working** in the garden is my son(attribute expressed by participle1);

Nouns in Uzbek also have right-hand and left-hand combinability:

1) right-hand combinability with the nouns, adjectives, pronouns, numerals:
Lola kitobni Akbarga berdi (noun); **Yaxshi kitob** sizning do'stingiz (adjective); **Mening opam** universitetda o'qiydi (pronoun); **Ikki qiz** bog'da gaplashib turibti (numeral);
2) left-hand combinability with nouns, verbs, adverbs:
Lola xat yozdi (noun); **Lola keldi** (verb); **Lola tez va ravon** gapiradi (adverb)

According to the formation nouns in Uzbek and English languages have typical stem-building elements (we shall give some of them):

In English:

-ment	-er	-ist	-ship	-hood
management	teacher	socialist	friendship	childhood
movement	driver	labourist	membership	

In Uzbek :

-lik	-zor	-dosh	-kor	-don
bolalik	gulzor	sinfdosh	paxtakor	shamdon

Compound nouns in the English and Uzbek languages (the formation of nouns in the English and Uzbek languages was given in the item " Word-formation in the English and Uzbek languages", so we shall give some of them in this item of the manual).
Compound nouns in English : appletree, snowball, blackboard, bluebell, pickpocket, dining-room, reading-hall;
Compound nouns in Uzbek : qirqoyoq, oybolta, karnaygul, otboqar, ko'zoynak, achchiqtosh, oziq-ovqat, qavm-qarindosh.
According to the relation of nouns to other words in the sentence

there is a great difference between the English and Uzbek languages: the relation of nouns to other words in the English sentence is performed by the wide use of prepositions : I am going **to the shop**, I am coming **from the shop**, I am **in the shop**); In the Uzbek language the relation of nouns to other words in the sentence is performed by case forms: Men **do'konga** borayapman, Men **do'kondan** kelayapman, Men **do'kondaman**, Men **do'konni** ko'rdim, Men **do'konning** sotuvchisidan so'radim.

There are the following types of nouns in the English and Uzbek languages:proper nouns, common nouns, abstract nouns, concrete nouns, countable nouns, non-countable nouns, collective nouns. A proper noun is a name which refers only to a single person, place or thing: London, Albert; Akmal, Samarqand. A common noun is a name for something which is common for many things, persons or places : country, city, doctor, book; mamlakat, shahar, shifokor, daftar, uy, ko'cha. An abstract noun is a word for something that can not be seen; it has no physical existence. Generally , it refers to ideas, qualities and conditions: truth, happiness, sorrow, time, friendship, humor, patriotism; sevgi, yolg'on, haqiqat, do'stlik, vatanparvarlik, baxt. A concrete noun is the exact opposite of abstract noun. It refers to the things we see and have physical existence :chair, table, water, money, sugar, bat, bird, wood, forest; suv, shakar, non, qush, ot, quyon, gul, o'rmon, daraxt. Countable nouns in English can take an article; this peculiarity does not exist in Uzbek : a chair- two chair**s**; **kiob- ikkita kitob**O. In this case there is an agreement in number in English, but in Uzbek the noun in combination with the numeral expressing plurality does not receive the affixal morpheme of plurality **–lar.** Abstract nouns and proper nouns are always non-countable, but common nouns and concrete nouns have the category of number. A collective noun is a word for a group of things, people or animals : family, team, jury, cattle; oila, xalq, armiya, meva. Collective nouns can be both plural and singular (Americans prefer to use collective nouns as singular, but both of the uses are correct).

In the English and Uzbek languages **countable nouns have the opposition of singularity and plurality forms**. But **uncountable nouns** expressing material, abstract and quantitative ideas such as sugar, gold, milk, feeling, crowd, butter, humanity in English , non, shakar , suv, his-tuyg'u, muhabbat, tilla, kumush, yog', olomon,

insoniyat in Uzbek don't have **opposition of singularity and plurality**.

Nouns like **trousers, clothes, sweets** with the form of plurality don't have the **opposition of singularity and plurality either.**

Some other nouns have the same form both for plurality and singularity:

Singular	Plural
sheep	sheep
fish	fish
deer	deer

We have already spoken about the existence of two case forms of nouns in the theoretical part of the manual.

There are some peculiarities of the expression of case forms in English:

1. Indeclinable nouns have no case opposition, as they include lifeless objects such as a room, a chair, a house, a table, an air, love, hope, hatred, feeling.

But sometimes even lifeless objects can have the morpheme of the genitive case:

1. The local school board's ruling (organization)
2. Canada's foreign language press (place)
3. Inanimate objects: Activities :   Units of time :

Inanimate objects:	Activities :	Units of time :
chair's foot	Boston's laws	a two month's holiday
school's gates	privacy's law	a two hour's lesson

In poetry and higher literary style, the genitive of lifeless things is used in many cases where "of" would be used in ordinary speech. Sometimes the implicit form of the genitive case is used to create the euphony aspect of expression:

The Fountains of Rome   Roman Fountains
The streets of Rome   Roman streets

By using implicit genitive in these cases we avoid the high level of formality.

In the Uzbek language this peculiarity of not using the genitive case (qaratqich kelishigi) for the euphony aspect of expression is also observed: ShaharO darvozasi, maktabO binosi, ToshkentO ko'chalari keng va chiroyli.

Many linguists speak about analytical case forms. They find four or six case forms in modern English. These case forms by their opinion are expressed with the help of prepositions and word order, but we can`t agree with this view-point, because every analytical form must have its synthetic opposition where one form is opposed to the other with the same grammatical meaning:

KamolaO bought a new bag - Kamola`**s** bag – KamolaO yangi sumka sotib oldi- Kamola**ning** sumkasi.

There are many prepositions in the English language and if we consider the combination of the preposition with the noun to be the marker of a certain case form, then the number of case forms will grow immensely. We must not fasten on the language those phenomena which do not exist there. To say that the definite phenomenon exists or does not exist in the language, analyzed by us, is the specific peculiarity of this or that language (the interpretation about the method of investigating grammatical categories in the English and native languages is given in the theoretical part of the manual).

Speaking about the category of gender in English we'll see that this phenomenon is one of the disputable problems in Modern linguistics.The category of gender consists of the notions of natural (biological sex) gender. The connection of this category with the natural sex is in persons, animals and birds. It is displayed by the nouns and pronouns in the lexical level of the English and Russian languages; in the Uzbek language natural sex in persons, animals and birds is expressed by nouns in the lexical level of the language (it is not expressed by pronouns as it is in the English and Russian languages. In Russian , differing from the English and Uzbek languages gender is a grammatical category. Grammatical character of gender in Russian is displayed by the agreement of the noun with its modifier and by the agreement of the nouns with the Past Simple Tense form of the verb: больш**ая** школ**а**- больш**ое** озер**о**- больш**ой** дом**О** ; девочк**а** пришл**а**- мальчик**О**- приш**ел**.

In the English and Uzbek languages there is no agreement between the noun and its modifier in gender, because gender is a lexical category in these languages. Differing from the Uzbek language in English the lexical meaning of gender is expressed only by the substitution of pronouns "he", "she", " it"; this peculiariy does not exist in the Uzbek language:

a noun	*a pronoun*
a boy	*he*
a girl	*she*
a table	*it*

Human and non-human beings have lexical category of gender: feminine, masculine. Lifeless things do not have the lexical category of gender. English nouns can show the sex of their reference only lexically or by means of certain notional words used as sex indicators:

masculine gender	feminine gender
boy-friend	girl-friend
man-producer	woman-producer
landlord	landlady
he-goat	she-goat
he-bear	she-bear
bull-calf	cow-calf
cock-sparrow	cow-sparrow
king	queen
sir	madam
master	mistress
actor	actress
waiter	waitress
lion	lioness
host	hostess
steward	stewardess
tiger	tigress
hero	heroine

Some nouns with the marker of the feminine gender, such as -**ress, -ness,-ess, -ine** have been preserved from the ancient English:

masculine gender	feminine gender
master	mistress
actor	actress
waiter	waitress
lion	lioness

host	hostess
steward	stewardess
tiger	tigress
hero	heroine

There are special cases, such as the association of neutral gender with babies and small animals which are expressed by "it'':

1.I saw a mouse. It was running across the room.
2.The spider was spinning its web.
3.The beetle crawled into its hole.
4.The baby threw down its rattle

Some more peculiarities of using the semantic (lexical) gender of nouns in English are as follows: traditionally, names of oceans, countries, ships, moral qualities and natural objects are substituted by the feminine or masculine genders by pronouns "she'' or "he''.

Some linguists as John Fell (1784) give the following peculiarities of expressing the meanings of gender:
 1)moral qualities, such as wisdom, truth, reason, virtue and religion are of the feminine gender substituted by "she":

Wisdom (she)   virtue (she)
truth (she)   religion (she)
justice (she)   reason(she)

2) countries, cities, towns, ships are of feminine gender and they are substituted by "she''
France is popular with **her** neighbours at the moment ; **Poland** has made a steady progress restricting **her** economy ; I love my **car. She** is my greatest passion; I travelled from England to New York on **the Queen Elizabeth**. **She** is a great ship.

3) names of natural phenomena according to their **qualities of amiability, mildness, power** are substituted by "**he**'' or "**she**'' :
feminine gender   **masculine gender**
the earth   mountain
the moon   the sun
the nature

4) **mind and soul** come from the inner part of a human being.   The **soul** is the spiritual nature of mankind. The **mind** is man's faculty of thinking, reasoning and applying knowledge. These two nouns are distinguished in the following way:

feminine gender   **masculine gender**
   soul   mind

  So the analyses of the given above examples show that gender of nouns is a lexical or semantic category in English.

 Majority of modern Indo-European languages possess lexico-grammatical category of gender. The category of gender is manifested in the ability of nouns to assimilate pronouns and adjectives with their forms. In Russian the grammatical category of gender is widely used. Every noun has the meaning of gender, that is masculine, feminine and neuter. The category of gender in Russian has the formal character with nouns denoting concrete and abstract objects, with nouns denoting persons or animals, it has a semantic character, for example, звезда, месяц, молоко, надежда, любовь, доверие, мать, отец, тетя, дядя. Sems of gender, case and number are expressed in affixal morphemes of nouns. The morpheme -ем in the noun «месяцем» includes sems of objectness, singularity, masculine gender and case, the morpheme «-ой» in the noun «звездой» includes sems of objectness, singularity, feminine gender and case. Comparison of the two affixal morphemes clears out that in Russian the difference in gender is expressed materially. As we have seen the affixal morpheme -**ем** expresses masculine gender and the affixal morpheme -**ой** -feminine gender. The category of gender of nouns in Russian agrees with adjectives, numerals, possessive and demonstrative pronouns in number and case, forming free word combinations with them: большое окно, два окна, эти окна, мое окно, две школы, моя школа.
Another special characteristic of morphological structure of the Russian language being absent in the English and Uzbek languages is the ability of nouns to agree in gender with forms of verbs in the past tense. Девочк**а** опоздал**а** на урок. Этот ученик**О** приш**ел** на репетицию вовремя. Sensation of gender in Russian is so great that even borrowed words according to their appearance belong to the concrete form of gender. Inanimated nouns with the ending «-о» as -лето, кино, бюро

belong to the neuter gender.

The category of gender - masculine, feminine and neuter, was the characteristic of the old English language. But at the result of historical development of the English morphological structure the category of grammatical gender has lost its formal expression.

Summing up analysis of the category of gender we can say that this category, including three genders: masculine, feminine and neuter, is the typological characteristic of the Russian language. In the English and Uzbek languages there is a semantic category of gender, which is expressed by the addition of some words denoting natural gender, such as mother, father, girl, boy, a schoolboy, a schoolgirl, mother -wolf, father-wolf, ona-bo'ri, ota bo'ri.

Besides, we should mark that in the Uzbek language in some borrowed words we notice morphological expression of gender. Cp: Shoir-Shoira, Hamid-Hamida, tolib-talaba, kotib-kotiba, Muslim-Muslima.

But these words which have been borrowed from the Arabic language are few and they can't be the characteristic feature of the Uzbek language.

In the Uzbek language human and non-human beings' lexical gender is expressed as it does in English: ho'kiz (m)- sigir (f), xo'roz (m) - tovuq (f), erkak mushuk-urg'ochi mushuk, ota-bo'ri - ona-bo'ri , ota-ona, erkak-ayol, tog'a-xola, amma-amaki; morphological expression of the feminine and masculine genders in Uzbek which have been borrowed from the Arabic language : muallim-muallima, kotib-kotiba, shoir-shoira, Muslim-Muslima, Azim-Azima, Nodir-Nodira, Karim-Karima don't agree with their modifiers in gender, they don'agree with the predicate in gender either : Nodir keldi- Nodira keldi = Нодир пришел- Нодира пришла = Nodir came- Nodira came.

Typological analysis of the category of gender in the English, Russian and Uzbek languages according to the levels of the language

Levels	English	Russian	Uzbek
Grammatical		By affixation: окно – neuter gender.	

		парта – feminine gender. сарайØ, домØ – musculine gender.	
Lexical-grammatical	Father wolf - musculine, mother wolf - feminine, a school-girl – feminine, a school-boy – musculine		Ota-bo'ri – musculine gender, ona-bo'ri – feminine gender
Lexical	cow – feminine gender, bull – musculine gender, hen – feminine gender, cock – musculine gender	кобыла – femenine gender. конь – masculine gender.	xo'roz – musculine gender, tovuq – feminine gender
Phonological	-	-	-

Typological category of number. English, Uzbek and Russian languages possess grammatical category of number. This category expresses quantitative relations expressed in the morphological level of the languages compaed in the manual. For example, in Indo-European languages, that is in Sanskrit, Greek and Latin the category of number possessed three numbers: singular, plural and dual. The category of number, which expresses quantitative relations between objects is materially connected with the noun. In the English, Russian and Uzbek languages the category of number possesses sems of singularity, plurality expressed in the forms of singular and plural numbers. In Russian sems of singularity are expressed both by marked and unmarked morphemes, that is by special morphemes and without them. For example, **-й** for the nouns in masculine gender: край, сарай, ручей; **-а, -я** for the nouns in feminine gender: река, земля; **-о, -е, -мя** for the nouns in neuter gender: окно, море, знамя.

In stated words singularity is expressed materially, that is by means of special morphemes. Now we'll see the words where singularity is expressed by zero morphemes: городО, домО, зверьО, дверьО, etc.

In Russian singularity is expressed in case forms (нет)рек**и**, (нет) тетрад**и**, (нет) окн**а**, (нет) дом**а**. In stated examples singularity is

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expressed in case forms **-и** and **–а**. This way we find out that affixal morphemes **-и** and **-а** (genitive case forms for feminine, masculine and neuter genders) express singularity. In word-forms городом-городами one can easily notice that the affixal morpheme **-ом** expresses singularity, objectness, case, gender and the affixal morpheme **-ами** expresses sems of plurality, objectness and case.

In English singularity is expressed by a zero morpheme, for example: townO, playO, footO , etc. It is interesting to mark that in Uzbek as it is in English singularity of nouns is expressed by a zero morpheme. Further we'll use words **marked** for the presence of word form, **non-marked** for the absence of word-form. So we can see that the meaning of singularity of nouns in Russian can be marked and non-marked, in English and in Uzbek it is only non-marked. The category of plurality in these languages is marked. **In Russian plurality of nouns can be non-marked too**:

	Nouns in singular	Nouns in plural	
		marked	Non-marked
Feminine	стрел**а** стен**а**	стел**ы** стен**ы**	(нет) стрелО (нет) стенО
Masculine/ Neuter	город**О** окн**о** мор**е**	город**ов** окон (**кн/кон**) мор**я**	

Examples show that in Russian singularity or plurality of nouns can be expressed by case and gender forms. In English and Uzbek languages plurality of nouns is expressed by special morphemes. In English by affixal morphemes **-s** and **-es**, in Uzbek by -**лар**: book-books, bench-benches, бола-болалар. In English very few words form plurality by sound interchange (foot-feet, man-men, woman-women). But this way of expressing plurality is limited and can't be related to the typological characeristic of the language (This way of expressing plurality of nouns has been preserved from the Old English language).

Self-control questions:

1. Characterize the noun as a part of speech.
2. What grammatical categories has the noun in the English and native languages.
3. What can you say about the category of number of   nouns in the English and native languages?
4. What can you say about the category of gender of nouns in the English and native languages?
5. What can you say about syntactical peculiarities of nouns?
6. What can you say about stem-building elements of nouns?
7. What grammatical means do we use while forming new nouns from other parts of speech in the English and native languages?
8. What nouns don't have the form of singularity in the English and native languages?
9. What nouns don't have the form of plurality in the English and native languages
10. Why is gender a lexical category in the English and Uzbek languages?
11. Why is gender a grammatical category in the Russian language?
12. Is singularity of nouns in the English and Uzbek languages marked or non-marked?
13. Do the analytical case forms exist in the English language?
14. Can the genitive case be non-marked in the English and Uzbek languages?
15. Why has the rich system of case forms been lost in English?
16. Why has not the agglutinated type of the Uzbek language changed in the course of historical development?
17. Why has the English language lost its rich system of inflected declension and conjugation in the course of historical development?

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3. THE ADJECTIVE AND ITS GRAMMATICAL CATEGORY OF THE DEGREES OF COMPARISON IN THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

Plan:

1. Typological category of adjectives and their degrees of comparison in the English and Uzbek languages.

2. Typological characteristic of adjectives according to the structure, syntactic and semantic peculiarities in the English and Uzbek languages .

Basic concepts of the subject:

Degrees of comparison, comparative degree, superlative degree, quality levels, comparative typology, qualitative adjectives, relative adjectives, possessive adjectives, differential peculiarities

One of the major parts of speech in most languages especially English is adjectives. It forms a vital aspect of written and spoken form of English. It is therefore necessary to learn and use it correctly. Adjectives are words used to modify nouns. As a modifier , the adjective doesn't change the basic meaning of the word it modifies. They modify the noun by describing, limiting or making its meaning more exact.

There are the following peculiarities in English adjectives:

1. They can freely occur in attribuive position to the noun: a clever boy, a red flower;

2. They can be used in the function of the predicative (nominal part of the compound nominal predicate) : The flat is **comfortable**; She looks **young**; She feels **bad**; She lay **motionless** as if she were asleep; He stood **silent** with his back turned to the window;

3. Adjectives can be modified by the intensifier "very": This teacher is **very considerate**;

4. Adjectives can have the grammatical category of the degrees of comparison which is expressed synthetically and analytically depended on their morphological structure: red-redd**er**-**the** redd**est**, beautiful-**more beautiful**- **the most beautiful**;

5. Substantivized adjectives can be used in the functions of the subject and the object: Have you read the book by Greg Palast "How **the rich** are destroying the earth"? -in the function of the subject; The judge convicted **the rich** of a crime in destroying the nature. -in the function of the object;

6. Adjectives can be used in the function of the adverbial modifier in elliptical adverbial clauses: When **ripe**, the apples are sweet ; Whether **right** or **wrong** , the man ought to be treated fairly;

7. Adjectives are often used to build up exclamatory sentences in which an adjective preceded by interrogative word **how** is placed at the head of the sentence: **How beautiful** your daughter is! **How nice** is the weather today!

8. Adjectives can modify indefinite pronouns : She wants to tell you **something interesting**; **Anyone intelligent** understands it.

There are the following peculiarities in Uzbek adjectives :

1.They can freely occur in attribuive position to the noun : qizil gul, aqlli bola ;

2.They can be used in the function of the nominal predicate :
Oppoq qordir tog'larning boshi,
Daryo **tiniq** , osmon **beg'ubor**. (H.O.)

3. Adjectives can be modified by the intensifiers **juda, behad, g'oyat, nihoyatda**, **cheksiz** : Ona oq ko'ylakda, oq doka ro'molda **cheksiz aziz**, shavqatli, **behad go'zal** tuyuldi O'ktamga. (O.)

4. Adjectives can be used in the function of the adverbial modifier: Xo'jalik madaniyatning, madaniyat xo'jalikning yana **chiroyliroq,**

kuchliroq gullashiga sababchi bo'ladi.(O.)

5. Substantivised adjectives can be used in the functions of the subject, object and the attribute with the possessive case form : **G'oliblar** majlis to'ridan joy olishdi. (O.) - subject ; **Yomonni** tanqid qiladi, **yaxshiga** taqlid. (Saying) - object ; **Kattalarning g'ururi**, **yoshlarning shod qiyg'osi**, tashakkur aytmoqdadir qalbidan bu nahora. (G'G')-attribute with the possessive case form.

6. Adjectives can have the category of the degrees of comparison expressed synthetically in the positive and comparative degrees and analytically in the superlative degree : baland- baland**roq** – **eng baland**; yaxshi- yaxshi**roq** – **eng yaxshi**;

7. Adjectives can be used to build up exclamatory sentences in which an adjective preceded by interrogative word **qanday** is placed at the head of the sentence: **Qanday sokin** tun! **Qanday ajoyib** manzara!

8. Adjectives can modify indefinite pronouns : **Kimdir begona** sizni so'rayapi.

According to the typological characteristic adjectives in the Uzbek, English and Russian languages differ from each other greatly. According to the structure adjectives in Russian are divided into three groups: 1) qualitative adjectives (these adjectives are большой, маленький, высокий, низкий, толстый, тонкий); 2) relative adjectives which are formed of nouns (камень-каменный, весна-весенний, Москва-Московский); 3) possessive adjectives (отцов дом, сестрина сумка, мамина школа). Differing from the Russian language in English there are only qualitative adjectives (white, large, strong). There observed few relative adjectives. Most relative adjectives in English are scientific terms (biological, chemical, industrial). Absence of the system of relative adjectives is supplied by attributive constructions consisted of two nouns (a strong wall, a gold watch, Moscow streets).

These phenomena exist in the Uzbek language too: tilla soat, jun ro'mol. As we have seen in the above word combinations the first noun (in the English and Uzbek languages) perform attributive function to the second one : tilla soat - a gold watch.

Possessive adjectives which exist in Russian don't exist in the English and Uzbek languages, this function is performed by the particle **-'s** in the English, by the affixal morpheme **-нинг** in the Uzbek languages: отц**ов** дом -my father**'s** house-otam**ning** uyi.

According to the expression of their grammatical categories adjectives in the English and Russian languages differ from each other greatly. Adjectives in Russian agree with nouns they modify in number, gender and case , for example: зеленый лист-зеленая трава- зеленое яблоко , (нет) зеленого листа – (нет) зеленой травы – (нет) зеленого яблока; adjectives in the English and Uzbek languages don't possess such a typological characteristic. In this case the English language corresponds to the Uzbek language where adjectives don't agree with nouns they modify in number, case and gender: a beautiful woman - a handsome man, chiroyli ayol- chiroyli yigit.

Next differential peculiarity of Russian adjectives is that, they possess two forms: short and full forms. Adjectives with full forms perform attributive function in the sentence (высокая башня - голубое небо), they can also perform the function of the nominal predicate: наша улица **широкая**. Adjectives in short forms also perform the function of the nominal predicate in Russian : жизнь **коротка**. Adjectives in short forms in the function of the predicate agree with the noun they modify in gender: неб**о** мутн**о** - ночь**О** мутн**а**. In the English language adjectives don't possess short forms. The same adjective is used both for the attribute and predicative (the nominal part of the compound nominal predicate) functions. This characteristic is found in the Uzbek language adjectives as well: Suv **tiniq**; Havo **ochiq**; Bola **aqlli**.

According to the structure, degrees of comparison in the Russian, English and Uzbek languages are expressed on the morphological level of the language both synthetically and analytically, for example: полный-полн**ее**, старый-стар**ше**, тонкий-тонь**ше**. As we have seen in mentioned adjectives comparative degree is expressed on the phono-morphological level of the language synthetically by adding morphemes; **-ее, -ей, -е, -ше**, this way of adding affixal morphemes to the root or the stem of adjectives shows that it is a synthetical-inflected means of uniting the root morpheme or the stem with the affixal one, as the root morpheme changes its appearance by receiving a required affixal morpheme. Some adjectives in Russian form their comparative degree analytically in combination with the words **более, менее** : более сильный, менее удачный. These auxiliary words can be considered to be analytical forms expressing comparative degree of adjectives, because in combination with the adjectives they change their sound structure: **большой<более, маленький/малый<менее** and in

this combination they loose their lexical meaning at some extent becoming equal to the affixal morphemes **-е,-ее, -ей, -ше.**

In the English and Uzbek languages the comparative degree is also expressed on the morphological level of the language. But this kind of synthetic expression of the comparative degree differs from the synthetic expression of the comparative degree in the Russian language greatly. In the Uzbek and English languages the way of adding the affixal morpheme to the stem or the root of adjectives is not synthetical-inflected as it is in Russian, but it is synthetical-agglutinative. Because the root morpheme or the stem doesn't change its appearance by receiving affixal morphemes, for example: yaxshi- yaxshi**roq**-, qulay-qulay**roq**; wide-**r**, strong-**er**. In the English language as in the Russian adjectives which consist of two or more roots

form their comparative degree analytically in combination with the auxiliary words **more** or **less**, for example: **more beautiful, less beautiful**. In this case the English language corresponds to the Russian one. We can consider the auxiliary words **more** and **less** to be analytical forms expressing comparative degree of adjectives, because in combination with the adjectives they change their sound structure: **much<more**, **little<less** and in this combination they loose their lexical meaning at some extent becoming equal in function to the affixal morpheme **–er.**

The superlative degree is also expressed both synthetically and analytically in the English and Russian languages. Synthetically : big-bigger- **the** bigg**est**, large-larger – **the** larg**est**; большой-больше-больш**ущий,** красный-краснее-красн**ейший**(by the addition of the affixal morphemes to the root morphemes or the stems of the adjectives: in English the affixal morpheme is added to the root morpheme or the stem of adjectives by agglutination , in Russian – by fusion). Analytically : beautiful- more beautiful- **the most beautiful**, comfortable- more comfortable- **the most comfortable**; красивый-более красивый- **самый красивый** . The superlative degree in English is expressed by the combination of the auxiliary words **the** and **most** with **the adjective beautiful/comfortable** where the word **many** has changed its sound structure into **most**(**many<most**), at the same time it has lost its lexical meaning, becoming equal in function to the affixal morpheme **-est.** This peculiarity of the auxiliary words **more** and **most** gives us the right to consider them to be analytical forms expressing degrees of comparison of adjectives in the English language.

The Uzbek language doesn't possess the characteristic of expressing superlative degree synthetically . The superlative degree in the Uzbek language is expressed by pure analytical form : by the combination of the word **eng** with the adjective: **eng baland**, **eng aqlli**, **eng katta(where neither the auxiliary nor the notional word change its sound structure** .

Analyses of the factual material shows that there is a great difference in the synthetic way of adding affixal morphemes to the stems or the roots of the English and Russian languages. In Russian affixal morphemes being added to the root morphemes or stems change the latters' sound structure, that is a synthetical-inflected way of adding affixal morphemes to the root morphemes or stems, and at the result of the separation of the affixal morphemes from the root morphemes or stems the words loose their independence. In the English and Uzbek languages the affixal morpheme being added to the root morphemes or stems doesn't change the appearance of the root, and at the result of the separation of the affixal morphemes from the root morphemes or stems the words don't loose their independence, that is the synthetical-agglutinative way of adding morphemes.

Typological analysis of the category of the degrees of comparison of adjectives in the English and native languages

Degrees of com-parison	English			Russian			Uzbek		
	Synthetically	Ana-liti-cally	Synthe-tical-analitically	Synthetically	Ana-liti-cally	Synthetical-analitically	Synthetically	Ana-liti-cally	Synthe-tical-analiti-cally
Positive	big , tall , clever R+zero morpheme			большой , красивый R+af			katta , chiroyli , baland R+zero morpheme		
Compara-tive	bigger, taller, cleverer R+af			больше, красивее, выше R+fusion+af		более красивый, более высокий aux+R+af	kattaroq, chiroyliroq, balandroq R+aF		
Superlative			the biggest, the tallest, the cleverest aux+R+af	больщущий, красивейший, высочайший R+fusion+af		самый большой, самый красивый, самый высокий aux+R+af		eng katta, eng chiroyli, eng baland aux+R	

Adjectives in the English and Uzbek languages according to the structure. Adjectives are classified into **simple, derivative and compound**:

Simple adjectives in English : good , red, black, nice, kind, clever, strict, easy, hard;

Simple adjectives in Uzbek : oq, qora, keng, og'ir, qizil, tor, boy, baland, past, toshkentlik, amerikalik;

Derivative adjectives in English : beauti**ful**, hope**less**, **un**kind, **un**important, fool**ish**, fam**ous**, wood**en**, drink**able**, sunn**y**, passion**ate**, respons**ible**, histor**ic**, day**ly**, read**able**, confus**ing**, product**ive**, Americ**an**, Japan**ese**, luck**y, un**lucky, **dis**honest;

Derivative adjectives in Uzbek : ulug'**vor**, salmoq**dor**, **ser**unum, bilim**li**, aql**siz**, qadim**gi**, sirg'an**chiq**,uyush**qoq**,yasa**ma**, odam**simon**, ep**chil**,qop**ag'on**,og'z**aki**,erk**in**,inson**parvar**,shuhrat**parast**, g'am**xo'r**, davlat**mand**,**be**g'ubor,**no**qulay,bilim**don**,pul**dor**,foyda**li**,   foyda**siz**, mazmun**li**, mazmun**siz** ,kuz**gi**, yoz**gi**, toshkent**lik**, xorazm**lik.**

Derivative adjectives in the English and Uzbek languages show that they can be formed from all parts of speech , even of the names of countries and places except pronouns and numerals..

Compound adjectives in English : snow-white,cold-hearted, lynxeyed, four-wheeled, well-known, an eight-hour day, a three-week vacation, world-famous,old-fashioned, good-looking, brightly-lit (room); last-minute(decision), middle-aged, well-behaved, highly-respected, slow-moving (traffic), a two-year-old (cat), a four-foot (table), absent-minded, well-oiled, much-needed, forward-thinking, "get it yourself" look, "he-said-she-said" excuses (compound adjective formed from quotations), an English-speaking country, tip-top, up-and-down, salt-and-pepper-hair ;

Compound adjectives in Uzbek : olachipor, to'q qizil, ochko'z, havo rang, ikki xonali, ko'p qavatli, ko'p millatli mamlakat, tezpishar, tinchliksevar, muzyorar, qing'ir-qiyshiq, esli-hushli, katta-kichik, past-baland, chala-chulpa, egri-bugri, ishbilarmon, ertapishar, tezoqar, "El-yurt hurmati"ordeni.

Given above examples show that in the English and Uzbek languages compound adjectives are formed by the composition of noun+adj., adj.+noun, numeral+noun, adj.+P1, adj.+P2, adv.+P1,

adv.+P2, noun+P1, noun+P2, adv.+adv., by compounding antonymous or synonymous adverbs or adjectives.

In the English language compound adjectives can be formed from quotations . This peculiarity is not observed in Uzbek.

According to semantic classification adjectives fall under three classes: **1)qualitative adjecives**, 2)**quantitative adjectives** , **2)relative adjectives**.

1.Qualitative adjectives are used to describe the features or qualities of a noun(a person, place, thing, idea, etc.). Most of these adjectives have degrees of comparison. They are usually used before the word they modify. Some qualitative adjectives such as greenish, darkish, incurable, unsuitable, chief, principal have no degrees of comparison in English. Most of qualitative adjectives can be used as attributes and predicatives. They are mostly abstract and perceived through our senses : boring, funny, silky, black, rough, yellow, clean, dirty, tall, short, sad, fat, plump, round, interesting, pathetic, amazing. The qualitative adjectives given above evaluate or give opinions about subjects, types of tastes , smell, sounds and textures of different types of touch.

Qualitative adjectives in Uzbek : oq, qizil, yaxshi, tor, keng, yomon, semiz, qotma, sho'x, yosh, shirin, achchiq, nordon. These adjectives in Uzbek have intensifying forms which express some modal meaning: O'ktam… yura-yura **kattagina , so'limgina** maydonga chiqib qoldi.(O). Navoiy Balxda **soddagina** bir uyda yashadi.(O) ; In the English and Uzbek languages qualitative adjectives , such as green**ish**, dark**ish** , oq**ish**, qoram**tir**, ko'k**imtir** have diminishing forms expressing some modal meaning.

Qualitative adjectives in Uzbek as they are in English have degrees of comparison:qizilroq, yaxshiroq, shirinroq, nordonroq.

Quantitative adjectives describe the measurement, that is, count or amount of any living beings or non-living things. These adjectives state the number or amount of living-beings/ things ; they simply state the information which our eyes can perceive or state. However , the measurement is not in exact numbers, to some extent we can count or weigh the meaning of quantitative adjectives, they are mostly concrete. These adjectives   express some additional and quantitative meanings of the noun they modify: some, few, a few, little, a little , all, enough, any, whole, sufficient, none , half, many, much,

heavy, easy, keng, tor, kichik, uzun, qisqa, baland, og'ir, yengil, vazmin, yapaloq, tekis, yassi, dumaloq. Quanitative adjectives are usually used before the noun they modify; this rule works in declarative sentences, in the sentences used in Simple, Perfect and Continuous tense forms , in interrogative and negative sentences as well : I am eating too **much** sugar, you know, so I can't loose weight ; We have already brought them **a few** books but it's not enough. Have you got **a little** juice for us? I don' like when they pour too **much** milk into my coffee; **Og'ir** jomadonni ko'tarmang; Matematikani **yengil** misollarni yechish bilan boshlang.

In English, differing from the Uzbek language, there are some adjectives having been preserved from the Old English , **forming comparative and superlative degrees by suppletion**: (suppletion is traditionally understood as the use of one word as the inflected form of another word when the two words are not cognate , suppletion is the use of two or more phonetically distinct roots for different forms of the same word): **good- better- the best, bad- worse- the worst**, many/much- more- the most, little- less- the least, far- farther/further- the farthest/the furthest, old- older/elder- the oldest/the eldest. In Russian this typological peculiarity is also observed: **хороший- лучше- наилучший, плохой-хуже-наихудший**. In Uzbek this typological peculiarity does not exist. This way of forming grammatical meanings is peculiar to inflected languages.

Relative adjectives express the relation towards the object, towards the time, towards the place, towards the state and peculiarity : keyingi dars, mevali daraxt, bilimli kishi, yillik plan, ertalabki mashg'ulot, kuzgi shamol, yozgi ta'til, suvsiz yer, oilaviy munosabat, toshkentlik yigit, uydagi kitob, angliyalik do'stim, ko'ngilchan odam, tirishqoq student, chopqir ot, ilmiy ish, g'ayratli yigit, wooden chair, synthetic form, analytical form, scientific work, private problem, evening classes, summer nights, windy weather, American people, Italian word.

English relative adjectives have no degrees of comparison, they do not form adverbs by receiving affixal morpheme **–ly,- y**, etc, (but some of qualitative and quantitative adjectives do : badly, roughly, dirtily, wholly, easily) . Relative adjectives have certain typical suffixes : **-en,- an, -ist, -ic, ical** and some others. Some of Uzbek quantitative and

relative adjectives can have the comparative degree : kichikroq, kattaroq, yengilroq, tirishqoqroq bola, mevaliroq daraxt, bilimliroq talaba, g'ayratliroq yigit.

Substantivized adjectives in the English and Uzbek languages have acquired some or sometimes all of the characteristics of the noun. Substantivized adjectives are devided into wholly substantivized and partly substantivized adjectives. Wholly substantivized adjectives have all the characteristics of nouns: the category of number, the category of case, the category of definiteness/indefiniteness : **a native-the natives**, **a native's house**. Some wholly substantivized adjectives have only the form of plurality: **eatables, valuables, ancients**. Partly substantivized adjectives acquire some of the characteristics of the noun and they are used with the definite article. Partly substantivized adjectives denote a whole class : the rich, the poor , the unemployed. These adjectives may also denote abstract notions : the good, the evil. Substantivized adjectives denoting nationalities fall under wholly and partly subsantivized adjectives. Wholly subsantivized adjectives are : a Russian- Russians, a German- Germans. Partly substantivized adjectives are : the English, the French, the Chinese.

In the Uzbek language , in the course of historical development some adjectives developed into nouns : **qiz, o'g'il, yosh, qari, erkak, ayol, chol**. These substantivized adjectives can be combined with the nouns and perform the function of the attribute : qiz bola, o'g'il bola, yosh yigit, qari chol. Substantivization of adjectives is displayed in their being used in the syntactical functions of the noun. The adjectives **yaxshi, qizil, yomon, katta** express the peculiarity of some objects, but the substantivized adjectives **yaxshiga, kattadan, yomonga, qizilini** express the peculiarity, the owner of which is the person or the object. Adjectives usually express some sign peculiar to objects: katta bino, yaxshi kitob, yaxshi intizom, yaxshi bola. That's why the semantic field of these adjecives is wide, but the semantic field of substantivized adjectives is concrete, they express the concrete object having the peculiarity expressed by the substantivized adjective . These substantivized adjectives can perform the functions of the subject, object and possession: **G'oliblar** majlis to'ridan joy olishdi. (A,Q.)- subject; **Yomonni** tanqid qiladi , **yaxshiga** taqlid. (maqol)-object ; **Yaxshining**(yaxshi kishining) sadaqasi bo'lay.- possession. Adjectives in the comparative degree are sometimes substantivized :

Askarlar esa ularning orasidan **chaqqonroqlarini** ko'z ostiga olib qo'yganday bo'lar edi (Sh.R.) ; Undan ko'ra **munosibrog'ini** topolmaysiz. Examples show that substantivized adjectives both in the English and Uzbek languages acquire the nouns' grammatical and lexical peculiarities. The substantivization of the adjective in the comparative degree in the Uzbek language is not observed in English.

Self-control questions:

1.   What are secondary grammatical categories?
2.   What do you understand by the term "sems"?
3.   What do you understand by "marked/non-marked morphemes"?
4.   What is the zero morpherme?
4.   How do we form the comparative degree of the English and Uzbek adjectives?
5.   Do all adjectives form the comparative degree in the English and Uzbek languages?
6.   What kind of English adjectives don't have the category of the degrees of comparison ?
7.   Why do some English adjectives form the comparative and superlative degrees analytically?
8.   Do the Uzbek adjectives form the comparative and superlative degrees analytically?
9.   Why do some English adjectives form the comparative and superlative degrees by suppletion?
10.   What is suppletion?
11.   Give the structural classification   of the English and Uzbek adjectives.
12.   Give the semantic classification of the English and Uzbek adjectives.
13.   Speak about substantivized adjectives in the English and Uzbek languages.
14.   What is the difference between English and Uzbek qualitative and quantitative adjectives?
15.   What   is   the   difference   between   the   relative   and qualitative/quantitative adjectives in the English and Uzbek languages?
16.   What can you say about syntactical peculiarities of the English and Uzbek adjectives?

17. Can the substantivized adjectives in the English and Uzbek languages receive case forms?
18. Do the English and Uzbek adjectives agree in number, case and gender with the word they modify?
19. Do some Uzbek adjectives form the comparative and the superlative degrees by suppletion?
20. Give an example when the Uzbek adjective in the comparative degree is substantivized.
21. Are the Uzbek substantivized adjectives declined?

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4. PRONOUNS IN THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

Plan:
1.Classification of pronouns in the English and Uzbek languages
2.Similar and distinctive peculiarities in the English and Uzbek pronouns

Basic concepts of the subject:
Pronouns, marked-non-marked, semantic category, morphological characteristic, syntactical characteristic, nominative case, objective case, the second-person pronouns, conjoint form, absolute form, selective meaning

The pronoun is a part of speech which points out objects and their qualities without naming them. In linguistics a pronoun is a word that substitutes for a noun or noun phrase. Pronouns have traditionally been regarded as one of the parts of speech, but some modern theorists would not consider them to form a single class, in view of the variety of functions they perform. The use of pronouns often involves anaphora, where the meaning of the pronoun is dependent on an antecedent . For example in the sentence **That poor man looks as if he needs a new coat**, the antecedent of the pronoun **he** is dependent on **that poor man.** In some modern approaches , pronouns are considered to be a single word class, because of the many syntactic roles that they perform. The adjective associated example, That's not **the one** I wanted ; the phrase **the one** containing the word **one** is a pronominal with pronoun. A pronominal is also a word or phrase that acts as a pronoun. Pronouns are used in place of nouns. The purpose of pronouns is to avoid repetition and make sentences easier to understand. Some of the most common pronouns are **he**, **you**, **she**, **it**, **we**, **they**, and **this**.

There are the following types of pronouns: personal pronouns, possessive pronouns, reciprocal pronouns , demonstrative pronouns, interrogative pronouns, relative pronouns, indefinite pronouns, reflexive pronouns, intensive pronouns, conjunctive pronouns, defining pronouns and negative pronouns.

Personal pronouns refer to a specific person or thing. Their form changes to indicate a person, number, gender, or case. The Modern English system of personal pronouns has preserved some of the inflectional complexity of Old English and Middle English.

Subjective personal pronouns are pronouns that act as the subject of a sentence. The subjective personal pronouns are **I**, **you**, **she**, **he**, **it**, **we**, **you**, and **they**. For example: **I** walked directly to the party; **You** showed up late; **She** was annoyed; **He** thought **you** had forgotten about the meeing; **We** know you were just behind.

Objective personal pronouns are pronouns that act as the object of a sentence: **me**, **you**, **her**, **him**, **it**, **us**, **you**, and **them**. For example: The police officer told my brother and **me** to slow down; He pointed to the pedestrians and said to be careful of **them**; The police officer said there are a lot of speedy motorists like **us**.

Personal pronouns are used in the functions of the subject, object and the predicative: **I** want to be a teacher(subject) ; She called **me** up in the evening (object); But I think that was **him** I spoke to.(Cronin)- predicative.

Personal pronouns in the Uzbek language are **men, sen, u, biz, siz, ular**. They can substitute the demonstrative pronouns as well. They are classified into two classes for this purpose :1. pure personal pronouns: **men, sen, biz, siz** ; 2. personal- demonstrative pronouns :**u, ular**. Personal- demonstrative pronouns perform two functions: they denote person and perform the function of the demonstrative pronoun as well ; these pronouns can substitute the noun : Baxtiyor keldi- **U** keldi ; Mehmonlarni kutayapmiz – **Ularni** kutayapmiz. Kitob bizning do'stimiz – **Uni** sevib o'qing.

In the Uzbek language differing from the English 1) personal-demonstrative pronouns can substitute the noun expressing inanimate object for emotional purposes in poetry : Daraxtlar, bo'stonlar, **sizdan** so'rayman .(U.); 2) all the Uzbek personal pronouns are declined by all the Uzbek case forms **: men, meni, mening, menga, menda, mendan**; 3)in the second person singular affixal morpheme of plurality **–lar** is added to humiliate the person: Sen**lar**ga aytayapman; 4) in the third person singular **–lar** is added to the pronoun **u** to express respect towards the addressee: U (Botir) keldi – Ular(Botir) keldilar; 5) personal pronouns receive word-forming and word changing affixal morphemes expressing grammatical or some connotative meanings : -

cha, -day, -gina: Mening**cha**, mehmonlar ertaga kelishadi (These kinds of words are introductory words); The addition of the affix **–day** to the personal pronoun serves for comparison or for emotional purposes : Siz**day** odam gapirdi; Biz**day** ishlang ; The addition of the affix **–gina** to the personal pronoun expresses some limitation in the action carried out: Majlisga sen**gina** kechikding.

    Demonstrative pronouns point to and identify a noun or a pronoun. **This** and **these** refer to things that are nearby in space or time, while **that** and **those** refer to things that are farther away in space with further away in time. Demonsrative pronouns have the category of number; nouns agree in number being combined with these pronouns: **This** is the dress I will wear now and **that** is the one I wore yesterday; **That** is not true; Please pay for **those** books.

    Demonstrative pronouns are used in the functions of the subject, predicative, object and attribute: **That** is my book (subject); **This** book is mine (attribute); Will you tell me how you did **this** (object) ; Honest people were **those** who told the truth(predicative).

    Demonstrative pronouns in the Uzbek language are : **u, bu, shu , o'sha , mana shu , ushbu** , etc. Demonstrative pronouns in Uzbek can have nouns' characteristics : Yaxshi odam, **o'shaning** uyiga boramiz. (O.); these pronouns can substitute the whole sentence or they can be used in the structure of the principle clause being modified by the subordinate clause : Bola tarbiyasiga e'iborliroq bo'ling. **Bu** kata ahamiyatga ega. **Shuni** biling-ki , turmush qonuni - o'sish, kamol topishdir. (Sh.R.)

    Demonstrative pronouns in Uzbek can have adjectives' characteristics , they perform the function of the attribute : Biz **o'sha** do'konga boramiz. (O.) These pronouns being used in repeated form can have adverbs' characterisics : **O'sha- o'sha** kampir bilan G'afforjon biznikida qolib ketdi. (A.Q.) Demonstrative pronouns in Uzbek can receive affixal morphemes –**day, -cha,** -**daqa, -dek, -aqa, -aqangi** and in this case may have adverbs' and adjectives' characterisics: Kozimbek **shuncha** odamning ichida o'ynadi. (A.Q.); **Shunday** o'lka doim bor bo'lsin, **shunday** o'lka elga yor bo'lsin. (H.O.) Uzbek demonstrative pronouns , differing from English , can be declined by all the Uzbek case forms : **bu- buni-buning-bunga-bunda- bundan ; o'sha –o'shani- o'shaning- o'shanga- o'shanda-o'shandan** ; these pronouns can receive word- changing and word-

forming affixal morphemes forming new words or expressing some connotative meaning.

Interrogative pronouns are used to ask questions. The interrogative pronouns are **who**, **whom**, **which**, and **what,** etc. It is important to remember that **who** and **whom** are used to refer to people, while **which** is used to refer to things and animals. **Who** acts as the subject, while **whom** acts as the object. For example: **Which** is the best restaurant?; **What** did he tell you?; **Whom** should we invite? Interrogative pronouns are used in the functions of the subject, predicative, object and attribute : **What** has happened to you? (subject); **What** is your father? (predicative); **What** do you mean ?(object); **Whose** book is it ?(attribute). Interrogative pronoun **who** has possessive and objective case forms : **Who** has told you about it? - **Whom** did you tell about it ?- **Whose** book have you taken ? These case forms of the interrogative pronoun **who** have been preserved from the ancient English language.

Uzbek interrogative pronouns are **qanday, qaysi, kim, nima, qayer, nega, nima uchun, necha, nechanchi, nechta, qancha, qachon, qani, qalay**.

Distinctive features of the Uzbek interrogative pronouns: pronouns **kim, nima**, **qayer, qaysi, qanday** have singular and plural forms: **kimlar/nimalar**, **qayer/qayerlar, qaysi/qaysilar**; these pronouns are declined by all Uzbek case forms: **kim- kimni-kimning- kimga-kimda- kimdan; qaysi-qaysini-qaysining**-**qaysiga-qaysida-qaysidan**; **kim** is only used for human beings, **nima-** for objects and non-humans : Kim keldi? -Karim keldi; Nima keldi?- Sigir keldi; Nima sotib oldingiz?- Kitob sotib oldim.

The function of the English interrogative pronoun **which** is performed by Uzbek pronoun **qaysi bir**: this interrogative pronoun having the affixal morpheme of possession acquires the meaning of the English interrogative pronoun **which of** : **qaysingiz, qaysisi/qaysilari, qaysimiz**. **Which of them** should help you? -**Qaysilari** sizga yordam berishlari lozim?

Relative pronouns are used to link one phrase or clause to another phrase or clause. The relative pronouns are **who**, **whom**, **that**, **whose,** and **which**. The compounds **whoever**, **whomever**, and **whichever** are also commonly used as relative pronouns. For example: **Whoever** added the bill made a mistake; The bill, **which** included all

our meals, was larger than expected; The waiter **who** served us doesn't know how to add. Relative pronouns introduce attributive clauses. They perform some syntactical functions in the clause they introduce: She flashed a look at him **that** was more anger than appeal.(London) – subject ; Gemma, there's a man downstairs **who** wants to see you. (Voynich)- subject ; I think I have taken nothing **that** you or your people have given me.(Galsworthy)- object.

In the Uzbek language the function of the English relative pronouns are performed by interrogative pronouns **kim, nima** and by the participial construction or by the special conjunctive-suffix –**ki** : Bu mashhur san'atkorni **kim** bilmaydi ! **Kim** nima topsa, shuni olib keladi. **Nima** eksang shuni o'rasan. Biz shunday jamiyat qurayapmiz**ki**, bunday hayotni ota-bobolarimiz orziqib kutgan. Sen bilan **o'qigan** yigitlar hozir ikki-uchta farzandlik bo'ldi. Otam **keltirgan** kiobni o'qiyapman.

Indefinite pronouns refer to an identifiable, person or thing, but not specified. An indefinite pronoun conveys the idea of all, any, none, or some. These pronouns are

following: all, another, any, anybody, anyone, anything, each, ev erybody,

everyone, everything, few, many, nobody, none, one, several, some, s omebody and someone. For example: **Everybody** got lost on the way there; **Somebody** forgot to bring the map; No wonder so **few** showed up.

Indefinite pronouns **some** and **any** can be used as subject, object and attribute : **Some** came to the meeting in time.(subject); Thrusting his hand up, he tried to catch **some**. (Galsworthy)-object ; Are there **any** real Indians in the woods ?(O. Henry)- attribute. Someone, anyone, somebody, anybody, something, anything may be used as a subject, predicative or object : **Someone** was singing in the next room.- subject; He didn't know **anybody** in this town. -object ; What he likes is **anything** except art. (Aldington)- predicative. Genitive case of the pronouns somebody , someone, anybody, anyone is used as an attribute : I heard **someone's** singing in the next room.- attribute. When preceded by a preposition the pronouns someone, something, somebody, anybody, anyone , anything may be used as prepositional indirect object : So, though he was very successful **at anything** , he got along all right.(Aldington)- indirect object.

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In the Uzbek language the functions of the indefinite pronouns are performed by adding the prefix **alla**- or the suffix –**dir** to interrogative words: **allakim/kimdir, allanima/ nimadir**; these pronouns are used in singular and plural and they are declined by all Uzbek case forms : **allakim-allakimlar**, **allanima- allanimalar; kimdir-kimdirlar, nimadir- nimadirlar; kimdir-kimdirni-kimdirning-kimdirga-kimdirda- kimdirdan**. The following words are also used to perform the finctions of English indefinite pronouns : **birov-bironta-birorta; biror kim- biror narsa; ba'zibirov-ba'zibirovlar-qaybirovlar**.

Reflexive pronouns refer back to the subject of the clause or sentence. These pronouns have the categories of person, number and gender: **myself- yourself –himself- herself -itself(in singular); ourselves- yourselves- themselves (in plural);** The distinctive forms showing person, number and gender have been preserved from the Old English language. The reflexive pronouns are the following: **myself**, **yourself**, **herself**, **himself**, **itself**, **ourselves**, **yours elves**, **them-selves :** For example: She baked a cake for **herself**; We decided to eat it **ourselves**; We heard her say, **'**They should be ashamed of **themselves'**.

Reflexive pronouns preceded by a preposition may be used as indirect prepositional object, as an attribute and as an adverbial modifier: The sick woman was completely **with herself**.- indirect object; The man wanted to be **by himself**.- adv. modifier of manner; They tried to ignore **the problem of themselves**- attribute Reflexive pronouns may be used as predicatives : When she came back she was **herself** again. (Hardy)-predicative ; Sometimes reflexive pronouns are used emphatically: Moreover , Soames **himself** disliked the thought of that. (Galsworthy).

Reflexive pronoun in Uzbek is **o'z**. This pronoun is used instead of the three personal pronouns in singular and plural expressing a person and sometimes - an object. It is declined by all case forms receiving markers of possession and can be used with some particles : **o'zing-o'zingni-o'zingning-o'zingga- o'zingda- o'zingdan.** The pronoun **o'z** can receive word- forming and word- changing affixal morphemes – **gina, -am, -yam, -niki -cha**, forming new words or expressing some connotative meaning: **O'ziyam** miqti kelgan, tiqmachoq kishi edi. (S.Ahmad); Onasining xuddi **o'zginasi**; **…o'z-o'zicha** gapirib ketdi .

(O.); Bu kitob **o'zimniki.** Reflexive pronoun **o'z** may be used in the structure of compound words : **o'zboshimcha, o'zbilarmon, o'zaro**. It can perform the function of all parts of the sentence : Bu ishni **o'zim** bajardim -subject ; **O'z** uyim o'lan to'shagim. (Maqol)- attribute; Yaxshi shifokor **o'zingsan**- nominal predicate). U xatni **o'zimga** berdi - object.

Intensive pronouns are used to emphasize their antecedent. Intensive pronouns are identical in form to reflexive pronouns. For example: I **myself** find this novel interesting; They **themselves** think everyone should know about this event; You **yourself** should tell your parents about it.

In the Uzbek language English intensive pronouns' function is performed by the reflexive pronoun **o'z** (as it is in the English language) ,which receives the affixal morphemes of possession and is declined by all Uzbek case forms: **o'zim/o'zing/o'zi/o'zimiz/o'zlari/o'zimni/o'zimning/o'zimga/o'zim da/o'zimdan**: Siz **o'zingiz** bu haqda aytishingiz kerak edi; Karimaning **o'zi** keldi.

Possessive pronouns have the same distinctions of person, number as personal pronouns. Possessive pronouns have two forms : the dependent form and the independent form (absolute). **The dependent forms are** : my, his, her, its (in singular), our, your , their (in plural). **Absolute forms are** : mine, his, hers (in singular) , ours, yours, theirs (in plural). The dependent form is used in the function of the attribute : In **his** turn old Jolyon looked back at **his** son. (Galsworthy). The absolute form of the possessive pronoun is used in the functions of the subject, predicative, attribute and object : I said that phone was **mine** (predicative**);** I didn't have my textbook for English class, so Brian lent me **his** (object) ; That's not their house. **Theirs** has got a red front door(subject); I saw a **friend of yours** last night (attribute): absolute possessive pronoun used with the preposition **of** (**a friend of yours**) preceded with the word modified performs the function of the attribute .

In the Uzbek language the function of the English possessive pronouns (dependent forms) is performed by the nouns' category of possession **: my** book- kitob**im**; your book- kitob**ing**; his/her book – kitob**i**; our book- kitob**imiz** ; their book- kitob**lari**. Independent (absolute) forms of the English possessive pronouns' function is

performed by the Uzbek personal pronoun with the form of possession –**niki:** This book is yours <Bu kiob se**niki**; This book is hers<Bu kitob u**niki**; This book is ours<Bu kitob biz**niki**; This book is theirs<Bu kitob ular**niki**.

Reciprocal pronouns are the group-pronouns **each other** and **one another** used to indicate the two or more people are carrying out or have carried out an action of some type , with both receiving   the benefits or consequences of that action simultaneously. When we want to refer to two people **each other** is used. When refering to more than two people **one another** is used (but this rule is not always observed) : Maria and Juan gave **each other** gold rings on their wedding day. The kids   spent the afternoon   kicking the ball   to **one another**. Reciprocal pronouns can be used in the genitive case : They helped to look after **each other's** children; The group of students often stayed in **one another's** houses and did their lessons together. The reciprocal pronouns are not used in the function of the subject . Reciprocal pronouns in the common case are used in the function of the object, in the genitive case and they are used in the function of the attribute : Elizabeth   and   George   talked   and   found   **each   other** delightful.(Aldington)-object ; They looked at **each other's** face for a while.- attribute.

Conjunctive pronouns are **who, what, whose, which** not only point back to some person or thing mentioned before, but also have conjunctive power introducing subject, object and predicative clauses : I don't want to hear **what** you have come for.(Galsworthy)- subject clause. In the clause they introduce- they perform the functions of the subject, attribute , object : **What** is he- is not important(subject); She wanted to know the subject **which** was interesting for her parents as well .-attribute. **What** she concealed - everybody found out.-object.

Defining pronouns are **all, each, every, everybody, everything, either, both, other, another**. These pronouns are used in the functions of subject, predicative, object, attribute : He just loved me, that is **all**.(London)- predicative; He payed a dollar **each**. (London)-object ; It is true, **every** line of it. (London)- attribute ; You knew almost **everybody**.(Mansfield)-object ; Of course, class is **everything** really.(Galsworthy)- predicative. **Either** has two meanings :1. each of the two , 2. one or the other. In the sentence it is usually used as an attribute or part of the subject: You can place the table **on either side**

of the room (attribute) ; Personally, I don't like **either** jacket (attribute) ; **Either of the children** can come with us ; we don't mind which (part of the subject).

Other has two numbers and two cases: singular/plural –**other-others**; common case/genitive case –**other's/others'**. The pronouns **everybody** and **everyone** also have two case forms : the common case/the genitive case : **Everybody** is in the room – **Everybody's** room is ready now.

The pronoun **another** has two meanings :1.a different one, 2. an additional one: Will you give me **another** pen, it doesn't write (a different one) ; **Another** month of this year , and we'll finish the construction (an additional one).

In the Uzbek language there are the following pronouns which perform the function of the English defining pronouns: **hamma, bari, jami, barcha,**

butun, yalpi. Pronouns **hamma, bari, barcha** receive the affixal morphemes of possession: **hammamiz/hammangiz/hammalari; barimiz/baringiz/barisi/barilari; barchamiz/barchangiz/barchalari**. Pronouns **barcha, hamma, bari , yalpi** are declined by all Uzbek case forms : **Hammani/hammaning/ hammaga/hammada/hammadan, barchani/barchaning/barchaga/ barchada/barchadan, barini/barining/bariga/barida/baridan**; The function of the English defining pronoun **each** is performed by the Uzbek pronoun **har** which has the following forms: **har kim/har nima/har qanday/har qaysi/har qancha/har qalay/har bir/ har bitta/ har holda**. **Har kim/ har nima/ har qaysi/ har bitta/ har bir** are declined by all Uzbek case forms. The capability of being declined and receiving the affixal morphemes of possession are the distinctive characteristic of the Uzbek pronouns.

Negative pronouns are no, none , nothing, nobody, no one, neither . **Nobody** may be used in the genitive case : **Nobody's** answer satisfied the teacher (attribute); The pronoun **nothing** may be used as subject, predicative, object: There is **nothing** to worry about (subject) ; This is **nothing** but nonsense (predicative) ; She brought **nothing** with her but the feeling of adventure(Galsworthy)-object. The pronoun **neither** is opposite to **either** and **both** ; it is used as subject, object, attribute: **Neither** told the truth (subject) ; I like **neither** of them (object) ; We approved **neither** plan (attribute). The pronoun **no** may

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be used before a noun as an attribute : **No** dreams were possible…..(Braine)-attribute. The pronoun **none** refers both to human beings or things : **None of us** – none of us can hold on for ever ! (Galsworthy); None of the rooms is suitable for us.

In the Uzbek language negative pronouns are formed by the combination of the word **hech** with the interrogative pronouns : **hech kim, hech nima, hech qanday**, **hech kimniki**: Uning shahardan ketganini hech kim bilmas edi. **Hech kim/hech nima/ hech kimniki** are declined by all Uzbek case forms : **hech kimni/hech kimning/hech kimga/ hech kimda/ hech kimdan** .

The most distinctive peculiarity of the Uzbek pronouns is that they are declined in all Uzbek case forms. English personal pronouns having the meaning of objective and possessive case forms have been preserved from the Old English language, as they exist as independent words out of the sentence and are the lexemes included in the vocabulary (whom,whose,our,your,his, her,their, etc.). In the Uzbek language pronouns receiving case forms take place in the course of making a sentence, in the course of speech (mening, sening, hammaga, barchadan, hechkimdan, etc.).

Self- control questions :

1.Give the definition to the pronoun.

2.Give the classification of the pronoun.

3.Give the definition to the personal pronoun.

4.Name the English and Uzbek personal pronouns.

5.What typological similarities and distinctions are there between English and Uzbek personal pronouns?

6.Give the definition of the English possessive pronouns.

7. What is the difference between English and Uzbek possessive pronouns?

8.What Uzbek pronouns are the equivalents of the English possessive pronouns?

9.Give the definition of the demonstrative pronouns.

10.Name English and Uzbek demonstrative pronouns.

11.What typological similarities and distinctions are there between English and Uzbek demonstrative pronouns ?

12.Give the definition of the reflexive pronouns.

13.Name English and Uzbek reflexive pronouns.

14. What typological similarities and distinctions are there between English and Uzbek reflexive pronouns?

15. Give the definition of the reciprocal pronouns .

16. Name the reciprocal pronouns in English and their equivalents in the Uzbek language.

17. Speak about the typological peculiarities of the English reciprocal pronouns.

18. Give the definition of the interrogative pronouns in the English and Uzbek languages.

19. What typological similarities and distincions are there between English and Uzbek interrogative pronouns?

20. Give the definition of the English relative pronouns and their equivalents in the Uzbek language.

21. Name the English conjunctive pronouns and their equivalents in Uzbek.

22. Give the definition of the English and Uzbek defining pronouns.

23. Name the English and Uzbek defining pronouns.

24. What typological similarities and distinctions are there between English and Uzbek defining pronouns?

25. Give the definition of the indefinite pronouns.

26. Name the English and Uzbek indefinite pronouns.

27. What typological similarities and distinctions are there between English and Uzbek defining pronouns?

28. Give the definition of the negative pronouns.

29. Name negative pronouns in the English and Uzbek languages.

30. What typological similarities and distinctions are there between English and Uzbek negative pronouns?

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5. NUMERALS IN THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

Plan:
1.English and Uzbek numerals according to the structure
2.English and Uzbek numerals according to the meaning

Basic concepts of the subject:

Determiner, specify, quantity, sequence, frequency, fractional, cardinal, ordinal, measurement, decimal, numeratives, integral, mixed numerals, suppositional, multiplicative

In linguistics a numeral in the broadest sense is a word or phrase that describes a numerical quantity. Some theories of grammar use word "numeral" to refer to cardinal numbers that act as a determiner that specify the quantity of a noun, for example the "two" in "two hats". Some theories of grammar do not include determiners as a part of

speech and consider "two" in this example to be an adjective. In some other theories numerals in the broad sense are analyzed as 1) a noun (**three** is a small number) or as 2) an adverb (I've read this novel **twice**). But it is reasonable to consider the first case (**three**) not as a noun, but the cardinal numeral used in the function of the subject and the second case (**twice**) not as the adverb, but the multiplicative numeral (numeral expressing frequency) used in the function of the adverbial modifier. Numerals express relationships like **quantity** (cardinal numerals), **sequence** (ordinal numerals), **frequency** (once, twice) and **part** (fraction).

Numerals may be attributive: **two** books, or pronominal: I saw **two** (of them). Many words of different parts of speech indicate number or quantity. Such words are called quantifiers, such as every, most, least, some, etc. Numerals are distinguished from other quantifiers and numeratives by the fact that they designate a specific number. They can be used in the function of a noun (dozen), in the function of an adjective (first), in the function of an adverb (twice). Numerals can be simple (ten, seven), compound (twenty- three, fifty- five).

Numerals are counting numbers that provide information about the amount of the object. A numeral is a figure , symbol, or group of figures or symbols denoting a number. It is a part of speech denoting numbers. Like other determiners, numerals, as we have seen above, perform the function of determinatives. Numerals in English may appear within determiner phrases: Six **of the children** failed the exam. She enjoyed all four **of the movies**. Pick out **any of the** three books. We washed **some of the** 20 windows.

Types of English numerals according to the meaning: Cardinal numerals, ordinal numerals, fractional numerals.

Cardinal numerals bigger than 20 are used with a hyphen between two parts : twenty-one, fifty-five, ninety-nine; **numerals bigger than hundred** are used with **a hyphen** between compound numeral and the word **and:** a/one hundred **and** twenty –one , three hundred and twenty-six, nine hundred **and** ninety-nine; in American English **and** is mostly not used. **Numerals bigger than 1,000** are used with a **hyphen** between compound numerals and the word **and** (a thousand or one thousand): a/one thousand **and** one hundred **and** twenty-one (1,121), two thousand **and** three hundred **and** fifty-

six(2,356), three hundred **and** five thousand **and** two hundred **and** thirty-four(305,234).

There are different words for the numeral **O:**

1)oh – for telephone numbers and codes: 67890(six-seven-eight-nine-oh);

2)zero- for measurements (temperature) : -5C (five degrees Celsius below zero);

3)nought- for figure **O** in British English : 5-5=0 (five minus five leaves nought;

4)nil – for results in sport : The match ended 2-0. The match ended two-nil;

5)love – for tennis : 40-0 (forty-love); in American English **zero** is used.

Cardinal numerals indicate exact number, they are used in counting.The cardinal numerals such as **hundred, thousand, million** may be used with articles and they may be substantivized and used in the plural: hundreds, thousands, millions.The word **million** may or may not be used in plural: two million/two millions. If it is followed by other cardinal numeral plurality is not used: **two million** five hundred inhabitants.

Ordinal numerals are used with the addition of affixes -**th, -nd, -rd** to the end of the cardinal numeral: $1^{st}<$ first, $2^{nd}<$second, $3^{rd}<$third, $4^{th}<$fourth, $9^{th}<$ninth,$12^{th}<$twelfth, $20^{th}<$twentieth. Ordinal numerals show the order of persons or things in a series. In ordinal groups only the last number of the group takes the ordinal form and the ordinal numerals are used with the definite article **the:** the sixty-fifth, the twenty-third. The ordinal numerals are used with the indefinite article when they do not show a definie order of persons or things in a series: "I've torn simply miles and miles of the frill",wailed **a third** (Mansfield).

Fractional numerals are used **with the ordinal numeral** for the denominator:1/3< one **third**, 2 3/5<two and three **fifth** . Exeptions:1/2< **one half, ¼<one quarter.** Decimal **fractional numarels** are used with the cardinal numerals: 3.8>three point **eight,** 4.25<four point **two five. Roman numerals** are used for the names of kings and queens **with the ordinal number:** Elizabeth II< Elizabeth the Second.

In mathematics , a percentage (from Latin per centum "by a hundred") is a number or ratio expressed as a fraction of 100. It is often

used to denote the percent sign " %", although the abbreviations " pct", and sometimes "pc" are also used. A percentage is a dimensionless number;   it has no unit of measurement: 45%(read as forty-five percent) is equal to the fraction 45/100. Percentages are often used to express a proportionate part to a total. In Uzbek percentage in numeral is formed by the combination of the cardinal numeral and the word **foyiz**(percent): 45% is read as **qirq besh foyiz**, 100%- **yuz foyiz**.

According to the structure   numerals are classified into simple and composite. These numerals are grouped into **integral (whole-butun)** numerals: one, two, ten, twenty-five, seventeen -   bir, besh, o'n besh, yigirma besh, **fractional** numerals(one third, two fifth - ikkidan bir, beshdan ikki) and **mixed numerals**(one and a half - bir yarim, ikki butun o'ndan uch).

According to the meaning Uzbek numerals are classified into six groups: **1.Numerals of measure**: qirq besh, ikki ming to'qqiz yuz ellik besh. As we see in Uzbek these numerals are formed without adding any affixal morphemes or without the usage of any other auxiliary words. In English as we have seen above while forming numerals of measure consisting of more than two numerals the word **and** is used: Three thousand and two hundred twenty- five. **2. Numerals expressing piece, an object (dona** in Uzbek**)** ; these numerals in Uzbek are formed by adding affix –**ta** to the end of numerals of measure: besh**ta**, o'n**ta**. Sometimes the word **dona** is used instead of adding the affix –**ta** to the numeral of measure: yuz dona, ikki dona. In English in these cases the numerals of measure don't change:Ten books, twenty- five pupils. **3. Ordinal numerals** are formed by the addition of the affix to the end of the cardinal numeral –**nchi/-inchi** : yettinchi sinf, beshinchi bola, ikkinchi sinf. As we have seen it above, in English these numerals are formed by the addition of the affix **–th, -nd, -rd** to the end of cardinal numerals: fifth, second, third. Some of English ordinal numerals are formed on the lexical level of the language: **first, second**. **4**. **Suppositional numerals(chama sonlar)** are formed by adding affixes –**tacha, -larcha, -lab**, –**lar**: o'ntacha, yuzlarcha, minglab; in English this meaning is expressed on the lexical-syntactic level of the language: about 25, about hundred, about thousand; sometimes the meaning of supposition is expressed by adding the affix of plurality **"-s"** in combination with the preposition **of** : hundred**s** of…, thousand**s** of…, million**s** of… .**5. Collective numerals** are formed by adding

affixes **–ov, -ala** to the end of the numerals of measure: ikkov, beshov, uchala. These Uzbek numerals are given into English by the following way where the numeral signifies several persons or things taken definitely and unitedly in the sense of **both two, all three, all four** , and sometimes they are given as: two of them- ikkov, five of them – beshov: Biz beshov keldik - Five of us came; Ular uchov kelishdi - Three of them came. **6. In Uzbek percentage in numerals** is formed by the combination of cardinal numeral with the word **foyiz**(percent): 45% is read as **qirq besh foyiz**, 100% - **yuz foyiz**.

Similarities and distinctions between English and Uzbek pronouns:

1. In the English and Uzbek languages numerals are not formed from other parts of speech;

2. In the English and Uzbek languages ordinal numerals are formed by adding affixal morpheme to the end of cardinal numerals on the morphological level of the language: besh**inchi-** fif**th**, olti**nchi** - six**th**, o'n**inchi**- ten**th** ; some of the English ordinal numerals are formed on the lexical level of the language: **first, second**;

3. In the English and Uzbek languages cardinal numerals as adjectives can be substantivized and be used in the function of the subject: **ikki** karra **ikk**i to'rt- **two** and **two** is four;

4. In the English and Uzbek languages numerals are used with numeratives : **o'n ikki yashar** qiz - **a twelve years** old girl;

5. Uzbek collective numerals are used in the function of the subject: Ikk**ovi** bog'da o'tirishibti. In English in this case the numeral doesn't receive any affixal morpheme, it doesn't change its form: **Three** were absent from the lesson. In Uzbek in this case the numeral receives the affixal morpheme of the category of possession (egalik kategoriyasi: ikkov**i,** ikkov**ingiz**, uchov**imiz**);

6. In the English and Uzbek languages cardinal numerals can be used in the function of the object: Birni kessang **o'nni** ek(proverb)- How many books have you bought from this shop? -I have bought **three**;

7. In the English and Uzbek languages ordinal numerals are used in the function of the attribute: **To'rtinchi** kurs talabalari pedagogic amaliyotga chiqishdi -A **fourth** year students went to school on pedagogical practice;

8. In the English and Uzbek languages cardinal numerals can be used in the function of the nominal predicate: Uch karra o'n **o'ttiz** . In English in this case the numeral is used in the function of the nominal part (predicative) of the compound nominal predicate: I am **seventeen**;

9. Uzbek and English ordinal numerals also can be used in the functions of the subject, object and predicate: Qaysi raqam shifokor qabuliga kirdi?- **Beshinchi.** Whose turn is it now? –**The tenth** (subject); Qaysi kiobni tanladingiz?- Men **ikkinchisini** tanladim. Which book have you chosen?- I have chosen the **second** (object).U **birinchi** (predicate). She was the **first** to leave the room (predicative/nominal part of the compound nominal predicate).

10. n the English and Uzbek languages numerals like adjectives and adverbs express definition. Adjectives define the quality of objects, adverbs define actions and states, numerals define measure and number of objects;

11. In the English and Uzbek languages according to the meaning numerals are classified into cardinal,ordinal, fractional;

12. In the English and Uzbek languages according to the structure numerals are classified into simple , compound, fractional: eleven, ten, two , besh, ikki, o'n (simple); yigirma besh, o'n besh- twenty five, thirty three, sixteen, seventeen; 1/3< one **third**, 2 3/5<two and three **fifth** - 4/1<to'rtdan bir, 3/2<uchdan ikki. In this case both in the English and Uzbek languages fractional numerals are formed on the syntactical level of the language: in English cardinal numeral is combined with the ordinal numeral, in Uzbek two cardinal numerals are combined where the first one receives the affix of the ablative case **-dan** (chiqish kelishik);

13. In the English and Uzbek languages numerals are used in the funcions of the subject (**two** and **two** is four- **ikki** karra **ikki** to'rt), object (How many books have you bought? –I have bought **two**- Nechata kitob sotib oldingiz? –Men **ikkita** sotib oldim), attribute (The **second** girl is my daughter- **Ikkinchi** qiz mening qizim), predicate (I am **seventeen**: in English numeral is the nominal part of the compound nominal pedicate : it is the predicative- Men o'n sakkiz**da**/ Besh karra besh **yigirma besh**. Examples show that in Uzbek in the function of the nominal predicate the numeral receives the affix of the locative case(o'rin-payt kelishigi) **–da** ; in English the numeral in the function of the predicative doesn't change its form;

14. In the English and Uzbek languages numerals differ from numeratives such as dona, nafar, nusxa, siqim, bog'lam, tup, bosh, minut, parcha, chimdim, qultum, tomchi - piece, bunch, handful, minute, bit, pinch, drop and etc.

The most typological distinctive character of the Uzbek numerals from the English numerals is that Uzbek numerals can be declined: besh- beshni –beshning –beshga –beshda –beshdan.

Self-control questions:
1.Give theoretical interpretation to the numeral.

2 Analize English numerals according to the structure.

3. Analize Uzbek numerals according to the structure.

4. Describe English numerals according to the meaning.

5. Describe Uzbek numerals according to the meaning.

6. Speak about structural similiarities and distinctions between English and Uzbek numerals.

7. Give the classification of English numerals according to the meaning.

8. Give the classification of Uzbek numerals according to the meaning.

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6. TYPOLOGY OF ADVERBS IN THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

Plan*:*

1.Basic types of adverbs in the English and Uzbek languages
2.Functions of adverbs in the English and Uzbek sentences
3.The classification of adverbs according to the structure
3.Similarities and distinctions between English and Uzbek adverbs

Basic concepts of the subject:

Intensify, adverbs of time, place, manner, frequency, degree and measure, conjunctive adverbs, adverbs of reason and purpose, absolute rule, modify, independent clauses , relative adverbs, essentional, optional, participial construction, relative clauses, adverbial participle, diminutive meaning

An adverb is a word that modifies (describes) a verb (He speaks English **fluently,** He sang **sweetly)**, an adjective (He is **very tall,** She is **usually intelligent**), another adverb (The meeting ended **too quickly,** He ran **very quickly**) or even a whole sentence (This student used to keep talking in class, **therefore he got in trouble**).

Adverbs can tell us how something is done, how much or how many of something we have. Adverbs provide a deeper description of a verb within any sentence.

There are the following types of adverbs in the English and Uzbek languages: adverbs of manner, adverbs of time, adverbs of place, adverbs of frequency, adverbs of degree and measure, adverbs of reason and purpose, conjunctive adverbs (conjunctive adverbs are used in the English language).

Adverbs of time provide more information about when an action or some state takes place. Adverbs of time are usually placed at the

beginning or at the end of the sentence. When it is of particular importance to express the moment something happened we'll put it at the beginning of the sentence. These adverbs are: never, lately, just, always, recently, during, yet, soon, sometimes, usually, so far, hozir, boya, hali, endi, oldin, burun, avval, bultur, tunov kun, yaqinda, hamisha, hanuz, hamon, bugun, indin , keyin, so'ng , dastlab, har kuni, qishin-yozin, erta-indin: We have **recently** bought a new flat. I haven't seen him **yet**. **Bugun** mehmonlar keladi.

Adverbs of place show where the action or some state takes place. It is usually placed after the main verb or object, or at the end of the sentence. These adverbs are: here, there, nowhere, everywhere, out, in, above, below, inside, outside, into, oldinda, uzoqda, yaqinda, pastda, nari, quyida: They looked for him **everywhere**. The sentences given **above** show types of adverbs. Tog' cho'qqilari **uzoqda** ko'rinib turibti.

Adverbs of manner provide information about how an action is performed. Most of these adverbs are formed by adding affix – **ly** to the end of an adjective in English, in Uzbek these adverbs are formed by affixation or they are root adverbs**:** neatly, slowly, quickly, sadly, calmly, politely, loudly, kindly, lazily, qo'qqisdan, bexosdan, sekin, astoydil, yayov, piyoda, ketma-ket, arang, zimdan, bazo'r, zo'rg'a: She **politely** opened the door and greeted the guests sitting round the table in the hall. The cat was resting **lazily** on the sofa. Sharofatbibi ro'molini salgina tuzatib, so'ri tomon **asta** yurib bordi (O.). Keyin o'ylab ko'rib, **birgalashib** kirishga rozi bo'ldilar (X.Qodiriy).

Adverbs of degree and measure express the level or intensity of an action, quality, quantity or some state. These adverbs are: almost, quite, nearly, too, enough, just, hardly, simply, much, a little, a bit, so, extremely, quite, just, almost, juda, g'oyat, nihoyatda, har qancha, aslo, obdon, mo'l-ko'l: I was   **so** excited to see him there.The water was **extremely** cold. The movie is **quite** interesting. He was **just** leaving. She has **almost** finished. Kechga yaqin **bir oz** charchadik. **Har qancha** gapirsangiz ham bilganidan qolmaydi. **Mo'l-ko'l** nur to'kar , ko'kdan qadrdon quyoshimiz (E.Vohidov).

Adverbs of frequency express how often the action occurs. They are usually placed directly before the main verb of the sentence. These adverbs are : rarely, usually, always, sometimes, seldom, again, ba'zan, doim, ko'pincha, kamdan-kam, odatda, sira, tez-tez: We **usually** play

football on Sundays.They **rarely** speak about it.Ular **kamdan-kam** bu haqda gapirishadi.U **ba'zan** kelib turadi.

Adverbs of reason and purpose express the reason or the purpose of the action or state performed. These adverbs are: therefore, hence, because, so, since , thus, consequently, so that, in order to, noiloj, chorasiz, noilojlikdan, chorasizlikdan , atayin, jo'rttaga, qasddan: Qunduzoyning qistashi bilan **noiloj** birinchi qatorga borib o'tirdi (Oydin) - adverb of reason. Yuksak binolar tomon , bordik bizlar **atayin** (Po'lat Mo'min) -adverb of reason. U **jo'rttaga** bu lavhani eslatdi (adverb of purpose). **Since** it is snowing , I am feeling very cold (adverb of reason). **Because** Lola was sick , she stayed home (adverb of reason). There was not enough light, **hence** the match was called off (adverb of reason).Concentrate and study **in order to** memorize important points (adverb of purpose).

Conjunctive adverbs (these adverbs are not included in the sysem of basic types of adverbs, but they are productive in the structure of the English language) join two independent sentences or clauses of any kind. These adverbs connect two parts into one long sentence. These parts may be whole sentences that need to be connected into one sentence or smaller clauses that need to be connected as well. Like other adverbs , conjunctive adverbs may be moved around in the sentence or clause in which they appear. A period or semicolon is used before the conjunctive adverb when separating two independent clauses. We use a comma if conjunctions such as **and, but, or, so** appear between the conjunctive adverb and the first clause.We use a comma behind conjunctive adverbs when they appear at the beginning of a sentence's second clause. The exception is that no comma is necessary if the adverb is a single syllable. If a conjunctive adverb appears in the middle of a clause , it should be enclosed in commas . It is not an absolute rule and does not normally apply to short clauses. Conjunctive adverbs are : therefore, however, in fact, in addition, on the other hand, additionally, moreover, unless, otherwise, besides, contrarily, in contrast, accordingly, likewise, instead, anyway, as a result, consequently , finally: She went into the store , **however**, she didn' find anything she wanted to buy. This student used to keep talking in class, **therefore** he got in trouble.

Functions of adverbs. Adverbs can perform a wide range of functions: they can modify verbs, adjectives, and even other adverbs. They can come either before or after the word they modify: He **speaks** English **fluently**; You are **quite right;** She sang **very loudly.** U ingliz tilida **ravon gapiradi**. Bu bino **juda baland**. U **nihoyatda tez** gapirdi.

Adverbs may provide information about the manner, place, time, frequency, certainty , or other circumstances of the activity indicated by the verb: She spoke **loudly** - U **baland** gapirdi (modifies manner of speaking);We left the book **here-** Biz kitobni **shu yerda** qoldirdik (modifies the place of the action); I worked in the garden **yesterday** – Men bog'da **kecha** ishladim (modifies the time of the action); She **often** makes grammar mistakes – U **tez-tez** grammatik xatolarga yo'l qo'yadi (modifies the frequency of the action).

Adverbs can modify noun phrases, prepositional phrases, or whole clauses or sentences: I've bought **only the fruit** (modifies the noun phrase **the fruit**) -Men **faqatgina meva** sotib oldim (in Uzbek the adverb **faqatgina** modifies the noun , where the affix –**gina** expresses diminution); He drove us **almost to the university** (modifies the prepositional phrase **to the station**) - U bizni **deyarli universitetgacha** olib bordi (in Uzbek the adverb **deyarli** modifies the noun in the dative case –**ga**) ; We must **certainly** be polite - Biz **albatta** xushmuomala bo'lishimiz lozim (modifies the sentence as a whole).

Adverbs formed by the affix **-ly** can have the category of the degrees of comparison: in this case function words **more** and **most** are used before the adverb: more slowly< most slowly; this way of expressing the category of the degrees of comparison of adverbs is performed on the morphological level of the language analytically: by the combination of the function word with the notional one: quietly< more quietly<most quietly, slowly<more slowly<most slowly, seriously< more seriously<most seriously: The teacher spoke **more slowly** to help us to undersand. With short adverbs which do not end in affix **–ly** comparative and superlative forms are identical to adjectives: hard-harder-hardest, fast-faster-fastest, late-later-latest: Akbar works **harder** than his brother. Everyone in the race ran fast, but Akbar ran **fastest** of all. There are few adverbs which express the category of the degrees of comparison by suppletive form: well<better<best, badly<worse<worst, much<more<most, little<lest<least: He did **well**, she did **better**, and I did **best**. In Uzbek adverbs of manner, time and

measure can have the categoy of comparison: positive degree/comparative degree: tez<tezroq, asta<astaroq, sekin<sekinroq (adverbs of manner), erta<ertaroq, oldin<oldinroq, avval<avvalroq, keyin<keyinroq (adverbs of time), oz<ozroq, kam<kamroq, ko'p<ko'proq (adverbs of measure and degree). Some adverbs in Uzbek receive the affix –**gina** and express **diminutive meaning**: oz**gina**, tez**gina**, birpas**gina**.

Relative adverbs are a subclass of adverbs that deal with space, time and reason; these adverbs (when, where , why) are used to connect ideas about where ,when and why things happen. They serve to introduce relative clauses that provide additional information on the subject matter of the statement; information may be **essential** (in defining relative clauses) or **optional** (in non-defining relative clauses): It was 4 o'clock **when** the guests arrived (here the relative adverb **when** is used in the non-defining relative clause). The building **where** my father works is two hundred years old (here the relative adverb **where** is used in defining relative clause). This is exactly **why** you should wear a helmet (the relative adverb **why** is used to express the reason of the information , given in the principle clause).That's the restaurant **where** we met for the first time. I remember the day **when** we first met .Tell me **why** you came home late. Do you want to know **why** he is angry with you? Relative English adverbs are conveyed in the Uzbek language by the particle –**ki** added to the word **kim** (kimki) or to **the verb** (biling**ki**) , by the words **qayerda, deb** in the relative clauses and by **participial consruction**:**Kimki** samimiy bo'lsa uning ishlari o'ngidan kelaveradi. **Kechqurun maktabga kelganda** , kechaning tantanali qismi tugagan edi. Shuni biling**ki**, oila a'zolari bir-biri bilan juda inoq ekan.**Qayerda** adolat bo'lsa o'sha yerda yutuq bo'ladi. Sizni qo'rqib ketmasin **deb**, kechqurun bezovta qilmadik.

English and Uzbek adverbs are included in the system of parts of speech which don't change their appearance morphologically (besides those adverbs which can have the category of the degrees of comparison). The adverbs in the Uzbek language which receive case forms don't express the relation among the words in the sentence, but these case forms are used to form derivative adverbs; these case forms in this case are not word changing morphemes, but they are word forming morphemes. In the Uzbek language almost all parts of speech except adverbs can be declined:

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bola/bolaga/boladan/bolada/bolani/bolaning(nouns), ikkini/ikkiga/ikkining/ikkida…(numerals), menda/mening/menga…(pronouns), yaxshini/yaxshiga/yaxshining/yaxshidan…(adjectives), o'qishni/o'qishga/o'qishning/o'qishdan…(infinitive-harakat nomi), kelganni/kelganning/kelgandan/kelganga…(participle), etc.

In the Uzbek language affixal morphemes of case forms (bosh**da**, boshdan, ehtiyot**dan,** orqa**ga**), affixal morphemes of the category of possession (bosh**i**da, o'ng**i**da), affixes of the adverbial participle –**ib/-b** (paypasla**b,** to'plash**ib, yuqori**lab) , affixal morpheme expressing supposition **–cha/-larcha** (added to the noun or adjective: rus**cha**, birodarlar**cha**, mardlar**cha**, do'stlar**cha, ochiqchasiga,**) , affixes of the adverbial participle -**guncha/-gancha** (to'y**guncha,** yugur**gancha**) and many other affixes are used to form derivative adverbs from other parts of speech.

In the English language affixes –**ly** (painfully, calmly, easily, quickly), -**ward/wards** (downwards, upwards, homeward(s), -**wise** (lengthwise, clockwise, edgewise),-**ily**, **-ally** (voluntarily, accidentally, customarily, fashionably) are used to form derivative adverbs from other parts of speech.

According to the structure the adverbs are: **simple** (nuqul, mudom, enough, then, there), **derivative** (batamom, takabburona, yigitchasiga, slowly, fluently), **compound** (bir oz, bir yo'la, birpas, anyhow, sometimes), **composite** (at once, at last, in fact, in order, bu yerda, shu yerda, hech qachon, hamma vaqt).

In Uzbek there exist **paired and repeated adverbs**: eson-omon, zo'rg'a-zo'rg'a, oz-moz (paired adverbs) , asta-asta, sekin-sekin(repeated adverbs).

Similarities between English and Uzbek adverbs:

1. According to meaning adverbs in the English and Uzbek languages are classified into adverbs of time, place, manner, measure and degree, frequency, reason and purpose;

2. According to morphological peculiarities, in both compared languages some adverbs have the category of comparison. In English: positive degree<comparative degree<superlative degree; in Uzbek: positive degree<comparative degree;

3. According to the structure, in both compared languages there are simple, derivative, compound and composite adverbs;

4. Derivative adverbs in these languages are formed by various affixes from different patrs of speech;

5. According to function English and Uzbek adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, another adverb, or even a whole sentence;

6.The diminutive meaning in both compared languages is expressed by adding affixes to the words of other parts of speech , and to the adverb as well : minutely, shortly, lowly, dumpily, slimly (in English), tezgina, ozgina, birpasgina (in Uzbek).

Distinctions between English and Uzbek adverbs:

1. In the English language some adverbs' category of the degrees of comparison consists of three forms: positive<comparative<superlative, in Uzbek this category consists of two forms: positive<comparative;

2. In Uzbek derivative adverbs can be formed by adding case forms (these case forms don't express the relation among the words in the sentence, they are not word-changing morphemes, they are word-forming morphemes) to the words of other parts of speech, even to the adverbs as well, this phenomenon doesn't exist in English;

3. In English paired adverbs have not been observed (in Uzbek these adverbs exist: asta-sekin, eson-omon, oz-moz). In English there exist **pairing adverbs** with synonymous meaning: almost/absolutely/completely/entirely/fully/mainly etc.;

4. In English repeated adverbs have not been observed (in Uzbek these adverbs exist: asta-asta, sekin-sekin). In English there exist **repeating adverbs**:The dichotomy can at times be **too** inclusive or **too** exclusive (the second **too** can be omitted);

5.In Uzbek adverb forming affixes are more productive than they are in English

Self-control questions:

1.Speak about classification of English and Uzbek adverbs according to the meaning;

2.Speak about classification of English and Uzbek adverbs according to the structure;

3.Speak about the category of the degrees of comparison of adverbs in the English and Uzbek languages;

4.Do all adverbs in the English and Uzbek languages have the category of the degrees of comparison?

5.Can we express the degrees of comparison of Uzbek adverbs by suppletive forms?

6.Can English and Uzbek adverbs be declined?

7.What is the function of case forms used in Uzbek adverbs?

8.What is the function of English conjunctive adverbs?

9.What is the function of English relative adverbs?

10.How do we express the function of English relative adverbs in the Uzbek language?

11.What similarities exist beween English and Uzbek adverbs?

12.What distinctions exist between English and Uzbek adverbs?

The list of recommended literature:

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

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PART 3. ACTIVITIES ON COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY OF THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

1. THE SUBJECT MATTER OF THE LINGUISTIC TYPOLOGY

Activity 1. Classify the following statement

A. Genetic typology

B. Areal typology

C. Comparative typology

D. Structural typology

1.   The ultimate goal this typology is identifying universal features of languages.

2.   One of the independent branches of linguistic typology, which compares language systems and studies the degree of expansion and proximity of language properties which are geographically conditioned

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

4.   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 Vbstokov, V.M.Jirmunskiy,

5.   It deals with the comparison of languages irrespectively of their genetic or structural identity.

6.   Studies the similarities, and diversities of originally related languages.

7.   The major principle of this typology is binarity: thus initially two genetically and/or structurally different languages are compared as the representatives of their genetic /structural groups.

8.   Has 4 branches: language universals; typological classification; ethalon language; typological theory.

Activity 2. Fill the table with the names of representatives of each school.

Hockette, Jacob Grimm, Roman Jacobson, Franz Bopp, Rasmus Rask, B. Uspenskiy, Yu.Rojdestvenskiy.Alexander Vostokov, V.M.Jirmunskiy, Ghak V.G. V.R Nedyalkov, Ch.

Genetic typology	Areal typology	Comparative typology	Structural typology

Activity 3. Circle the correct answer.

1. What does the term 'typology' mean?

A. It consists of two Greek morphemes: a) typosmeans "type" and b) logos means "science".

B. It consists of two Latin morphemes: a) typosmeans "type" and b) logos means "subject".

C. It consists of two Greek morphemes: a) typosmeans "tipe" and b) logos means "science".

D. It consists of two Sanskrit morphemes: a) typosmeans "type" and b) logos means "subject".

2. What is the role of Typology in Linguistics?

a) deals with identifying universal principles of the comparative description of the systems of national languages;

b) deals with identifying systemic features and discover typological isomorphism which can be conditioned structurally, genetically and geographically;

c) analyses historic facts and produces comparative inventory based on the history of each nation/ethnicity to reveal general trends, differences, and similarities;

d) 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.

3. What directions of comparative typological investigations are known to

us?

a) substantialand non-substantial

b) internal and external

c) synchronically and diachronically

d) all of them

4. What is the Non-Linguistic typology?

a) with identifying universal principles of the comparative description of the systems of national languages;

b) the subject matter of the sciences except linguistics;

c) 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;

d) analyses historic facts and produces comparative inventory based on the history of each nation/ethnicity to reveal general trends, differences, and similarities.

5. How did Dr. Buranov classify Comparative Typology?

a) he presented 4 main periods

b) he explained 6 factors

c) he suggested 3 criteties for classification

d) he developed the idea of approaches in language comparison

Activity 4. Make a mini presentation on the theme "Modern directions of comparative typological investigations".

2. MAIN PERIODS AND FACTORS OF DEVELOPMENT AND THE MAIN PARAMETERS MODIFYING SUBJECT MATTER AND BRANCHES OF THE LINGUISTIC TYPOLOGY

Activity 1. Fill the table with "YES" and "NO"

1. The linguistic typology investigates only private cases of similarity and distinctions in the structures of languages.
2. The language is the system of signs, which has two aspects: the plan of expression and the plan of meaning.
3. The linguistic typology defines those features, which separate languages and those ones, which unite them.
4. General typology studies the problems of speech, which studies the theory of classification and systematization on the basis of comparative method.
5. It is a dependent science, and does not have its own structure and methods of research. General typology is divided into linguistic typology and non-linguistic typology.
6. There are two approaches to language description: 1) Internal 2) External.
7. The subject matter of linguistic typology is not a disputable problem at all.

Yes	No
	Ex: The linguistic typology investigates only private cases of similarity and distinctions in the structures of languages.

Activity 2. Read and fill the gaps with the given words below.

The …… is named typological imitation. It means using certain methods and models of one language while studying the system of another language. It is the most ancient type of language description. For example, first Latin grammars were written on the basis of Greek grammars. Later on many grammar books of different languages were

written under the influence of this method. For example, …… (1755) who wrote the English grammar, distinguished …….. in English under the influence of the Latin grammar. They are ………... .

The …… is the appearance of scientific works in comparison, which played a great role in further language descriptions. Substantial comparison of language systems began in early antiquity. The most systematic comparison of different languages began by   ……… in Port-Royal Grammar where the authors studied ……. languages under comparison. Here it should be kept in mind the role of scientific-historical method, which influenced the development of linguistic comparison. It is connected with the appearance of scientific comparison, which had its own peculiar methods of comparison of language systems.

first factor, 6 cases, Samuel Johnson, Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative, Vocative and Ablative, second factor, Antuan Arnauld and Klod Lanselot, French, Latin, and Greek,

Activity 3. Complete the circles.
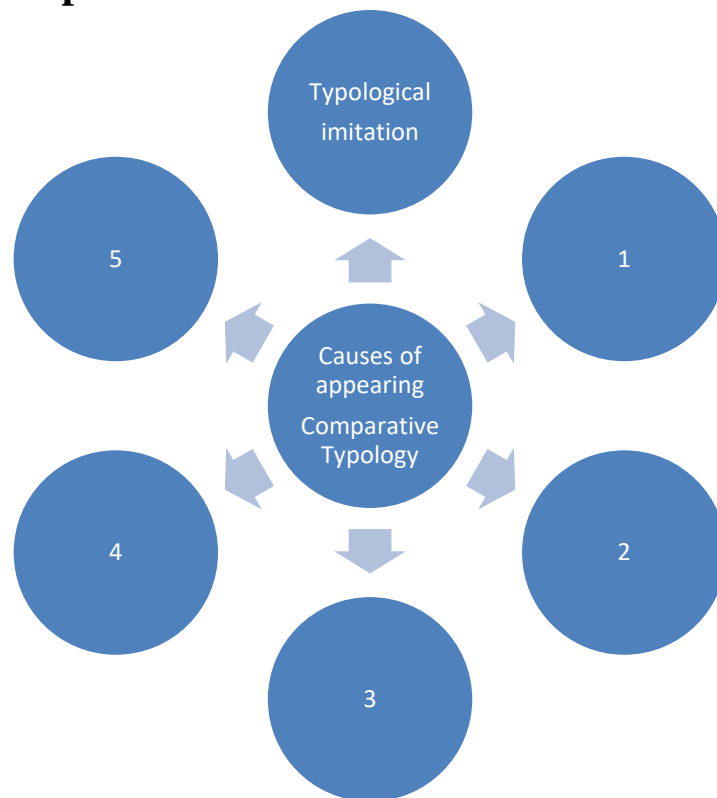
Activity 4. Make a research on the theme "One-level and cross-level approach to comparison".

3. DIVISION OF THE LINGUISTIC TYPOLOGY WITH RESPECT TO THE OBJECT OF INVESTIGATION, TO THE LEVELS OF LANGUAGE HIERARCHY AND TO TWO PLANS OF THE LANGUAGE

Activity 1. Match the relations of elements and languages.
- ✓ Agglutinated
- ✓ Inflected
- ✓ Isolated
- ✓ Polysynthetic
- ✓ Agglutinated-inflected

1. Chinese
2. Korean
3. German
4. Uzbek
5. Japanese
6. English
7. Russian

Activity 2. Fill the cluster on *parameters modifying the subject matter and branches of linguistic typology.*

Parameters modifying the subject matter and branches of linguistic typology

1. System closeness
2.
3.
4. Quantitative limitation
5.
6.
7. Limitation of etalon language
8.
9.
10. One-level approach to comparison
11.
12.
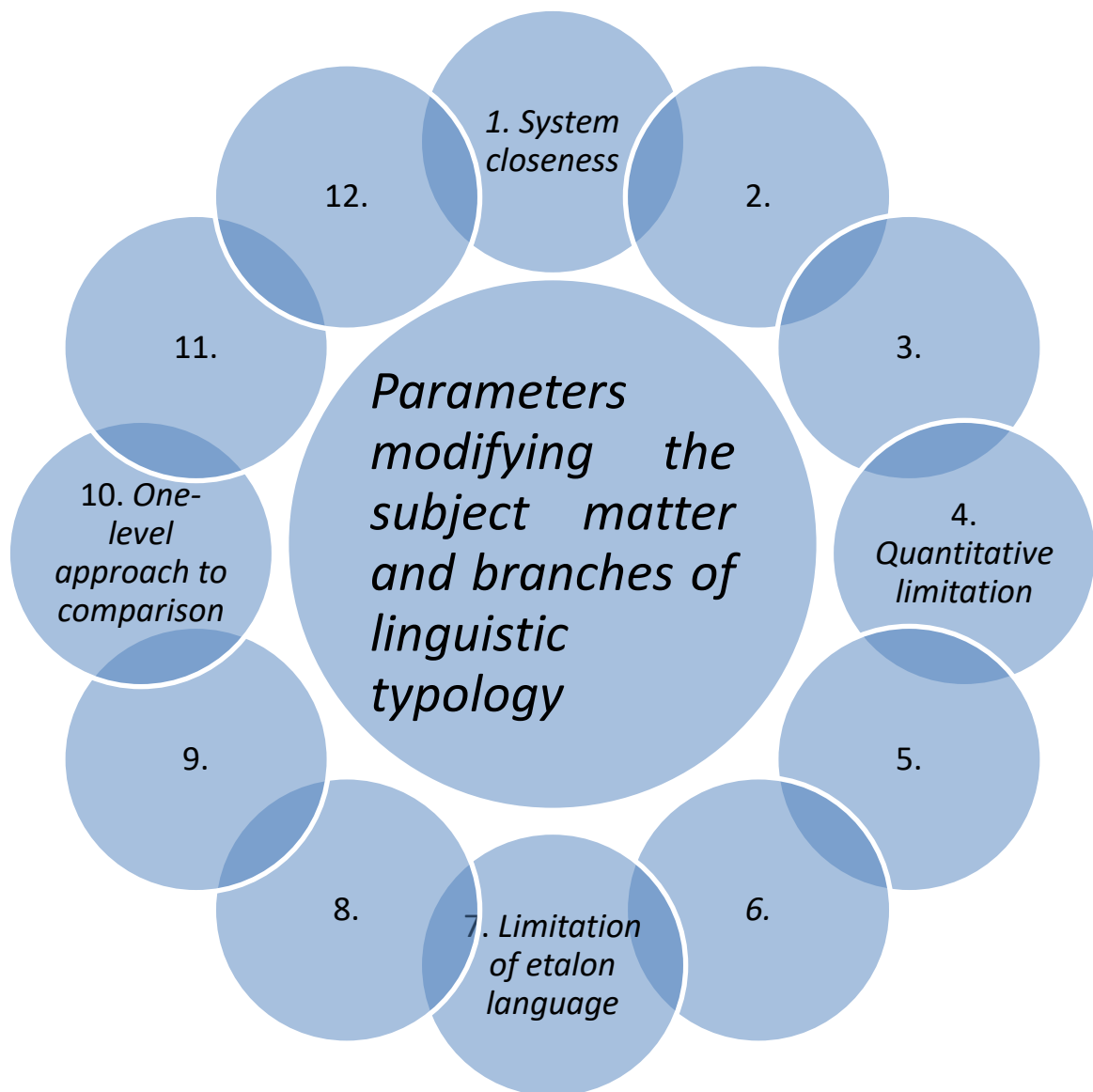
Activity 3. Read the article from the following web site and write the review.
https://agir.academiascience.org/index.php/agir/article/download/167/150/31

4. THE PROBLEM OF TYPOLOGICAL CATEGORIZATION

Activity 1. Choose the right statements from the table below.

Traditional **grammatical categories** consist of the grammatical form and grammatical meaning	Linguistic categories are primary, philosophical categories are secondary.
Grammatical categories are sufficient for typological operations	**Notional categories** are established by Danish scholar O. Yespersen and Russian linguist I. I. Meshchaninov.
There are not languages, which have no morphology.	Typology uses grammatical categories to compare the morphological level of the language
Functional-semantic categories are established by E.V.Guliga and E.I.Shendels	Grammatical-lexical fields unite vocabulary and grammar for the expression of this or that categorical notion.
functional-semantic category is monolinguistic and is used when the system of concrete language is studied.	Typological categories are established by professor I.V. Arnold
Grammatical-lexical fields are established A. V. Bondarko.	Typological meaning is modified as an abstract notion, which lies under the system of languages under comparison.
Notional categories are established by Danish scholar O. Yespersen and Russian linguist I. I. Meshchaninov.	Grammatical-lexical fields totally coincide with functional-semantic categories

Activity 2. Fill the gaps with no more than three words.

1.   On the lexical level they may be expressed by … and independent words.

2.   On the syntactic level they may be expressed by … .

3.   Typological categories are modified by the following criteria: … interlevel.

4.   Typological categories are … because they are common to the system of comparing languages.

5.   Typological categories are … , because their meaning can be expressed by means of different lexico-grammatical classes of words.

6.   In English compound words take the … in different ways.

Activity 3. Table completion on the theme " Expression of the category of number of nouns"

Levels	English	Uzbek	Russian
On the morphological level the category			
On the lexical level the category			
On the syntactic level the category	*e.g. a large number*		

Activity 4. Make a research on the theme "Historical development of grammatical categories of both English and Uzbek languages".

5. METHODS OF INVESTIGATING FOREIGN AND NATIVE LANGUAGES

Activity 1. Match the terms with it's definition.
1.   Synharmonism
2.   Compensation
3.   Isomorphism
4.   System

a) is defined as complex of units, where every unit receives its quantitative characteristics depending on the other units;

b) it is such a relation that if the problem A is solved in a concrete way, the problem B should be solved in this way too;

c) it happens in the phonological level;

d) that is, the relation, where if the language disposes two ways of expressing the same grammatical phenomenon, one can suppose that there will be found a language, which uses one of them.

Activity 2. Fill in Venn diagramm according to given criteria. Mark the common and differential signs in the English, Russian and Uzbek languages.

1.   Addressing the structure of the sentence.
2.   Grammatical agreement in gender.
3.   Agreement of the adjective with the noun and possessive pronoun.
4.   Similarities in their structure.

Ex: Addressing the structure of the sentence

English:

Uzbek:

Russian:
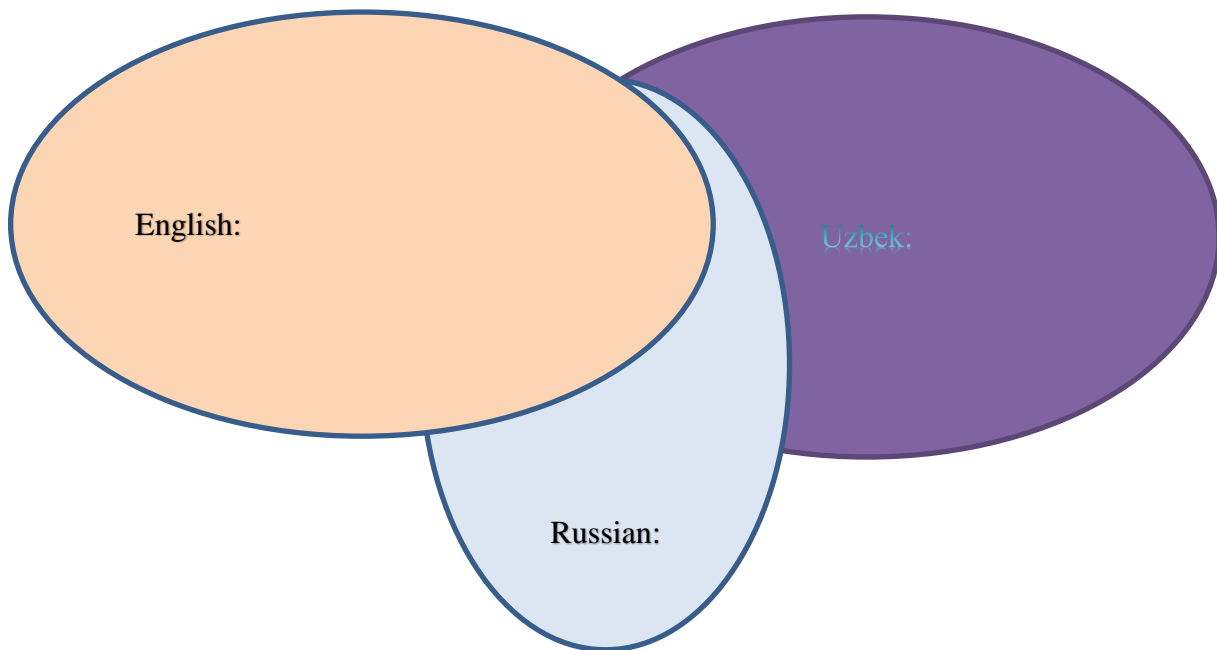
Activity 3. Circle the right answer.
 1. What does system, structural identity imply?
a) identity of language types
b) identity of language elements
c) identity of language specifications
d) identity of language rules
2. What is the type of language related to?
a) real, typological differences
b) structural, typological differences
c) specific, typological differences
d) structural, typological similarities
3. What is "Genetic identity"?
a) a language
b) a system

c) material identity

d) cross-language elements

4. What is "etic, emic identity"?

 a) coincidence of material units

 b) absence of material units

c) presence of material units

d) relationship of material units

Activity 4. Make a 5 min speech on "The idea of the type of the language".

6. TYPOLOGY OF PHONOLOGICAL SYSTEMS IN THE ENGLISH AND NATIVE LANGUAGES

Activity 1. Write the content of the given tables

Table of English and Uzbek Consonant Phonemes

Notes:
E – English,
U – Uzbek

According to the active organ of speech			Labial		Lingual							Medio-ingual	Backlingual		Pharyngal
					Forelingual										
					According to the position of the tongue										
The manner of production	The place of obstruction		Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dorsal	Apical			Cacuminal			Palatal	Velar	Uvular	
					Dental	inter dental	Alveo-lar	Palato-alveolar	Alveolar	Post-alveolar					
Occlusive consonants	Noise consonants (plosives)	E	P, b				t, d					k, g		
		U	P, b		t, d							к, g	q	
	Sonorants (nasal)	E	m				n					ŋ		
		U	m		n							ng		
Constrictive consonants	Noise consonants (fricatives)	E					s, z							
		U												
		E		f, v		θ, ð		ʃ, ʒ						h
		U		f, v	s, z			sh, j					kh, g'	h
	Sonorants	E	w				L			r	j			
		U									y			
Affricates (noise consonants)		E						tʃ, dʒ						
		U						ch, j						
Rolled consonants	Sonorants	U			R									

The vowel phonemes of Uzbek.   The vowel phonemes of Russian.

	Front unrounded	Back rounded		Front unrounded	Central unrounded	Back rounded
High	i	u		i	ɨ (ы)	u
Mid	e	ō		e		o
Low	a	o			a	
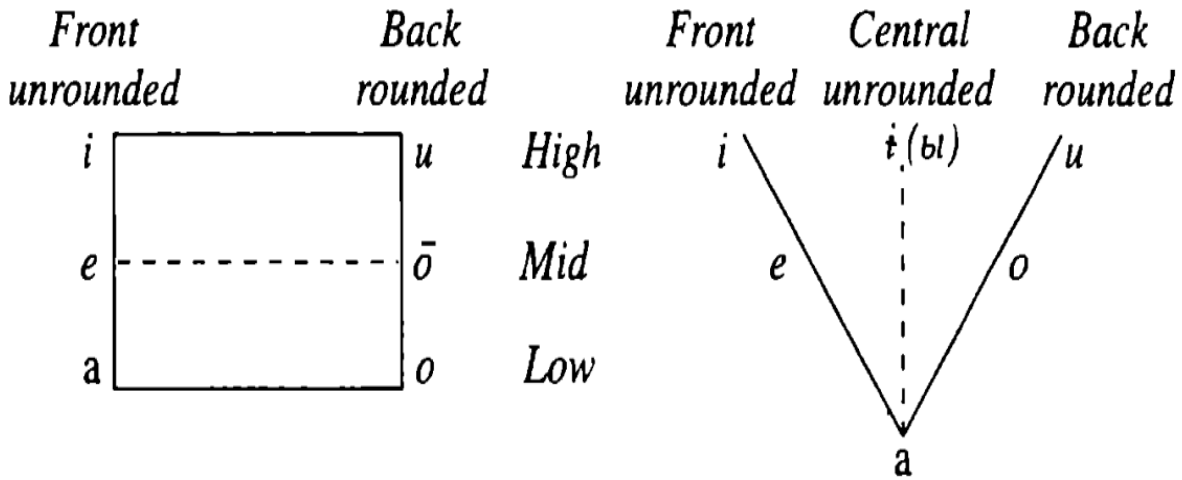
According to the vertical movement of the tongue	According to the horizontal movement of the tongue / According to the variation in the height of the tongue	Front		Mixed (in English)	Central vowels (in Russian)	Back	
		Front	Front – retracted			Back – advanced	Back
Close (high)	Narrow variation	△и ı: □i			△ы		□u △y u:
Close (high)	Broad variation		ı			ʊ	
Mid – open (mid)	Narrow variation	□e e △é		3:		o³	□ō △o
Mid – open (mid)	Broad variation	ɛ¹		ə		ʌ	
Open (low)	Narrow variation						ɔ: ɔ □o
Open (low)	Broad variation	æ □a a²			△a		a:

Notes: □ – Uzbek vowels
         △ – Russian vowels
         [ɛ¹] – the nucleous of the diphthong /ɛə/
         [a²] – the nucleous of the diphthong /aı/ and /au/
         [o] – the nucleous of the previous diphthong /ou/ (Now its symbol
/əu/)
         [ɔ] – the nucleous of the diphthong /ɔı/

Activity 2. Complete the table and compare the kind of stress according to the tongue position in 3 languages.

	• Logic stress	• Word stress	• Fixed stress	• Strong stress	• Weak stress
English					
Uzbek		-			-
Russian		-			-

Activity 3. Read the statements below and choose whether they are True or False.

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

Activity 4. Make a presentation on the theme "The importance of Typology and Phonology in linguistics".

7. TYPOLOGY OF GRAMMATICAL SYSTEMS I N THE ENGLISH AND NATIVE LANGUAGES

Activity 1. Fill the table with the examples concerning English and native languages

Synthetically					Analytically	
Affixation		Phoneme inter-change	The change of the place of the stress in the word	Suppletion	Combination of function word with notional word	Order of words in the sentence
Inner fusion	Outer fusion					

Activity 2. Explain the given examples according to word structure and word order in the sentence.

e.g.:

Uzbek   *U xona**ni** tozala**yotgan** **edi** [Verb-final language]*
               He/she [subject] the room [Object+Acc] tidying up [Past continuous] was [auxiliary verb].

English   "She **was** tidying up the room" (Verb-initial language)
              (Nouns marked for case + Verbs marked for tense)

Uzbek   U qalam**ni** sindir**di** (SOV)
English   "He broke the pen" (SVO)
Uzbek   (Men) stol ustida 5 ta olma(**lar**)**ni** ko'r**yapman**.
English   "I see five apple**s** on the table"
Uzbek   (Biz) sen**ga** ishona**miz**
English   "We believe in you"

Activity 3. Complete the table.

Categories	English	Uzbek
Nouns marked for case		
Nouns marked for number (sing./pl.)		
Verbs marked for tense		
Verbs agree with subject in person		
Verbs agree with subject in number		
Word order	*e.g.; SVO*	*SOV*
Verb-initial/ verb-final		
Type of language		

Activity 4. Make an investigation and prepare English parts of speech in the Tree-diagram.
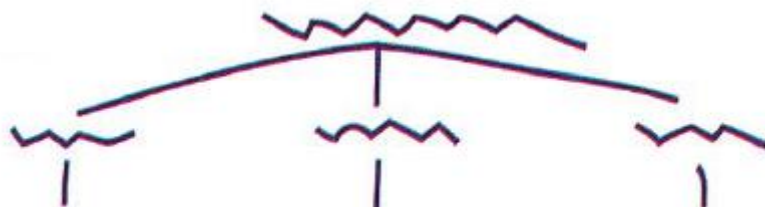
8. TYPOLOGY OF WORD FORMATION IN THE ENGLISH AND NATIVE LANGUAGES

Activity 1. Give examples according to the types of word formation.

Type of word-formation	
Phonological	
Morphological (affixation)	
Compounding of words	
Compounding of stems	
Morphological – syntactical	
Lexical-semantical	
Abbreviation	
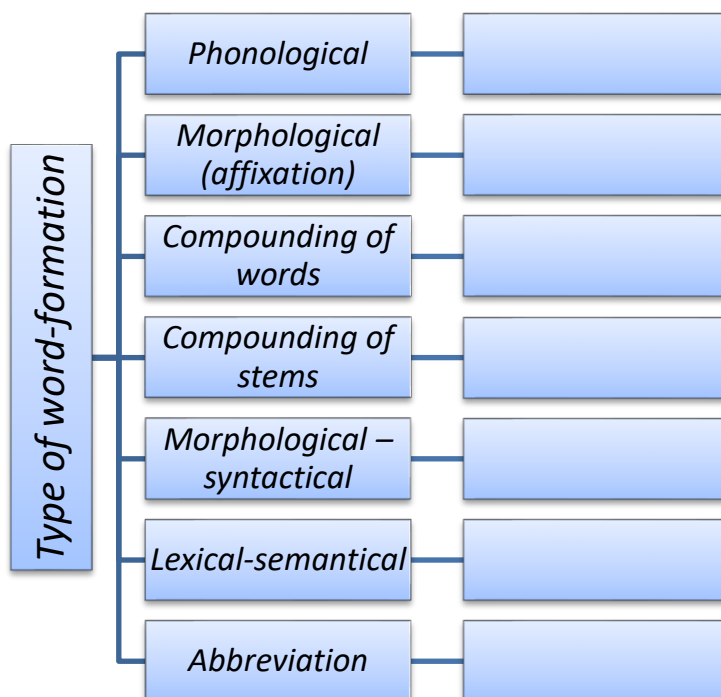
Activity 2. Are these statements yes (√) or no (×)?.

1. _____ 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.

2. _____ Stress interchange has in all compared languages.

3. _____ Sound imitation is the way of word-building when a word is formed by imitating different sounds.

4. _____ Sound interchange is one of the ways of productive word formation.

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, тақилламоқ, шитирламоқ, тарақ-туруқ.

6. _____ In blends 2 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 Russian is considered compounding, while in English and Uzbek it is derivation.

Activity 3. Complete the given illustrations in the English, Russian and Uzbek languages.

A)

```
                           Prefixes
                  ┌───────────┴───────────┐
               Meaning                  Origin
          ┌──────┼──────┐          ┌──────┼──────┐
          a      b      c          a      b      c
```

B)

The groups of suffixes observed in the English and native languages

Word formation for various purposes.

Formation of parts of speech

Formation of new words

Word formation by sound imitation

Blending

Clipping
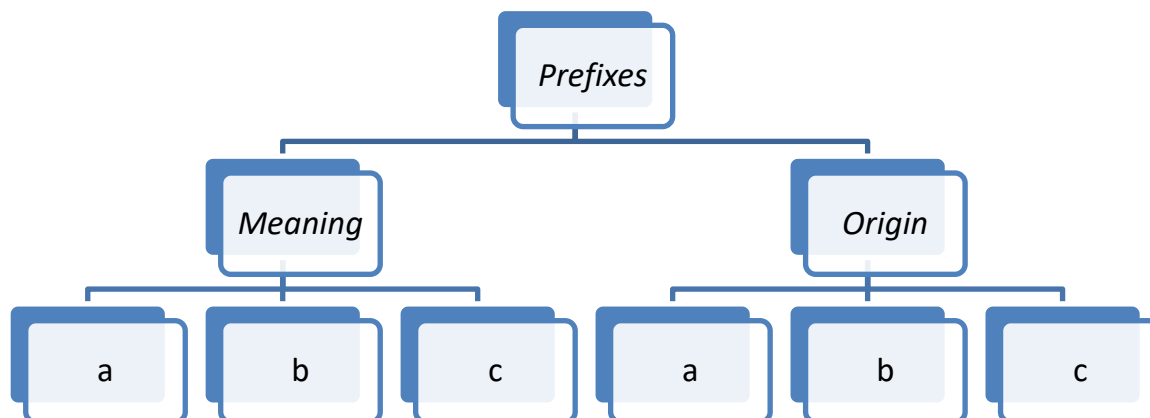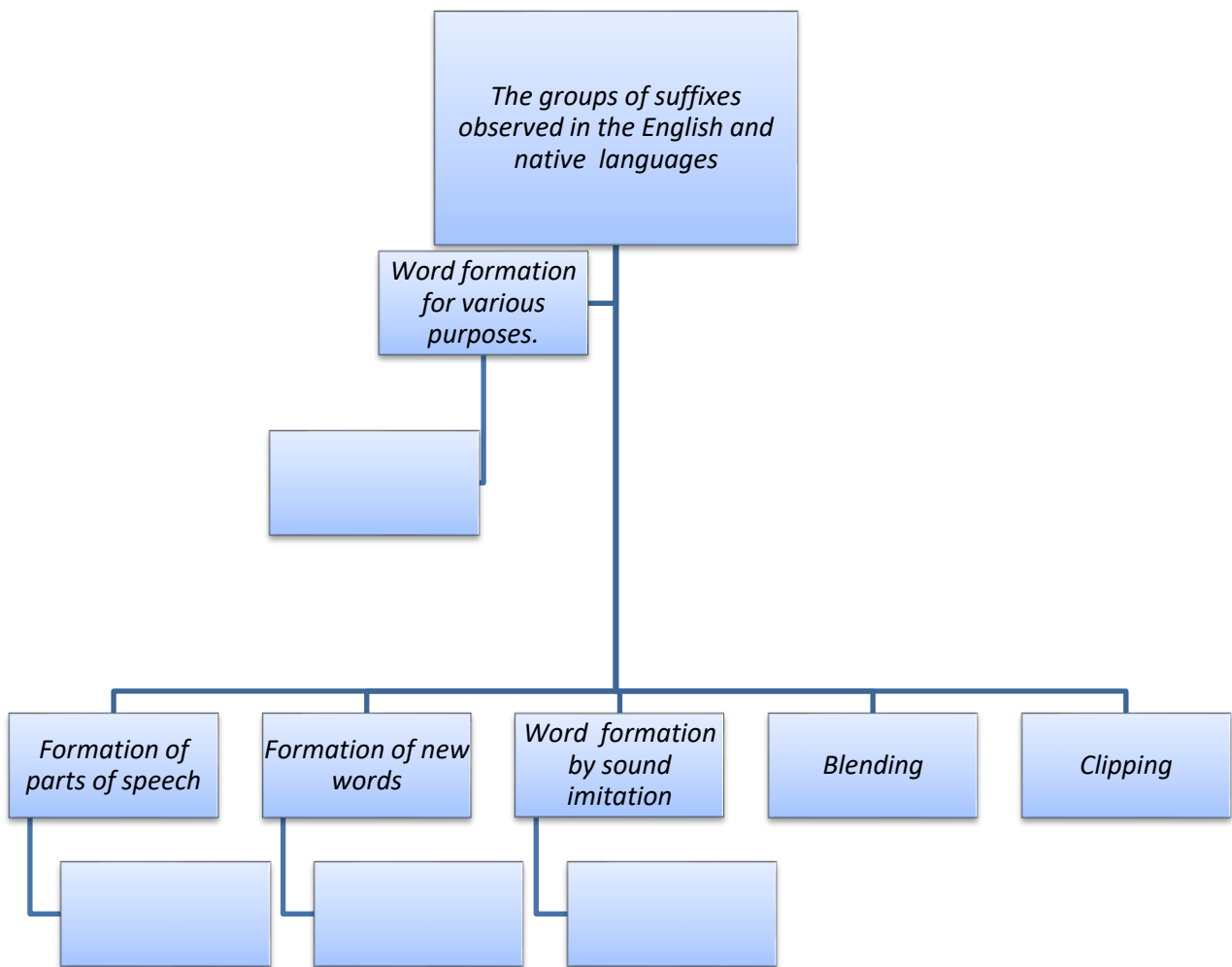
Activity 4. Prepare a 5 min speech on the theme "Synthetic and analytic structure of languages".

9. TYPOLOGY OF WORD COMBINATIONS IN THE ENGLISH AND NATIVE LANGUAGES

Activity 1. Match the definitions for the given syntactical ties.
Government
The word combination
Agreement
Dependent relations
Independent relations
Adjoining

a) a variety of syntactical connection when the dependence of one word upon head word is expressed not morphologically but semantically;
b) a syntactical tie where the head word of the word combination governs the adjunct (the dependent word) to receive the grammatical form which doesn'nt exist in it;
c) not often found in Modern English, but it is widely used in Modern Russian and Uzbek languages;
d) is the main syntactic unit;
e) relations words have equal independent meaning;
f) word combination consists of the the head word and adjunct.

Activity 2. Fill the table with examples concerning syntactical relations

English	Coordination:	Subordination:	Predication:
Russian	Syntactically free:	Syntactically bound:	
Uzbek	Independent	Dependent	-

Activity 3. Search the internet and find the article which is given below. Write a summary.

https://www.researchgate.net/publication/337893447_Modelling_Abb reviation_In_Internet_Slang_a_Comparison_Study_of_Indonesian_Int ernet_Slang_and_English_Internet_Slang/fulltext/5df114274585159aa 4765300/Modelling-Abbreviation-In-Internet-Slang-a-Comparison-Study-of-Indonesian-Internet-Slang-and-English-Internet-Slang.

10. TYPOLOGY OF SIMPLE SENTENCE IN THE ENGLISH AND NATIVE LANGUAGES

Activity 1. Put the proper letter where it is required.

a) that predicativity is the structural basis and the meaning of the sentence while intonation is the structural form of it;

b) the completeness and independence of a sentence, being able to exist alone and having a complete utterance;

c) that the sentence is the minimal syntactic structure used in communication and characterized by its predicativity which expresses thought and has its intonation pattern;

d) 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;

e) thoroughly analyzed one-member sentences in the structure of the Uzbek language, classified them in the following way.

1) Otto Jespersen;
2) B.A.Ilyish;
3) Professor M.I. Rasulova;
4) G.Pocheptsov's interpretation;
5) The linguist I.Rasulov.

Activity 2. Table completion with sentences according to the purpose of utterance.

Declarative sentences		Interrogative sentences		Exclamatoryy sentences		Imperative sentences.	
Eng	Uzb	Eng	Uzb	Eng	Uzb	Eng	Uzb

Activity 3. Prepare a presentation on the theme "Sentence as the basic unit of syntax in the English and native languages" for the group discussion and share it with your group mates.

11. COOPERATION OF THE COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY AND OTHER THEORETICAL AND APPLIED BRANCHES OF LINGUISTICS

Activity 1. Work in pairs. Learn carefully the clusters below. Find general differences and compare them with your partner.
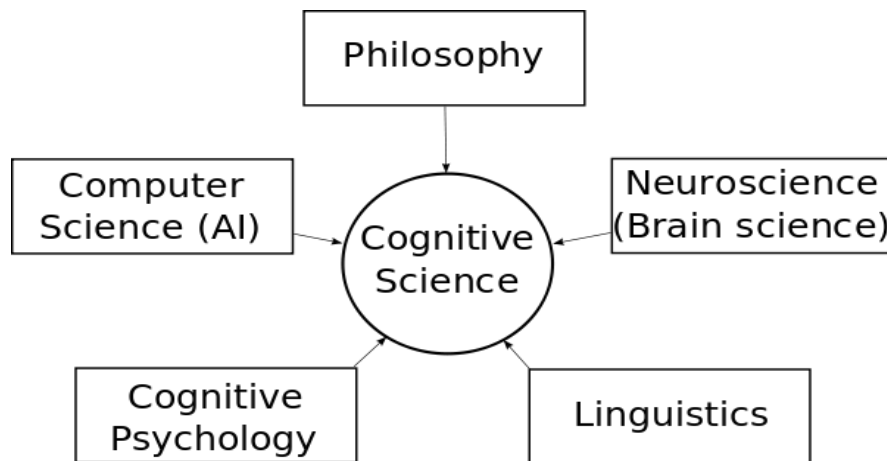
Activity 2. Complete the text with the right word from the box

Comparative typology	Lexicography	principles	the process of learning
conformity			exactness

_____ has direct connection with the lexicography, as both of them compare equivalent units. _____needs typological analysis of the systems of languages and compiles dictionaries.
Modern lexicographic science doesn't have enough experience and well done universal _____ in compiling dictionaries.
Comparative typology and lexicography draw together on the basis of their applied tasks, both of them deal with _____the

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systems of different related and non-related languages. The fact is undisputable that lexicographic work of a two languaged dictionary, at the same time, is a work on comparing languages. In dictionaries general and constant _____ of words are given with maximal exactness (accuracy), even if those languages are non-related. Without typological reference books or preliminary _____ dictionary may not be valuable.

Activity 3. Read the statements below and choose whether they are True or False.

1. Differing from the typologist the translator goes out of these regularities, as the least important thing for him is to convey the definite meaning in the other language.

2. Under the plan of content we consider two kinds of meanings: I) abstract grammatical, 2) concrete lexical meanings.

3. Concrete peculiarities relating the comparative typology to the theory of translation are following: 1) common character of the plan of content; 2) identity of the process of comparison; 3) interlevel correspondence; 4) indifference to the genetic relationship.

4. Literal translation of the text can be made only by preserving regularities of the system correspondence.

5. The theory of translation possesses: 1) the freedom of choice and 2) distinctions in the plan of content.

6. The concrete lexical meaning is expressed by means of words, phraseological units but grammatical meaning can not be expressed by connecting affixal morphemes to the root morphemes or stems.

12. IMPORTANCE OF COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY IN OVERCOMING NATIVE LANGUAGE INTERFERENCE IN THE PROCESS OF TEACHING EFL

Activity 1. Work in pairs. Learn carefully the tables below.

Intralingual interferences in vocabulary	1. Mistakes caused by discrepancies due to the analogy with already learned phenomena of a foreign language	
	again- also	*She **again** likes watching comedy.*
	else-also	*I ate a hamburger. I **else** ate a banana.*
	hard-hardly	*We usually revise **hard** before our exams.*
	to-for	*to run **to** the station- to start **for** the station*
	2. Mistakes caused by different meanings of synonyms and their usage	
	high-tall	
	3. Mistakes caused by differences in vocabulary and grammar word combinations	
	quite – at all	
	4. Mistakes caused by different usage of transitive and intransitive verbs	
	raise-rise	

1	**differences in the usage of prepositions**	
	In the Uzbek context	In English
	speak with somebody *on the street* *write with ink*	*speak to somebody* *in the street* *write in ink*
2	**existence of the preposition in Uzbek and absence in English**	
	In the Uzbek context	In English
	I asked from him	*I asked him*
3	**absence of preposition in Uzbek and existence in English**	
	In the Uzbek context	In English
	example *a cup tea* *home*	*for example* *a cup of tea* *at home*

Activity 2. Complete the text with the right word from the box.

Comparative typology	interlanguage	liquidate	the process of learning
Interference			influence

_____ deals with comparing languages of different systems and with defining similarities and distinctions in language phenomena. At the same time the comparative typology studies _____correspondence and interlevel synonymy among languages compared. Besides, comparative typology proposes ways of liquidating negative _____ of one language in the process of learning a new one. In the process of teaching a foreign language the

teacher should explain his/her learners positive and negative influence of their native language. _____ exists in all levels of the language, that is in phonological, morphological, syntactical and lexical levels of the language. If the pupils know the phonological, morphological, lexical and syntactical levels of their native language consciously it will be easy for them to _____ the interferences they come across in _____ a foreign language

Activity 3. Make a mini presentation on the theme "Typological characteristics of the Uzbek, Russian and English word order in the sentence".

PART 4. ACTIVITIES ON COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY OF THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES. PARTS OF SPEECH

1. THE VERB AND ITS GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES IN THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

Activity 1. Classify the following statement
1. Notional verbs
2. Semi notional verbs
3. The active voice
4. The passive voice
5. Mood

a) are functional verbs which with the help of the notional verbs form the predicate of the sentence, expressing the attitude of the speaker towards his(her) action, state or to the reality. They are modal verbs, auxiliary verbs, link verbs.

b) have their full meaning.They can form the predicate without the help of the auxiliary or semi-notional verbs: She speaks English well. My sister lives in London.

c) shows that the subject is the doer of the action

d) grammatical category of specific methodological aspects and effective ways to apply them in oral and written form which indicates the attitude of the speaker towards the action expressed by the verb from the point of view of its reality

e) shows that the grammatical subject of the sentence is acted upon by the object which is sometimes given and sometimes is not given in the sentence.

Activity 2. Read and fill the gaps with the given words below

Three forms   *Yespersen Otto*   *Subjunctive*   *potential*
Smirnitskiy   *Non real action*   *conditional*   *Austin*

………………. (1935), Gurme G.O. (1931) classify three forms of mood: Indicative, Imperative and Subjunctive. Sweet H. A. (1892), classifies five forms of mood: Indicative, …………., Conditional, Permissive and Compulsive. Smirnitsky A.I. classifies six forms of

mood: 1. Indicative (The sun rises in the East. She will translate this book), 2. Imperative (Read the letter; Be silent). 3. Subjunctive1 (I suggest that he go there; If it be so). (A.I.Smirnitsky says that in Subjunctive1 there is no meaning of impossibility). 4. Subjunctive2 (If I had time I would have come). …………… says that in Subjunctive2 negative meaning is expressed; in the example above given by A.I. Smirnitsky: the speaker didn't have time to perform the action). 5. ……………. (Should you meet him, tell him to come: in this form of the mood he considers improbable supposition). 6. Conditional (What would you answer if you were asked: A.I. Smirnitsky differs ………. mood from Subjunctive2 saying that in conditional mood unreality is depended on non-real conditions, while in Subjunctive2 unreality is supposed from the starting –point, it is not depended on anything).

In this manual we consider it to be desirable to suggest …….. of mood as the majority of grammarians do: Indicative, Imperative, Subjunctive. Conditional, Potential, Subjunctive1 and Subjunctive 2 are included in the Subjunctive Mood expressing ……….. depended on the existed conditions: non-real action not depended on existed conditions and the Subjunctive Mood expressing an emotional attitude of the speaker to real facts: It is strange I should never have heard him even mention your name (………).

Activity 3. Fill the gaps "YES and NO"

1.   The term verb comes from English: "Verbium" which means "a word". The verb is the most complex part of speech and it is the heart of the sentence.

2.   According to combinability in English verbs can be combined with nouns, pronouns, prepositions, adverbs

3.   According to combinability verbs in the English language can be combined with nouns, pronouns and adverbs on the right hand and the verb is always used at the end of the sentence

4.   Tense formation in English can be expressed pure analytically , that is by the combination of the notional verb with the auxiliary verb , where neither the notional nor the function verb changes its sound structure

5.   Mood is the grammatical category of specific methodological aspects and effective ways to apply them in oral and

written form which indicates the attitude of the speaker towards the action expressed by the verb from the point of view of its reality.

6. English and Uzbek languages have indicative and subjunctive moods.

7. The Indicative Mood expresses the action or state presented as a fact.

8. Indicative mood in English is formed analytically.

YES	NO

Activity 4. Tests

1. ………… is formed on the morphological level of the Uzbek language by agglutinative addition of the affixal morpheme to the root morpheme of the intransitive verb or to the stem of the intransitive verb , in English this phenomenon occurs on the syntactical level of the language by using the direct object after the intransitive verb(by changing the order of words in the sentence).
a)   Transitivity
b)   Intransitivity
c)   Mood
d)   Formal property

2. Linguists H. Sweet, G. Gurme and some others consider ……forms of the voice in English verbs: ………..?
a)   3, active, passive, reciprocal voice
b)   2, active and passive voice
c)   2,reflexive and reciprocal voice
d)   3, reflexive, reciprocal and middle voice

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3. Whose opinion deserves to be mentioned in this case. He marks that in Turkic languages the verbs having the affixal morphermes of causation at present do not correlate with the forms of the voice and it is possible that these affixal morphemes have acquired a new and special function?

a) Yartseva V.N
b) Barkhudarov L.S
c) Serebrennikov B.A
d) Vinogradov V.V

2. THE NOUN AND ITS GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES IN THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

Activity 1. Circle the correct answer.

1. A noun is ….

a) a word that functions as the name of a specific object or set of objects, such as living creatures, places, actions, qualities, states of existence, or ideas.

b) is a word (part of speech) that in syntax conveys an action (bring, read, walk, run, learn), an occurrence (happen, become), or a state of being (be, exist, stand).

c) is a word that modifies a noun or noun phrase or describes its referent. Its semantic role is to change information given by the noun.

2. What are the criteria to characterize nouns?

a)form and meaning
b)meaning and function
c)meaning, form and function

3. What kinds of grammatical categories do nouns have in English?

a)case, number,gender   b)mood, case and number   c)case, number and definiteness/indefinetness

4. Which functions may nouns express in Uzbek and in English?

a) subject, object, attribute and the part of the compound nominal predicate

b) subject, object, attribute, nominal predicate and adverbial modifier

c)subject, object and attribute

5. A proper noun is …

a) a name for something which is common for many things,persons or places

b) a word for something that can not be seen

c) a name which refers only to a single person, place or thing

6. Abstract nouns and proper nouns are always………, but common nouns and concrete nouns have the category of …….

a)countable/case

b)uncountable/number

c)uncountable/gender

7. Which Indo-European languages have 3 numbers concerning quantity of nouns?

a) Sanskrit, Greek and Latin

b) English,Russian and Uzbek

c) German, Latin and Greek

8. John Fell (1784) gives the following peculiarities of expressing the meanings of gender….

a) moral qualities, such as wisdom, truth, reason, virtue and religion are of the feminine gender substituted by "she"/ countries, cities, towns, ships are of feminine gender and they are substituted by "she''

b) names of natural phenomena according to their qualities of amiability, mildness, power are substituted by "he'' or "she''/ , mind and soul come from the inner part of a human being

 c) a and b

Activity 2. Write words conveying category of gender according to the levels of the language.

Levels	English	Russian	Uzbek
Grammatical			

Lexical- grammatical			
Lexical			
Phonological			

Activity 3. Write examples for nouns in singular and plural forms in Russian language.

	Nouns in singular	Nouns in plural	
		Marked	Non-marked
Feminine			
Masculine/ Neuter			

Activity 4. Find appropriate equivalent to the given nouns and compare with other equivalents in Uzbek and Russian languages

masculine gender	feminine gender
boy-friend	
	woman-producer
landlord	
	she-goat
he-bear	
	cow-calf
cock-sparrow	
	queen
sir	
	mistress
actor	
	waitress

lion	
	hostess
steward	
	tigress
hero	

3. THE ADJECTIVE AND ITS GRAMMATICAL CATEGORY OF THE DEGREES OF COMPARISON IN THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

Activity1. Complete the circles
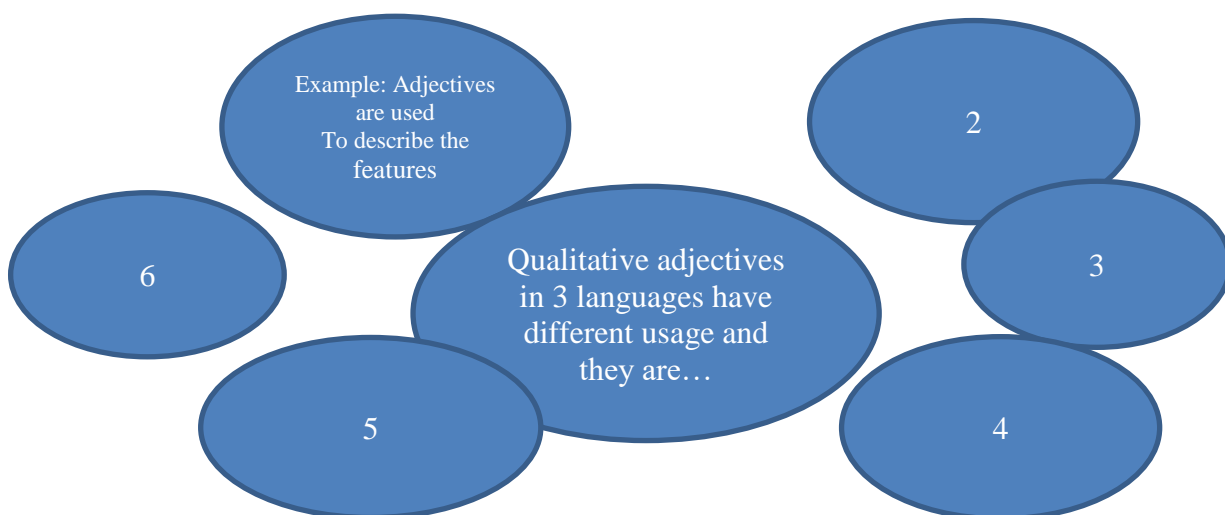
Activity 2. Match the terms with it's definition

1.   ………….. are used to describe the features or qualities of a noun(a peson, place, thing, idea, etc.). Most of these adjectives have degrees of comparison. They are usually used before the word they modify.

2.   …………….. describe the measurement, that is, count or amount of any living beings or non-living things.

3.   ……………. express the relation towards the object, towards the time, towards the place, towards the state and peculiarity

4.   …………. in the English and Uzbek languages have acquired some or sometimes all of the characteristics of the noun. Substantivized adjectives are devided into wholly substantivized and partly substantivized adjectives.

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5. …………….. in the English and Uzbek languages show that they can be formed from all parts of speech ,even of the names of countries and places except pronouns and numerals..

6. ………… which exist in Russian don't exist in the English and Uzbek languages, this function is performed by the particle **-'s** in the English, by the affixal morpheme **-нинг** in the Uzbek languages: отцов дом-my father's house-otamning uyi.

a) Possessive adjectives
b) Substantivized adjectives
c) Derivative adjectives
d) Relative adjectives
e) Qualitative adjectives
f) Quantitative adjectives

Activity 3. Choose the right statements from the table below

In the English and Uzbek languages the comparative degree is also expressed on the morphological level of the language.	The Uzbek language possesses the characteristic of expressing superlative degree synthetically .
Adjectives can't have the grammatical category of the degrees of comparison which is expressed synthetically and analytically depended on their morphological structure	Adjectives can be used in the function of the adverbial modifier in elliptical adverbial clauses
Substantivized adjectives can't be used in the functions of the subject and the object:	Adjectives are often used to build up exclamatory sentences in which an adjective preceded by interrogative word **how** is placed at the head of the sentence
Adjectives can be used to build up exclamatory sentences	Most relative adjectives in English are scientific terms Possessive adjectives existing in Russian exists in the English and Uzbek languages as well ,

	this function is performed by the particle **-'s** in the English, by the affixal morpheme -**ning** in the Uzbek language
Adjectives can't be used in the function of the adverbial modifier	They can be used in the function of the predicative Adjectives can modify indefinite pronouns
They can freely occur in attributive position to the noun	Adjectives can be modified by the intensifier "very"

Activity 4. Tests

1. ………… in the English and Uzbek languages show that they can be formed from all parts of speech ,even of the names of countries and places except pronouns and numerals..
   a) Derivative adjectives
   b) Quantitative adjectives
   c) Qualitative adjectives
   d) Compound adjectives

2. What is the quantitative adjective ?
   a) express the relation towards the object, towards the time, towards the place, towards the state and peculiarity
   b) in the English and Uzbek languages show that they can be formed from all parts of speech ,even of the names of countries and places except pronouns and numerals..
   c) are formed by the composition of noun+adj., adj.+noun, numeral+noun, adj.+P1, adj.+P2, adv.+P1, adv.+P2, noun+P1, noun+P2
   d) describe the measurement, that is, count or amount of any living beings or non-living things. These adjectives state the number or amount of living-beings/ things not judging subjects; they simply state the information which our eyes can perceive or state.

3. Find the compositions of compound adjectives and note down their Uzbek and Russian versions.
   1) adj+P1
   2) adj+P2

3) adv+P1
4) adv+P2
5) noun+P2
6)noun+P1
7)adv+adv
8)noun+adj
9) adj+niun

    a) 1,3,5,7
    b) 9,8,6,3
    c) all of them
    d) 3,5,7,9

4. DISTINCTIONS AND SIMILARITIES IN PRONOUNS OF THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

Activity 1. Correct the wrong statements below

1. Personal pronouns are used in the functions of   the subject, predicative, object and attribute.

2. Objective personal pronouns are pronouns that act as the subject of a sentence.

3. The verb in Uzbek is a part of speech which points out objects and their qualities without naming them

4. Interrogative pronouns **some** and **any** can be used as subject, object and attribute

5. Indefinite pronouns refer to an identifiable and specified, person or thing.

6. Personal pronouns are used to link one phrase or clause to another phrase or clause

7. **Demonstrative pronouns in English can have adjectives' characteristics , they perform the function of the attribute.**

8. Relative pronouns refer back to the subject of the clause or sentence.

9. The pronoun **any** has two meanings :1.a different one, 2. an additional one:

10. Relative pronouns are **who, what, whose, which** not only point back to some person or thing mentioned before but also have conjunctive power introducing subject, object and predicative clauses.

Activity 2. Fill in the graph

```
                          ┌─────────────────────┐
                          │  Types of pronouns  │
                          └──────────┬──────────┘
            ┌────────────────────────┼────────────────────────┐
    ┌───────┴───────┐        ┌───────┴───────┐        ┌───────┴───────┐
    │  1.English    │        │   2.Uzbek     │        │  3.Russian    │
    └───────┬───────┘        └───────┬───────┘        └───────┬───────┘
      ┌─────┴─────┐            ┌─────┴─────┐            ┌─────┴─────┐
  ┌───┴───┐  ┌────┴────┐   ┌───┴───┐  ┌────┴───┐   ┌───┴───┐  ┌────┴───┐
  │interro│  │reflexive│   │       │  │        │   │       │  │        │
  │gative │  │         │   │       │  │        │   │       │  │        │
  └───┬───┘  └────┬────┘   └───┬───┘  └────┬───┘   └───┬───┘  └────┬───┘
  ┌───┴───┐  ┌────┴────┐   ┌───┴───┐  ┌────┴───┐   ┌───┴───┐  ┌────┴───┐
  │       │  │         │   │       │  │        │   │       │  │        │
  └───────┘  └─────────┘   └───────┘  └────────┘   └───────┘  └────────┘
```
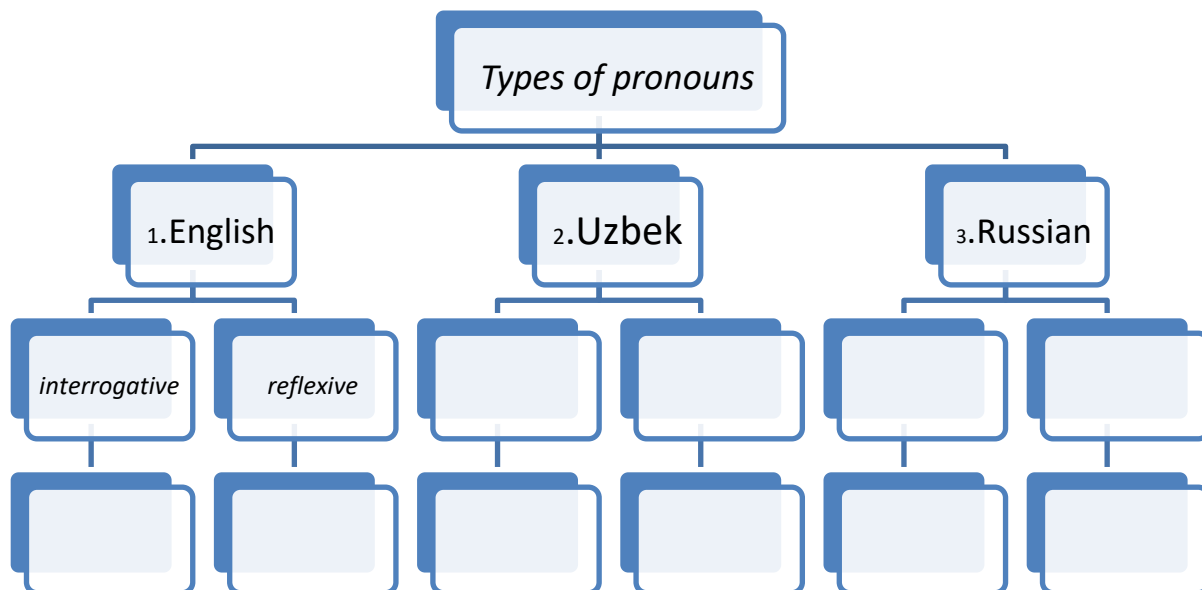
Activity 3. Show the distinctive features of pronouns in the English, Uzbek and Russian languages.

Pronouns		
English	Uzbek	Russian

Activity 4. Work in groups of 3 or 4 and make a presentation on the theme "Pronouns around us in the context".

5. DISTINCTIONS AND SIMILARITIES IN NUMERALS OF THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

Activity 1. Match the terms with their definitions.

1.Cardinal numerals

2. Ordinal numerals

3 Partitive numerals

4.Multiplicative numerals

5.Collective numerals

6.Distributive numerals

A. Describe dividing and assigning in portions
B. Describe devision into fractions
C. Describe quantity
D. Describe groups or entities composed of several parts
E. Describe position in a sequential order
F. Describe repetition

Activity 2. Identify whether these statements are TRUE or FALSE

1. ___ Cardinal numerals show the number of certain items. They correspond to the interrogative word "How many?"

2. ____Ordinal numerals are used to show the order of items. They correspond to the question starting with the word "Which?"

3. ___Such cardinal numerals as hundred, thousand, and million can not be used with articles they are not substantivized and used in the plural.

4. __The word million may be used with or without -**s** (two million, two millions).

5. __ All the ordinal numerals are formed from cardinal numerals by means of the suffix -**th.**

6. __ In ordinal groups only the last member of the group takes the ordinal form: (the) sixty-fifth, (the) twenty-third.

7. __ Ordinal numerals are generally used with the indefinite article.

Activity 3. Complete the table with characteristics of numerals in English, Uzbek and Russian languages.

English numerals	Uzbek numerals	Russian numerals

Activity 4. Make a research on the history of numerals in 3 different languages and make notes on how they are originated and changed in terms of linguistics.

6. DISINCTIONS AND SIMILARITIES IN THE ADVERBS OF THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

Activity 1. Fill the table below.

FORMATION OF ADVERBS			
syntactically		morphologically	
English		English	
Uzbek		Uzbek	
Russian		Russian	

Activity 2 . Match the definitions.
1.   Adverb(s)
2.   Morphological adverb
3.   The adverbs of degree
4.   Adverbs of time
5.   An adverb of manner

a) is constant and is mostly used in connection with verb. In some cases nouns and adverbs may be used as well
b) serve to show the time when the action or event takes place
c) indicates how or in what way the action is performed
d) basically function as modifier or predicate in the sentence
e) have the category of indicating the property of action and property, like the adjectives

Activity 3. Complete the graph.

CLASSIFICATION of ADVERBS

- 1.*English*
  - a.*possessive*
  - b.*qualitative*
- 2.*Uzbek*
  - a
  - b
- 3. Russian
  - a.
  - b.
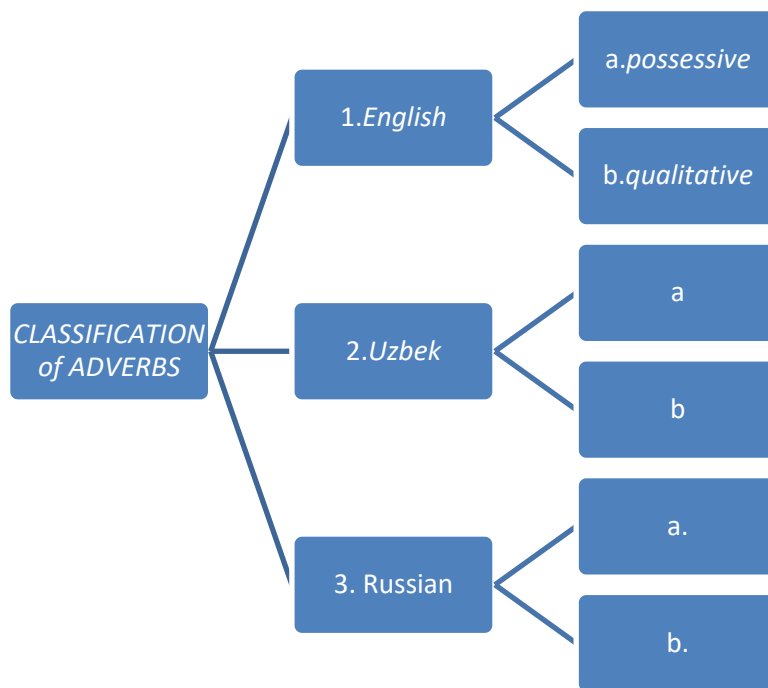
Activity 4. Read an article from the website https://www.researchgate.net/publication/262580566_Adverb_use_and_language_proficiency_in_young_learners'_writing. Write a review and compare with theories on Uzbek and Russian adjectives.

The list of recommended literature:

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

2.Alimova M.X., Abdujabbarova Z.R., Rasulov Z.I. Til aspektlari amaliyoti(Kommunikativ grammatika).Buxoro,2021

3.Буранов Д. Ж. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков. Москва, 1983

4.Бўронов Д. Ж. Инглиз ва ўзбек тиллари қиёсий грамматикаси. Тошкент, 1973

5.Морфологическая типология и проблема классификации языков . М-Л., 1965

6.Поливанов Е.Д. Русская грамматика в сопоставлении с узбекским языком. Ташкент, 1934

7.Сравнительно-историческое изучение языков разных семей. Современное состояние и проблемы. М., 1981

8.Фортунатов Ф. Ф. Сравнительная морфология. Москва, 1965

9.Shoabdurahmonov Sh., Asqarova M. va boshqalar. Hozirgi o'zbek adabiy tili. qism 1, Toshkent, 1980

10.Yusupov U.K. Comparative linguistics of the English and Uzbek languages.Tashkent, 2013

11.Alimova M., Yuldasheva D. Ingliz va o`zbek tillarining qiyosiy morfologiyasi.Buxoro: Universitet, 2006, 116 b.

SUGGESTED QUESTIONS FOR MID-TERM CONTROL

1. Questions on the subject "Comparative Typology"
2. Linguistic typology investigates...
3. What are the different viewpoints to the language description?
4. Linguistic typology studies language systems...
5. What do you understand by panchronical comparison of language systems?
6. Substantial comparison is...
7. Internal approach to comparison is..
8. Linguistic typology may be classified.
9. The development of linguistic typology is connected...
10. The main periods of the development of linguistic typology:
11. The main factors of the development of linguistic typology:
12. Universal grammar dealt with   categories
13. Grammatical category consists of...
14. What kinds of classification of languages do you know?
15. What is the genealogical classification of languages?
16. What is typological classification?
17. What scientific works played a great role in the development of language description?
18. What is system closeness?
19. What is genetic closeness?
20. What is areal limitation?
21. What is quantitative limitation?
22. What is deep identity?
23. What is surface identity?
24. What is limitation of etalon language?
25. What is maximal etalon language?
26. What is minimal etalon language?
27. What is formal approach to comparison?
28. What is content approach to comparison?
29. What is one-level approach to comparison?
30. What is cross-level approach to comparison?
31. What is the perfectness of typological operations?
32. What is genetic typology?

33. Areal typology deals with...
34. Structural typology deals with ...
35. Comparative typology deals with…
36. Linguistic universals are...
37. The authors of "Universal Grammar" are.
38. When did Port-Royal grammar appear?
39. The contribution of "Universal Grammar" in linguistic typology...
40. What is etalon language?
41. What linguists dealt with the "Typological classification of languages" ?
42. Isolated type of the language...
43. What is the main signal of isolated language's grammar?
44. Agglutinated type of the language are characterized...
45. Inflected type of languages are characterized...
46. Polysynthetic type of languages are characterized...
47. Agglutinated -inflected type of languages are characterized…
48. Who suggested agglutinated and inflected types of languages?
49. Who suggested isolated (amorphus) type of languages?
50. Who suggested polysynthetic type of languages?
51. Who suggested agglutinated - inflected type of languages?
52. How did E. Sapir classify language systems...
53. How did G.P. Melnikov classify languages?
54. How did V. Greenberg classify languages?
55. What is F.F. Fortunatov's contribution in the typological classification of languages?
56. What is typological theory?
57. Who established "Typological theory" for morphological classification of languages?
58. Who established lexico-grammatical fields?
59. Who established typological categories?
60. Phonetic typology...
61. Phonological typology...
62. Morphological typology...
63. Who are the founders of phonological typology?
64. Who is the founder of phonetic typology?
65. Syntactic typology...
66. Lexical typology...
67. Formal typology...

68. Semantic typology...
69. Main grammatical signals are...
70. Diachronic universals...
71. Synchronic universals...
72. Indifference to system closeness means...
73. Indifference to genetic closeness means...
74. Areal limitation means that...
75. Areal non-limitation means that...
76. Functional-semantic categories...
77. Grammatical-lexical fields…
78. Grammatical form...
79. Grammatical meaning...
80. The binary opposition of word forms
81. What is the type of the language?
82. What is isomorphism?
83. What is allomorphism?
84. What is compensation?
85. What is compensation?
86. What is a three-morpheme structure?
87. What is a two-morpheme structure?
88. What can you say about the disappearance of case forms?
89. What can you say about analytical case forms in English?
90. What levels of the language do you know?
91. What grammatical meanings in English can be expressed on the phonological level of the language?
92. What grammatical meanings in English can be expressed on the phono-morphological level of the language?
93. What grammatical meanings in English can be expressed on the morphological level of the language?
94. What grammatical meanings in English can be expressed on the syntactical level of the language?
95. What grammatical meaning in English can be expressed on the lexical level of the language
96. What can you say about synthetic forms?
97. What can you say about analytical forms?
98. What is agglutinated affixation?
99. What is functional affixation?
100. What are the suppletive forms expressing grammatical meaning?

101. Word order in the sentence in English is..
102. Word order in the sentence of the Russian is...
103. What is the contribution of Czech linguist B. Skalichka in "Comparative typology" ?
104. What phenomenon caused words' three-morpheme structure change to a two- morpheme structure?
105. What is the reason for the Indo-European case system be shattered?
106. What reason causes the absence of the classes of declension of nouns in agglutinated languages in B. A. Serebrennikov's opinion?
107. What are the reasons of the stability of the agglutinated languages' structure?
108. What can you say about zero morpheme?
109. Word changing elements are...
110. Word forming elements are...
111. Pure type of the language is...
112. What can you say about the language with stable word order in the sentence?
113. What can you say about the language with the free word order in the sentence?
114. What can you say about the language with fixed word-order?
115. What is adjoining?
116. What is government?
117. What is the agreement?
118. What are the functions of the phoneme?
119. What is the typological category?
120. What are the grammatical means of the language?
121. What is inner fusion ?
122. What is outer fusion ?
123. What is marked form ?
124. What is non-marked grammatical form?
125. What is explicitely expressed grammatical form?
126. What is implicitely expressed grammatical form?
127. What are primary grammatical categories?
128. What are secondary grammatical categories?
129. What is paradigmatic opposition?
130. What is syntagmatic opposition?
131. What is the category of declension?
132. What is the category of declension in English?

133.What can you say about the category of declension in Russian
134.What can you say about the category of declension in Uzbek?
135.What can you say about the category of gender in Russian?
136.What can you say about the category of gender in the Uzbek and English languages?
137.What can you say about the category of number in the Uzbek, Russian, and English languages?
138.What can you say about the category of possession in the Uzbek language?
139.How is the category of definiteness/indefiniteness expressed in English?
140.What can you say about the category of voice in the English, Russian and Uzbek and English languages?
141.What can you say about the category of mood in the English, Russian and Uzbek languages?
142.What can you say about the category of mood in the English, Russian and Uzbek languages?
143.What can you say about the categories of person and number of verbs in the English, Russian and Uzbek languages?
144.How is the Subjunctive mood Expressed in English, Russian, and Uzbek languages?
145.What can you say about the category of transitivity in the Uzbek language?
146.On what level of the language are the tense forms in the English language expressed?
147.On what level of the language are the tense forms of the Russian language expressed?
148.On what level of the language are the tense forms of the Uzbek language expressed?
149.Are the tense forms in English expressed synthetically or analytically?
150.Are the tense forms in Russian expressed synthetically or analytically?

SUGGESTED QUESTIONS FOR FINAL CONTROL

1. Are the tense forms in Uzbek expressed synthetically or analytically?
2. Is the subjunctive mood in English expressed on the phonological or morphological level of the language
3. Is the imperative mood in English expressed synthetically or analitically?
4. On what level of the language is the subjunctive mood in Russian expressed?
5. Is the imperative mood in Russian expressed synthetically or analitically
6. How is the category of the degrees of comparison of adjectives expressed in the English language
7. How is the category of the degrees of comparison of adjectives in Russian expressed?
8. How is the category of the degrees of comparison of adjectives in Uzbek expressed?
9. Is the degrees of comparison in the English, Russian and Uzbek languages a grammatical or lexical category?
10. Have the English numerals any grammatical categories?
11. What grammatical categories have the Uzbek numerals?
12. What grammatical categories has Russian language?
13. What grammatical categories have the English pronouns?
14. What grammatical categories have Russian pronouns?
15. What grammatical categories have Uzbek pronouns?
16. Have English adverbs any grammatical categories?
17. Have Russian adverbs any grammatical categories?
18. Have Uzbek adverbs any grammatical categories?
19. Are the degrees of comparison of adverbs in English expressed on the morphological or syntactical level of the language?
20. What syntactical ties do you know?
21. Is government a syntactical tie or a grammatical tie?
22. Is agreement a syntactical tie or grammatical means?
23. Is adjoining a syntactical tie or a grammatical means?
24. Is word order a grammatical means or a syntactical tie?
25. Is affixation a grammatical means or a syntactical tie?
26. To what type of a language does the English language refer?
27. To what type of a language does the Russian language refer?

28. To what type of a language does the Uzbek language refer?
29. What meaning do nouns possess?
30. What grammatical categories do the English nouns have ?
31. What grammatical categories do the Russian nouns have?
32. What grammatical categories do the Uzbek nouns have?
33. What grammatical categories do the English verbs have ?
34. What grammatical categories do the Russian verbs have ?
35. What grammatical categories do the Uzbek verbs have ?
36. What are the so - called "грамматически частичные слова" suggested by F.F.Fortunatov?
37. Who is the author of the word - form theory?
38. Who is M. N. Peterson ?
39. Who is F.F.Fortunatov?
40. Who is the author of the book «Типология слова»?
41. Who is Yevgeni Dmitrievich Polivanov?
42. What book written by Polivanov deals with comparative typology
43. What languages did the authors compare in the book "Port - Royal grammar"?
44. What languages was used as etalon language in the 17* -18* centuries?
45. When did the genetic typology appear
46. Who dealt with the reconstruction of languages?
47. What does the areal typology study?
48. What does the structural typology study?
49. What language phenomenon was discussed in the World Congress of Linguists in 1961?
50. What famous linguists took part at the World Congress of Linguists in 1961?
51. What language universals were spoken about at the World Congress of Linguists in 1961?
52. Are the majority of suffixes in the agglutinated languages polysemantic or monosemantic?
53. Are the majority of suffixes in the inflected languages polysemantic or monosemantic?
54. What is the type of Chucotic languages?
55. What is the type of language of American - Indians?
56. What is the type of Arabic language?
57. Who is considered to be a founder of phonetic typology?
58. Who is phonetic system of Turkic languages studied by?

59. Who are the founders of phonological typology?

60. What language is considered to be the language with non - developed morphology?

61. Who is the author of the " Philosophy of grammar"?

62. What categories dealing with the levels of the language was established by A. V. Bandarko?

63. What did Guliga E. V. and Shandels E.I. establish for the typological investigation of one language?

64. Can the grammatical category of plurality of nouns be expressed by zero morpheme in Russian?

65. Can the grammatical category of plurality of nouns be expressed by zero morpheme in Uzbek?

66. On what level of the Turkic languages do we find synharmonism?

67. In what language do you find extensive members of the sentence instead of subordinate clauses?

68. What main factors are important for the stability of agglutinated type of language structure ?

69. 1n what languages are the morphological limits between the root and the affixal morphemes light?

70. In what languages is the morphological limit between the root and affixal morphemes dark?

71. On what principles are the parts of the speech classified?

72. What do we take into consideration while classifying parts of speech?

73. Are the parts of speech primary grammatical or primary lexico - grammatical categories?

74. How do we classify secondary grammatical categories?

75. 1n what branch of linguistics are the forms of words studied?

76. What linguistic phenomenon is it reasonable to begin typological analyses of the language with?

77. What meaning do we understand under the category of case?

78. What smallest meanings (sems) do the case forms possess in Russian?

79. Are case forms in Russian polysemantic or monosemantic?

80. Are case forms in English polysemantic or monosemantic?

81. Are case forms in Uzbek polysemantic or monosemantic?

82. On what levels of the language is the category of number of nouns expressed in Russian?

83. On what levels of the language is the category of number of nouns

expressed in English?

84. On what levels of the language is the category of number of nouns expressed in English?

85. Can the category of plurality of nouns be non - marked in Russian? How?

86. Are the case forms of Russian nouns connected to the root morphemes or stems by fusion or agglutination?

87. Are the case forms of Uzbek nouns connected to the root morphemes or stems by agglutination or fusion?

88. Are the case forms of English nouns connected to the root morphemes or stems by agglutination or fusion?

89. Are the affixal morphemes of plurality of Russian nouns connected to the root morphemes or stems by agglutination or fusion?

90. Are the affixal morphemes of plurality of Uzbek nouns connected to the root morphemes or stems by agglutination or fusion?

91. Are the affixal morphemes of plurality of English nouns connected to the root morphemes or stems by agglutination or fusion?

92. Is the singularity of Russian nouns marked or non-marked?

93. Is the singularity of English nouns marked or non-marked?

94. Is the singularity of Uzbek nouns marked or non-marked?

95. Is the common case (именительный подеж)of nouns in Russian marked or non- marked?

96. Is the common case of nouns in English marked or non-marked?

97. Is the common case(bosh kelishik) of nouns in Uzbek marked or non marked?

98. Is the expression of plurality of nouns by sound -interchange limited or productive in modern English?

99. Can the plurality of nouns in Russian be expressed by sound - interchange without the affixal morpheme being followed ?

100.Can the plurality of nouns in Uzbek be expressed by sound-interchange?

101.Is the category of grammatical gender of nouns in Russian marked or non-marked?

102.Do the Russian nouns agree in gender with forms of verbs in the past tense?

103.Do the Uzbek nouns agree in gender with forms of verbs in the past tense?

104.Do the English nouns agree in gender with forms of verbs in the past tense?

105.Can the Uzbek nouns be used in the function of adjectives?

106.Can the English nouns be used in the function of adjectives?

107.Can the Russian nouns (without adjective forming elements) be used in the function of adjectives?

108.Do the adjectives in Russian agree with nouns they modify in number, gender and case?

109.Do the adjectives in English agree with nouns they modify in number ,gender and case?

110.Do the adjectives in Uzbek agree with nouns they modify in number, gender and case?

111.Do the Russian adjectives possess full or short forms?

112.Do the Uzbek adjectives possess full or short forms?

113.Do the English adjectives possess short or full forms?

114.Do the Russian adjectives in short forms in the function of the predicative agree with the noun they modify in gender ?

115.Are the affixal morphemes expressing degrees of comparison of adjectives in Russian connected to the root morpheme or stem by the fusion or agglutination?

116.Are the affixal morphemes expressing degrees of comparison of adjectives in English connected to the root morpheme or stem by fusion or agglutination?

117.Are the affixal morphemes expressing degrees of comparison of adjectives in Uzbek connected to the root morpheme or stem by fusion or agglutination?

118.Can the superlative degree of Russian adjectives be expressed by agglutination?

119.Can the superlative degree of Uzbek adjectives be expressed by fusion?

120.Can the superlative degree of Uzbek adjectives be expressed by agglutination?

121.Do the affixal morphemes change the sound structure of the root morphemes or stems In English?

122.Do the affixal morphemes change the sound structure of the morphemes or stems in Uzbek?

123.Do the affixal morphemes change the sound structure of the root morphemes or stems in Russian?

124.What is synthetical-agglutinated way of adding affixal morphemes to the root morphemes or stems?

125.What is the synthetical -inflected way of adding affixal morphemes

to the root morphemes or stems?

126.What sciences does comparatively typology cooperate with?

127.How does the comparative typology cooperate with the theory of translation?

128.What are the concrete peculiarities relating the comparative typology to the theory of translation?

129.What is the freedom of choice in the theory of translation?

130.Is the freedom of choice characteristic feature of comparative typology?

131.What sciences has the linguistic typology relations with?

132.Why are the linguistic typology and the theory of translation closely connected with each other?

133.Why is the methodology of teaching foreign languages closely connected with the linguistic typology?

134.Why is the lexicography closely connected with the comparative typology?

135.Why is the comparative typology closely connected with the science of style?

136.What are the interfering means studied in the methodology of teaching foreign languages?

137.Why is the problem of interference studied in the methodology of teaching foreign languages important for the comparative typology ?

138.Does linguistic typology investigate private cases of similarity and distinctions in the structure of languages?

139.What method does general typology work on?

140.What is the analysis of the language diachronically?

141.What is the analysis of the language synchronically?

142.Why did Johnson S. suggest 6 case forms in English?

143.Can we consider translation as one of the constituent part of linguistic typology?

144.In what type of language the word and the sentence coinside?

145.In what type of the language parts of speech are not differentiated?

146.Are logical categories primary or secondary?

147.Are linguistic categories primary or secondary?

148.Do logical categories coincide with linguistic categories?

149.On what principles are typological categories modified?

150.What is the structure of the language?

TESTS ON COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY OF THE ENGLISH AND NATIVE LANGUAGES

What language universals were spoken about at the world congress of linguists in 1961?
a) a,b,c
b) Synchronic
c) Diachronic
d) Absolute and static

Are the majority of suffixes in the agglutinated languages polysemantic or monosemantic?
a) Monosemantic
b) Polysemantic
c) a,b
d) Polysemantic inclined to be monosemantic

Are the majority of suffixes in inflected languages polysemantic or monosemantic?
a) Polysemantic
b) a,b
c) Polysemantic inclined to be monosemantic
d) Monosemantic

What type do the languages of North America, Siberia, and Northern Australia belong to?
a) Polysynthetic
b) a,c
c) Agglutinated
d) Inflected

What is the type of the Arabic language?
a) Agglutinated-inflected
b) a,c
c) Polysynthetic
d) Incorporated

Who is considered to be the founder of phonetic typology?
a) E.D.Polivanov
b) Rasmusk R
c) M.V. Panov
d) F de Sossyur

Who studied phonetic system of Turkic languages?
a) M.Kashgari
b) Rasmusk R
c) M.V. Panov
d) F de Sossyur

Can the English nouns be used in the function of adjectives?
a) Yes
b) No
c) They always can be used in the function of adjectives
d) a,c

Who is the founder of phonological typology?
a) c,d
b) Rasmusk R.

c) Panov M.V.

d) Trubetskoy N.

What language is considered to be the language with non-developed morphology?

a) Chinese
b) Russian
c) Uzbek
d) German

What categories dealing with the levels of the language was established by A.V.Bandarko?

a) Functional-semantic categories
b) Grammatical-lexical fields
c) Notional categories
d) a,b

What did Guliga E.V. and Shendels E.I. establish for the typological investigation of one language?

a) Grammatical-lexical fields
b) Semantic fields
c) Notional categories
d) a,b

Can the Uzbek nouns be used in the function of adjectives?

a) Yes
b) No
c) a,d
d) They always can be used in the function of adjectives

How are the tense forms in Uzbek expressed ?

a) Synthetically and synthetic-analitically
b) Synthetically
c) Analitically
d) Polysynhetically

On what level of the language is subjunctive mood in English expressed?

a) On the morphological level
b) On the phonological level
c) On the lexical level
d) On the syntactical level

How is the imperative mood in English expressed?

a) Synthetically, analytically and synthetical-analytically
b) Synthetically
c) Synthetical-analytically
d) Analytically

Do the Russian nouns agree in gender with forms of verbs in the past tense?

a) Yes
b) No
c) In most cases don't agree
d) Sometimes they do

Do the Uzbek nouns agree in gender with forms of verbs in the past tense?

a) No
b) Yes
c) In most cases they don't agree

d) Sometimes they do

On what level of the language is the subjunctive mood in Russian expressed?
a) On the morphological level
b) On the syntactical level
c) On the lexical level
d) On the phonological level

Is the imperative mood in Russian expressed synthetically or analytically?
a) Synthetic-analytically, synthetically
b) Synthetically
c) Analytically
d) Synthetically, analytically

How is the category of the degrees of comparison of adjectives expressed in the English language?
a) Synthetically and synthetic-analytically
b) Analytically
c) Synthetically
d) Synthetic-analytically

Do the English nouns agree in gender with forms of verbs in the past tense?
a) No
b) Yes
c) In most cases they do
d) Sometimes they do

How is the category of the degrees of comparison of adjectives in Russian expressed?
a) Synthetically and synthetic-analytically
b) Synthetically
c) Synthetic-analytically
d) Analytically

Is the degree of comparison in the English, Russian and Uzbek languages a grammatical or lexical category?
a) Grammatical category
b) Lexical category
c) Logical category
d) Lexical-grammaical category

Have the English numerals any grammatical categories?
a) They don't have any grammatical categories
b) Grammatical category of gender
c) Grammatical category of number
d) c,d

What grammatical categories have the Uzbek numerals?
a) Grammatical category of case
b) Grammatical category of gender
c) Grammatical category of the degrees of comparison
d) a,b

What grammatical categories have Russian numerals?
a) b,c,d
b) Grammatical category of gender
c) Grammatical category of number
d) Grammatical category of case

What grammatical categories have the English pronouns?
a) They don't have any grammatical categories
b) Grammatical category of number
c) Grammatical category of gender
d) Grammatical category of case

What grammatical categories have the Russian pronouns?
a) b,c,d
b) Grammatical category of number
c) Grammatical category of case
d) Grammatical category of gender

What grammatical categories have the Uzbek pronouns?
a) b,c
b) Grammatical category of case
c) Grammatical category of number
d) Grammatical category of gender

Linguistic typology investigates...
a) Universal phenomena which unite languages or separate them
b) Private cases of similarity in languages
c) Distinctions in languages
d) Diachronic phenomena of languages

What are the different viewpoints to the language description?
a) Internal, external
b) External
c) Internal
d) General

Linguistic typology studies language systems...
a) On the basis of comparative method
b) On the basis of comparison of private cases
c) On the basis of mathematic analysis
d) On the basis of transformational method

What do you understand by panchronical comparison of language systems?
a) Living or dead languages' systems are compared synchronically and diachronically
b) Living or dead languages' systems are compared
c) Dead languages' systems are compared
d) Living languages' systems are

compared

Do the adjectives in Russian agree with nouns they modify in number,gender and case?
a) Yes
b) No
c) Sometimes they do
d) Mostly they don't

Do the adjectives in Uzbek agree with nouns they modify in number, gender and case?
a) No
b) Yes
c) Sometimes they do
d) In majority cases they don't agree

Substantional comparison is…
a) a comparison of language systems and their elements
b) a comparison of all concrete things or objects
c) a comparison of some concrete things or objects
d) a comparison of the grammatical structure of different languages

Internal approach to comparison is …
a) the study of the systems of any concrete national language
b) the study of non-related systems
c) the study of related systems
d) the study of related and non-

related languages

Linguistic typology may be classified…
a) a,b,c
b) according to the subject of comparison
c) according to the levels of language hierarchy
d) according to two plans of the language

Do the adjectives in English agree with nouns they modify in number, gender and case?
a) No
b) Yes
c) Sometimes they do
d) In majority cases they don't

The development of linguistic typology is connected …
a) with the appearance of comparative historical linguistics
b) with the interrelation between padigmatic and syntagmatic aspects of a certain language
c) with the development of mental ability of mankind
d) with the history of general linguistics

The main periods of the development of linguistic typology:
a) a,b,c,d
b) The appearance of primary linguistic works

c) The appearance of Port-Royal grammar and Devon Lugat at Turk
d) The appearance of comparative historical linguistics

The main factors of the development of linguistic typology:
a) All of the answers are right
b) Typological imitation which caused the appearance of grammars on the basis of Latin and Greek grammars
c) The study of unwritten and less known languages, the influence of the translation and lexicography
d) Practical and scientific study of foreign languages and interlanguage contacts

Universal grammar dealt with… categories
a) Phonetic, grammatical, logical
b) Philosophical
c) Logical and grammatical
d) Phonetic and logical

Grammatical category consists of…
a) b,c,d
b) the grammatical form
c) grammatical meaning
d) the plan of meaning and the plan of expression

What kind of classification of languages do you know?
a) All of them
b) Genealogical classification
c) Typological classification
d) Morphological and syntactical classifications

What is the genealogical classification of languages?
a) Classification of languages according to their origin
b) Classification of languages according to their structure
c) Classification of languages according to their systems
d) Classification of languages according to their types

The most characteristic feature of inductive grammar explanation is:
a) It rejects the need of formal grammar analysis
b) It requires translation
c) It rejects learning by heart
d) It guarantees conscious learning

The most characteristic feature of deductive grammar explanation is:
a) Direct teacher explanations are followed by related exercises
b) Students can acquire language naturally
c) Learners discover rules for themselves

d) Interaction takes place before explanation

Have the English adverbs any grammatical categories?
a) The degrees of comparison
b) They don't have any grammatical categories
c) The category of gender
d) The category of gender and comparison

Have the Uzbek adverbs any grammatical categories?
a) The grammatical category of the degrees of comparison
b) Grammatical category of case
c) Grammatical category of number
d) Grammatical category of gender

Are the degree of comparison of adverbs in English expressed on the morphological or syntactical levels of the language?
a) On the morphological
b) On the syntactical
c) On the morphological-syntactical
d) On the lexical

Is government a syntactical tie or a grammatical means?
a) A syntactical tie
b) A grammatical means
c) A grammatical signal
d) a,b,c

Is agreement a syntactical tie or a grammatical means?
a) A syntactical tie
b) A grammatical means
c) A grammatical signal
d) a,b,c

Is adjoining a syntactical tie or a grammatical means?
a) A syntactical tie
b) A grammatical means
c) A grammatical signal
d) a,b,c

Can the grammatical category of the plurality of nouns be expressed by zero morpheme in Russian?
a) B,d
b) Yes
c) No
d) By non-marked morheme

Can the grammatical category of plurality of nouns be expressed by zero morpheme in Uzbek?
a) Yes
b) No
c) a,b
d) By marked morpheme

On what level of the Turkic languages do we find synharmonism?
a) On the phonological level
b) On the morphological level
c) On the syntactical level

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d) a,b,c

In what language do you find extensive members of the sentence instead of subordinate clauses?
a) In Turkic languages
b) In English
c) In Uzbek
d) a,b

What main factors are important for the stability of agglutinated type of language structure in B.A.Serebrenikov's opinion?
a) b,c,d
b) Absence of the division of nouns into classes
c) Presence of the stable word order
d) The limits between root and affixal morphemes are light

In what languages the limits between the root and affixal morphemes are light?
a) Turkic languages
b) Germanic languages
c) Inflected lnaguages
d) a,b,c

In what languages the limits between the root and affixal morphemes are dark?
a) Inflected lnaguages
b) Turkic languages
c) Germanic languages
d) a,b,c

Are the parts of speech primary grammatical or primary lexico-grammatical categories?
a) Primary lexico-grammatical categories
b) Primary grammatical categories
c) Primary lexical categories
d) a,b

How do we classify secondary grammatical categories?
a) Proceeding from form and meaning followed by function
b) Proceeding from form
c) Proceeding from meaning
d) Proceeding from function

In what branch of linguistics are the forms of words studied?
a) In morphology
b) In lexicology
c) In phonology
d) In phonetics

What linguistic phenomenon is it reasonable to begin typological analysis of the language with?
a) Morphological categories
b) Logical categories
c) Philosophical categories
d) Lexical categories

What meaning do we understand under the category of case?
a) The meaning denoting relations between the noun and other words in the senence

b) a,c
c) The meaning denoting relation between actions and means of the material expression
d) Declension

What smallest meanings do the case forms possess in Russian?
a) All the answers are right
b) Objectness
c) Gender
d) Number

Are case forms in Russian polysemantic or monosemantic?
a) Polysemantic
b) Monosemantic
c) In majority cases monosemantic
d) a,b

Are case forms in English polysemantic or monosemantic?
a) Monosemantic
b) In majority cases monosemantic
c) Polysemantic
d) a,d

Is word order a syntactical tie or a grammatical means?
a) A grammatical means
b) A syntactical tie
c) A grammatical meaning
d) a,b,c

Is word order in the sentence free or fixed in English?

a) Free
b) Fixed
c) In majority of cases free
d) a,b,c

To what type of a language does the English language refer?
a) Inflected inclined to be analytical
b) Agglutinated
c) Isolated
d) Agglutinated-inflected

To what type of a language does the Russian language refer?
a) Inflected
b) Agglutinated
c) Isolated
d) Agglutinated-inflected

To what type of a language does the Uzbek language refer?
a) Agglutinated
b) Inflected
c) Isolated
d) Agglutinated-inflected

What meaning do the nouns possess?
a) Substance
b) Quality
c) Objects
d) Quantity

What grammatical categories do the English nouns have?
a) b,c
b) Case

c) Number
d) Gender

What grammatical categories do the Russian nouns have?
a) b,c,d
b) Case
c) Number
d) Gender

What grammatical categories do the Uzbek nouns have?
a) b,c,d
b) Case
c) Number
d) Possession

What grammatical categories do the Uzbek verbs have?
a) b,c,d
b) Person and number
c) Tense ,voice
d) Mood, transitivity and intransivity

What grammatical categories do the Russian verbs have?
a) b,c,d
b) Person and number
c) Tense ,voice, aspect
d) Mood, transitivity and intransitivity

What grammatical categories do the English verbs have?
a) b,c,d
b) Person and number
c) Tense ,voice,aspect

d) Mood, transitivity and intransivity

Who is the author of the word-form theory?
a) F.F.Fortunatov
b) F. de Sossyur
c) Boduen de Kurtene
d) M.V. Panov

Who is the representative of Moscow linguistic school?
a) M.N. Peterson
b) F. de Sossyur
c) Boduen de Kurtene
d) H. Sweet

Who is the founder of the Moscow linguistic school?
a) F.F.Fortunatov
b) F. de Sossyur
c) Boduen de Kurtene
d) M.V. Panov

What languages did the authors compare in the book "Port-Royal grammar"?
a) Germanic languages
b) Greek language
c) Sanscrit language
d) Latin language

Do the adjectives in Uzbek possess full or short forms?
a) Full forms
b) Short forms
c) Mostly short forms
d) a,b

What language was used as etalon language in the 17th – 18th centuries?
a) Latin language
b) Germanic languages
c) Greek language
d) Sanscrit language

When did genetic typology appear?
a) 20th century
b) 17th century
c) 18th century
d) 19th century

Who dealt with the reconstruction of languages?
a) All the answers are right
b) Grimm Y.
c) Schleicher A.
d) Rask R, Bopp F.

What does the areal typology study?
a) b,d
b) It deals with geographically limited number of languages
c) It deals with geographically non-limited number of languages
d) It studies dialects, compiles, dialectical dictionaries

The most characteristic feature of inductive grammar explanation is:
a) it rejects the need of formal grammar analysis-
b) it requires translation

c) it rejects learning by heart
d) it guarantees conscious learning
e) it designates a passive role on the part of the learners

Have the English adverbs any grammatical categories?
a) The degrees of comparison
b) They don't have any grammatical categories
c) The category of gender
d) The category of gender and comparison

Have the Uzbek adverbs any grammatical categories?
a) Grammatical category of the degrees of comparison
b) Grammatical category of case
c) Grammatical category of number
d) Grammatical category of gender

Do the adjectives in English possess full or short forms?
a) Full forms
b) Short forms
c) Mostly short forms
d) a,b

Are the degrees of comparison of adverbs in English expressed on the morphological or syntactical levels of the language?
a) On the morphological level
b) On the syntactical level

c) On the morphological-syntactical level
d) On the lexical level

Is government a syntactical tie or a grammatical means?
a) A syntactical tie
b) A grammatical means
c) A grammatical relation
d) a,b,c

Is agreement a syntactical tie or a grammatical means?
a) A syntactical tie
b) A grammatical means
c) A grammatical relation
d) a,b,c

Is adjoining a syntactical tie or a grammatical means?
a) A syntactical tie
b) A grammatical means
c) A grammatical relation
d) a,b,c

Is word order a syntactical tie or a grammatical means?
a) A grammatical means
b) A syntactical tie
c) A grammatical relation
d) a,b,c

Is word order a synthetic grammatical means or analytical?
a) An analytical grammatical means
b) A synthetic grammatical means

c) A synthetic-analytical means
d) a,b,c

To what type of a language does the English language refer?
a) Inflected inclined to be analytical
b) Agglutinated
c) Isolated
d) Agglutinated-inflected

To what type of a language does the Russian language refer?
a) Inflected
b) Agglutinated
c) Isolated
d) Agglutinated-inflected

What language phenomenon was discussed in the World Congress of Linguists in 1961?
a) Linguistic universals
b) Etalon language
c) Reconstruction of languages
d) Comparative method

What famous linguists took part in the World Congress of Linguists in 1961?
a) b,c
b) Greenberg J.
c) Jenkins L., Osgood Ch.
d) Arno and Lanslo

What language universals were spoken about at the world congress of linguists in 1961?
a) b,c,d

b) Synchronic
c) Diachronic
d) Absolute and statistic,deductive-inductive,simple and complex

Are the majority of suffixes in the agglutinated languages polysemantic or monosemantic?
a) Monosemantic
b) Polysemantic
c) a,b
d) Polysemantic inclined to be monosemantic

Are the majority of suffixes in inflected languages polysemantic or monosemantic?
a) Polysemantic
b) a,b
c) Polysemantic inclined to be monosemantic
d) Monosemantic

Are the affixal morphemes of plurality of Russian nouns connected to the root morphemes or stems by fusion or agglutination?
a) b,c
b) By fusion
c) Very seldom by agglutination
d) By agglutination

Are the affixal morphemes of plurality of Uzbek nouns connected to the root morphemes or stems by fusion or agglutination?
a) By agglutination
b) By fusion
c) By inner fusion
d) a,b

Are the affixal morphemes of plurality of English nouns connected to the root morphemes or stems by fusion or agglutination?
a) b,c
b) By agglutination
c) Sometimes by fusion
d) Very seldom by agglutination

Is the singularity of Russian nouns marked or non-marked?
a) c,d
b) Non-marked
c) Marked
d) Sometimes non-marked

Is the singularity of English nouns marked or non-marked?
a) Non-marked
b) Marked
c) Sometimes non-marked
d) a,b

Is the singularity of Uzbek nouns marked or non-marked?
a) Non-marked
b) Marked
c) Sometimes non-marked
d) a,b

Is the common case of nouns in Russian marked or non-marked?
a) Sometimes marked, sometimes non-marked
b) Marked
c) Non-marked
d) Marked with zero morheme

Is the common case of nouns in Uzbek marked or non-marked?
a) Non-marked
b) Marked
c) In majority cases non-marked
d) Mostly marked

Is the common case of nouns in Uzbek marked or non-marked?
a) Non-marked
b) Marked
c) In majority cases non-marked
d) Mostly marked

Is the expression of plurality of nouns by sound interchange limited or productive in modern English?
a) Limited
b) Productive
c) Mostly productive
d) Plurality of nouns in English is never expressed by sound interchange

Can the plurality of nouns in Russian be expressed sound interchange only?
a) Yes
b) No

c) In minority of cases
d) Only by affixes

What is the type of Chucotic language?
a) Polysinthetic
b) Agglutinated
c) Infleced
d) Infleced-agglutinated

What is the type of the Arabic language?
a) Agglutinated-inflected
b) a,c
c) Agglutinated
d) Isolated

Who is considered to be the founder of phonetic typology?
a) E.D.Polivanov
b) Rasmus R.
c) M.V. Panov
d) F de Sossyur

What categories dealing with the levels of the language was established by A.V.Bondarko?
a) Functional-semantic categories
b) Grammatical-lexical fields
c) Notional categories
d) a,b

What did Guliga E.V. and Shendels E.I. establish for the typological investigation of one language?
a) Grammatical-lexical fields

b) Funcional-semantic categories
c) Notional categories
d) a,b

Can the grammatical category of the plurality of nouns be expressed by zero morpheme in Russian?
a) Yes
b) No
c) Mostly by agglutinated affixal morpheme
d) By marked morpheme

Can the grammatical category of the plurality of nouns be expressed by zero morpheme in Uzbek?
a) Yes
b) No
c) Mostly by fusion
d) By marked morpheme

On what level of the Turkic languages do we find synharmonism?
a) On the phonological level
b) On the morphological level
c) On the syntactical level
d) a,b

In what language do you find extensive members of the sentence instead of subordinate clauses?
a) In Turkic languages
b) In English
c) In Uzbek

d) In Russian

What main factors are important for the stability of agglutinated type of language structure in B.A.Serebrenikov's opinion?
a) b,c,d
b) Absence of the devision of nouns into classes
c) Presence of the stable word order
d) The limits between the root and affixal morphemes are light

In what languages the limits between the root and affixal morphemes are dark?
a) Inflected lnaguages
b) Turkic languages
c) Germanic languages
d) a,b,c

Are the parts of speech primary grammatical or primary lexico-grammatical categories?
a) Primary lexico-grammatical categories
b) Primary grammatical categories
c) Primary lexical categories
d) a,b

How do we classify secondary grammatical categories?
a) Proceeding from form and meaning followed by function
b) Proceeding from form
c) Proceeding from meaning

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d) Proceeding from function

In what branch of linguistics are the forms of words studied?
a) In morphology
b) In syntax
c) In phonology
d) In phonetics

What linguistic phenomenon is it reasonable to begin typological analysis of the language with?
a) Grammatical categories
b) Lexical-grammatical categories
c) Logical categories
d) Notional categories

What meaning do we understand under the category of case?
a) The meaning denoting the relation of the noun towards other words in the sentence
b) The meaning denoting relation between objects
c) The meaning denoting relation between actions and means of the material expression
d) The meaning denoting subject-object relations

What sems do the case forms possess in Russian?
a) b,c,d
b) Objectness
c) Gender
d) Number

Are case forms in Russian polysemantic or monosemantic?
a) Polysemantic
b) Monosemantic
c) In majority cases monosemantic
d) a,b

Are case forms in English polysemantic or monosemantic?
a) Monosemantic
b) In majority cases monosemantic
c) Polysemantic
d) a,c

Are the affixal morphemes of plurality of Uzbek nouns connected to the root morphemes or stems by fusion or agglutination?
a) By agglutination
b) By fusion
c) Very seldom by agglutination
d) a,b

Are the affixal morphemes of plurality of English nouns connected to the root morphemes or stems by fusion or agglutination?
a) b,c
b) By agglutination
c) Sometimes by fusion
d) Very seldom with agglutination

Is the common case of nouns in Uzbek marked or non-marked?
a) Non-marked
b) Marked
c) In majority cases non-marked
d) Mostly marked

Is the expression of plurality of nouns by sound interchange limited or productive in modern English?
a) Limited
b) Productive
c) Mostly productive
d) Plurality of nouns in English is never expressed by sound interchange

Can the plurality of nouns in Russian be expressed by sound interchange only?
a) No
b) Yes
c) In majoriy of cases it is expressed by agglutination
d) It is expressed by suppletive form

Can the plurality of nouns in Uzbek be expressed by sound interchange ?
a) No
b) Yes
c) In majority of cases it is expressed by fusion
d) It is always expressed by fusional affixation

Linguistic typology investigates...
a) Universal phenomena which unite languages or separate them
b) Private cases of similarity in languages
c) Distinctions in languages
d) Origin of related and non-related languages

What are the different viewpoints to the language description?
a) internal, external
b) External
c) Internal
d) General

Linguistic typology studies language systems...
a) on the basis of comparative method
b) on the basis of comparison of private cases
c) on the basis of their individual features ignoring commonalities
d) on the basis of comparative-historical method

Internal approach to comparison is …
a) The study of the systems of any concrete national language
b) The study of non-related systems
c) The study of related systems
d) The study of related and non-related languages

Substantional comparison is…
a) a comparison of language systems and their elements
b) a comparison of all concrete things or objects
c) a comparison of some concrete things or objects
d) a comparison of the grammatical structure of different languages

Linguistic typology may be classified…
a) all the answers are right
b) according to the subject of comparison
c) according to the levels of language hierarchy
d) according to two plans of the language

The development of linguistic typology is connected …
a) with the appearance of comparative historical linguistics
b) c,d
c) with the development of mental ability of mankind
d) with the history of general linguistics

The main periods of the development of linguistics typology:
a) a,b,c
b) The appearance of primary linguistic works
c) The appearance of Port-Royal grammar and Devonu Lugat -at – Turk by M. Koshgariy
d) The appearance of comparative historical linguistics

The main factors of the development of linguistic typology:
a) b, c, d
b) Typological imitation which caused the appearance of grammars on the basis of Latin and Greek grammars
c) The study of unwritten and less known languages, the influence of the translation and lexicography
d) The appearance of the "Universal Grammar" by Arno and Lanslo

Universal grammar dealt with… categories
a) phonetic, grammatical, logical
b) philosophical
c) logical and grammatical
d) phonetic and logical

What is the genealogical classification of languages?
a) Classification of languages according to their origin
b) Classification of languages according to their structure
c) Classification of languages according to their systems
d) Classification of languages according to their types

What is typological classification?
a) Classification of languages according to their type
b) Classification of languages according to their origion
c) Classification of languages according to their relationship
d) b,c

What is system closeness?
a) The identity and non-identity of structural types of compared languages
b) Identity of morphemes
c) Identity of syntactical units
d) Identity and non-identity of morphology

What is genetic closeness?
a) Material identity of the group of compared language
b) Genetically differently related languages
c) Genetically different families of languages
d) b,c.

What is areal limitation?
a) Comparison is limited by the group of languages belonging to a certain geographic area
b) Comparison is limited by the group of languages belonging to different geographic area
c) Comparison is limited by the typologically related languages

d) a.,b.,c.

What is deep identity?
a) Generalized meaning peculiar to a group of compared languages and has different representation on surface
b) Concrete meaning peculiar to a group of compared languages
c) Private cases peculiar to a group of compared languages
d) Material expression of the generalized meaning in the group of compared languages

What is surface identity?
a) Different representation of the concrete meaning
b) a,b,c
c) Identity of expression in form

What is formal approach to comparison?
a) c,d
b) Any typological analysis based on logical categories
c) Any typological analysis produced in the way of description
d) Any typological analysis produced by separate system of symbols

What is content approach to comparison?
a) Comparison of languages on the basis of preliminary chosen categorial meaning

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b) Any typological analysis based on logical categories
c) Any typological analysis based on grammatical categories
d) a,b,c

What is one-level approach to comparison?
a) Language phenomena studied on the phonetic or morphological levels of linguistic hierarchy
b) All language phenomena studied on the levels of the linguistic hierarchiy
c) a,b,c
d) The grammatical meaning expressed only in one level of the language is compared

What is cross-level approach to comparison?
a) Investigation of the chosen categorical notion in all levels of the language
b) Investigation of a chosen categorial notion in one level of the language
c) Grammatical meaning expressed in two levels of the languages
d) d.,c.

What is the perfectness of typological operation?
a) All the answers are correct
b) Every language is described independently
c) The results of the description

of the studied languages are compared
d) General laws of isomorphic and allomorphic features of compared languages are revealed

What is genetic typology?
a) b,c
b) Deals with the languages genetically related synchronically
c) Deals with the languages genetically related diachronically
d) Studies the origin of languages

Areal typology deals …..
a) with geographically limited number of language
b) with geographically non limited number of languages
c) with cross-level approach to comparison
d) with one-level approach to comparison

Linguistic universals are…
a) certain linguistic phenomenon or regularity which is common to all or the majority of languages
b) certain notion which is common to the majority of language
c) certain logical categories common to all languages
d) certain philosophical categories common to all languages of the world

When did Port-Royal grammar appear?
a) In the 17century
b) In the 19century
c) In the 20 ceuntyr
d) In the 11ceuntry

"Universal Grammar" is connected with the name of the scholar….in linguistics
a) Noam Chomsky
b) Guliga E.V.
c) Shendels E.I.
d) Greenberg J.

Isolated type of the language…..
a) all the answers are correct
b) is characterized by the absence of inflections
c) is characterized by the absence of affixal morphemes
d) is characterized by the less developed word formation

Agglutinated types of the language are characterized…..
a) all the answers are correct
b) by monosemantic affixal morphemes in the majority of cases
c) by modifying word which is used before the noun
d) by suffixes which are added to the root morphemes or stems without fusion

Inflected type of languages are characterized

a) All the answers are correct
b) By the polysementic affixal morphemes
c) By the free word order in the sentence
d) By the fusional addition of affixal-morphemes to the root morphemes or stems

Who suggested agglutinated - inflected type of language
a) F.F.Fortunatov
b) F.Schlegel
c) A.Schlegel
d) W.Humboldt

Who suggested the term isolated type of language instead of the term amorphous type of language ?
a) W.Humboldt
b) F.F.Fortunatov
c) A.Schlegel
d) F.Schlegel

Who suggested polysynthetic type of languages?
a) W.Humboldt
b) F.F.Fortunatev
c) A.Schlegel
d) F.Schlegel

How did G.P.Melnikov classify languages?
a) On the basis of determinant classification
b) On the basis of the structure of word
c) On the basis of morphological

structure
d) On the basis of syntactical ties

Who established typological categories
a) J.Buranov
b) a.,b.,c.
c) I.Meshchaninov
d) Shendelas E.I.

Phonetic typology …
a) deals with the units of phonetic level of related and non-related languages
b) deals with the comparison of phonemes
c) deals with the comparison of phonological level
d) deals with phonology

Who is the founder of phonetic typology?
a) Polivanov Y.D, Shcerbak A.M.
b) Panov M.V, Klychkov G.S.
c) a,b,c
d) Yakobson R. and Trubetskoy N.

Indifference to system closeness means …
a) a,b
b) indifference to the identity or non-identity of structural types of compared languages
c) indifference to the relationship of languages
d) indifference to the non-

relationship of languages

Indifference to genetic closeness means …
a) a,b
b) indifference to material identity of the group of compared languages
c) indifference to the relationship of languages
d) indifference to the non-relationship of languages

Areal limitation means that …
a) comparison is limited by the group of languages belonging to a certain geographic area
b) comparison is not limited by the group of languages belonging to a certain geographic area
c) a,b
d) comparison is indifferent to the closeness of geographic area

Areal non-limitation means that …
a) comparison is not limited by the group of languages belonging to a certain geographic area
b) comparison is limited by the group of languages belonging to a certain geographic area
c) comparison is indifferent to the closeness of geographic area
d) a,b

Functional-semantic categories …

a) are expressed by the units of the grammatical and lexical levels
b) are expressed by functional words
c) a,b,c
d) are expressed by analytical froms

Grammatical-lexical fields…
a) unite vocabulary and grammar for the expression of this or that categorical notion
b) unite lexical and grammatical caegories
c) unite analytical and synthetic from
d) a,d

Grammatical meaning …
a) is an abstract meaning concerning to the class of words which is expressed in some grammatical from
b) is the content plan
c) is the lexical meaning of the word
d) is the grammatical signal

The binary opposition of word forms…
a) is the syntagmatic and paradigmatic opposition of word forms
b) is the opposition of the grammatical from and meaning
c) is the opposition of the plan of meaning

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d) is the opposition of the content plan and formal plan

What is the type of language?
a) The type of the language is defined according to prevalent features of the language
b) The stable sum of leading features connected with each other
c) The plan of meaning and the plan of from make up the type of the language
d) a,b

What is a type in the language?
a) c,d
b) Language phenomena not considered to be a leading feature
c) Language phenomena considered to be a leading feature
d) Language phenomena considered to be dominant

What is isomorphism?
a) b,c
b) A common relation between two or more forms expressing one linguistic phenomenon
c) If there are many classes of declension there should be classes of strong and weak verbs in the language
d) If there are postwords there should be prepositions in the language

What is allomorphism?

a) Different forms expressing the same grammatical meaning
b) Different forms expressing different linguistic relations
c) Different grammatical meanings expressed by the same grammatical from
d) b.,c.

What is compensation?
a) b,c,d
b) If language disposes two ways of expressing the same grammatical phenomenon,there may be found the language which uses one of them
c) If in a language phenomenon "A" is solved in a concrete way the phenomenon "B" should be solved in this way too
d) If there is phenomenon "A" there may be the phenomenon "B" too in the language

What is a three-morpheme structure?
a) Root stem forming suffix with the case inflexion make up a three-morpheme structure of the word
b) Roottwo stem forming suffixes make up a three morpheme structure of the word
c) Rootcase forming flexion with the suffix make up the three morpheme structure of the word
d) b,c

What is a two-morpheme structure?
a) Rootcase form make up a two morpheme structure of the word
b) Rootstem forming suffix make up a two-morpheme structure of the word
c) Rootword forming suffix case form make up a two-morpheme structure
d) -b,c

What can you say about the disappearance of case forms?
a) b,c,d
b) The lost of the semantic meaning of stem forming suffixes caused the latter become the phonetic component of the word being combined with the case inflection
c) The lost of the semantic meaning of stem forming suffixes caused the formation of the homonymical case forms
d) The lost of the semantic meaning of stem forming suffixes caused words' three-morpheme structure change into two-morpheme structure

What can you say about analytical case forms in English?
a) Expression of the relation among the objects, actions by the prepositional constructions
b) Expression of the relation among the objects, actions by the

combination of the functional and notional words
c) Expression of the relation among the objects by analytical forms
d) a,b

What levels of the language do you know?
a) b,c
b) Phonological, morphological
c) Syntactical, lexical
d) Formal, logical

What grammatical meanings in English can be expressed on the phonological level of the language?
a) Plurality of nouns, past tense
b) Perfect tense forms
c) Third person singular of the verbs
d) Degrees of comparison of adjectives

What grammatical meanings in English can be expressed on the phono – morphological level of the language?
a) Plurality of nouns and Past Participle
b) Degrees of comparison of adjectives
c) Possessive case of nouns
d) a,b

What grammatical meanings in English can be expressed on the morphological level of the language?
a) b,c,d
b) Plurality of nouns
c) Past simple of regular verbs
d) Possessive case of nouns

What grammatical category in English can be expressed on the lexical-syntactical level of the language?
a) b,c.
b) The category of modality in compound modal verbal predicate
c) The category of plurality of mass material nouns
d) Plurality of countable nouns

What grammatical meaning is expressed on the lexical level of the English language?
a) The meaning of gender in nouns
b) The meaning of number in nouns
c) Subjuncive mood is expressed on the lexical level of the English language
d) Tense forms are expressed on the lexical level of the English language

What can you say about synthetic forms?
a) Grammatical meaning expressed inside the word
b) Grammatical meaning

expressed by functional words
c) Grammatical meaning expressed by word order
d) Grammatical meaning expressed by intonation

What can you say about analytical forms?
a) b,c,d
b) Grammatical meaning expressed outside the word
c) Grammatical meaning expressed by word order
d) Grammatical meaning expressed by the combination of the functional and notional words

What is agglutinated affixation?
a) b,c,d
b) By the addition of the affixal morphemes to the root morphemes or stems neither the root nor the affixal morpheme changes
c) The limit between the root and affixal morphemes is light
d) The separation of the affixal morpheme from the root morpheme does not make the word lose its independence

What is fusional affixation?
a) b,c,d
b) By the addition of the affixal morpheme to the root morpheme the root morpheme's sound structure changes
c) The limit between the root

morpheme and the affixal morpheme is dark
d) The separation of the affixal morpheme from the root morpheme makes the word lose its independence

What are the suppletive forms expressing grammatical meaning?
a) Forms expressing grammatical meaning by the other root not changing the lexical meaning of the word
b) Forms expressing grammatical meaning by fusional affixaion
c) Forms expressing grammatical meaning by agglutinated affixation
d) a.,b.,c.

Word order in the sentence in English is…
a) meaningful
b) free
c) not meaningful
d) not fixed

Word order in the sentence in Russian is …
a) free
b) fixed
c) stable
d) not fixed

What is the contribution of Czech linguist B.Skalic'ka in "Comparative typology"?
a) He is credited with further developing morphological typology
b) He is famous in reconstruction of Germanic languages
c) He made a great contribution in working out the theory of word form
d) b,c

What phenomenon caused words' three-morpheme structure change to a two – morpheme structure
a) b,c
b) Becoming of the stem forming suffixes the phonetic component of the word
c) Losing the semantic meaning of stem forming suffixes
d) Disappearance of the perfective aspect forms

What is the reason of the Indo-European case system be shattered?
a) b,c,d
b) Stem -forming suffixes have lost their semantic meaning
c) Stem -forming suffixes have become phonetic component of words
d) Stem forming suffixes losing their semantic meaning combined with case morphemes

What reason causes the absence of the classes of declension of nouns in agglutinated languages in B.A.Serebrennikov's opinion?
a) Productivity of adjoining
b) a,b
c) Productivity of agreement
d) Productivity of government

What are the reasons of the agglutinated languages' structure?
a) b,c,d
b) The limits between the root and the affixal morphemes are light
c) The absence of the classes of declension
d) The usage of the extensive member of the sentence in the function of the attribute

What can you say about zero morpheme?
a) The absence of the marked form of the certain grammatical meaning on the basis of the presence of the marked form of the same grammatical meaning entering the binary opposition
b) The complete absence of the affixal morpheme expressing certain grammatical meaning
c) The absence of the affixal morpheme in the wordof the word
d) b,c

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Word changing elements are …
a) Signals expressing grammatical meaning added to the lexical meaning of the word
b) Signals expressing lexical meaning
c) Signals changing the lexical meaning of the word
d) a,b,c

Word forming elements are …
a) elements changing the lexical meaning of the word
b) elements expressing the relation among the words in the sentence
c) elements expressing abstract meaning which is added to the lexical meaning of the word
d) b,c

What can you say about the language with stable word order in the sentence?
a) The language where the word order in the sentence is meaningful
b) The language where the word order in the sentence is not meaningful
c) The language where the word order is stylistically marked
d) The language where the word order stylistically non-marked

What can you say about the language with free word order in the sentence?
a) The language where order of words in the sentence is not meaningful
b) The language where the word order is meaningful
c) The language where the word order is stylistically marked
d) The language where the word order is stylistically non-marked

What can you say about the language with fixed word – order in the sentence?
a) The language where the word -order is meaningful
b) The language where the word -order is stylistically marked
c) The language where the word -order is stylistically non-marked
d) b,c

What is adjoining?
a) The head word doesn't demand the adjunct (dependent) word to change its grammatical form
b) c,d
c) The head word demands the adjunct to change its grammatical form
d) The head word demands the adjunct to receive all grammatical forms exised in it

What is government?

a) The head word demands the adjunct word to receive some grammatical form (not existing in the head word)
b) The head word doesn't demand the adjunct (dependent) word to change its sound structure
c) The head word demands the dependent word to receive all the grammatical forms existed in it
d) a,b

What is the agreement?
a) The head word demands the dependent word to receive all grammatical forms existed in it
b) The head word doesn't demand the adjunct (dependent) word to change its sound structure
c) The head word demands the dependent word to receive some grammatical form not existed in it
d) a,c

What are the functions of the phoneme?
a) b,d
b) Constitutive
c) Meaningful
d) Distinctive

What is the typological category?
a) b,c,d
b) Consist of the typological

form and typological meaning
c) Is modified by inter-language, interclass and inter-level criteria
d) Consists of the opposition of at least two forms of the investigated linguistic phenomen
What are the grammatical means of the language?
a) a,b,c
b) Affixation, sound-interchange, intonation
c) Suppletive forms, change of the place of the stress in the word, word-order
d) Functional word combined with the notional word

What is inner fusion ?
a) The addition of the affixal morpheme causes the change of the phoneme inside the root
b) The addition of the affixal morpheme doesn't cause the change of the phoneme inside the root
c) The addition of the affixal morpheme to the root morpheme by agglutination
d) a,b,c

What is outer fusion?
a) The addition of the affixal morpheme to the root morpheme changes the phoneme at the end of the root
b) The addition of the affixal morpheme causes the change of the phoneme inside the root

c) The addition of affixal morpheme to the root morpheme by agglutination
d) a,b,c

What is grammatically marked form?
a) When the grammatical meaning is expressed by one of grammatical means
b) When the grammatical meaning is expressed by the independent word
c) When the grammatical meaning is expressed adjunct
d) b,c

What is grammatically non-marked form?
a) When the grammatical meaning is expressed by zero morpheme
b) When the grammatical meaning is expressed by intonation
c) When the grammatical meaning is expressed by the change of the place of the stress in the word
d) b,c

What is explicitly expressed grammatical from?
a) When the grammatical meaning is expressed by some grammatical means
b) When the grammatical meaning is expressed by affixation

c) When the grammatical meaning is expressed by agglutination
d) When the grammatical meaning is expressed by the independent word

What is implicitly expressed grammatical form?
a) When the grammatical meaning is expressed by zero morpheme
b) When the grammatical meaning is expressed by fusion
c) When the grammatical meaning is expressed by agglutination
d) b,c

What are primary grammatical categories
a) Parts of speech
b) The grammatical categories of the verb
c) The grammatical categories of the noun
d) b,c

What are secondary grammatical categories?
a) Grammatical categories exited in the parts of speech
b) Grammatical category of noun
c) Grammatical category of verb
d) b,c

What is paradigmatic opposition?

a) Different grammatical forms of one word of the same part of speech expressing the same grammatical relation (meaning)
b) Two or more forms of the word entering the binary opposition on the basis of one grammatical category
c) Opposition of two grammatical categories
d) b,c

What is the category of declension?
a) The change of the word in case forms and number forms representing the special paradigm denoting relation among the words in the sentence
b) The relation among the words in the sentence
c) Different forms of the noun expressing the meaning of the case
d) b,c

What is the category of declension ?
a) The category of declension is the change of the form of the word to express its syntactic function in the sentence by some way of inflexion
b) The opposition of the noun in the common to the other nouns
c) The expression of the relation among the words in the sentence
d) The expression of the relation among object and action in the sentence

What can you say about the category of gender in Russian?
a) The grammatical category of gender in Russian has the formal character with nouns denoting concrete and abstract objects
b) The grammatical category of gender in Russian has the logical character with nouns denoting persons and animals
c) It is a logical category
d) a,b

What can you say about the category of gender in the Uzbek and English language?
a) It is a lexical category
b) It is a grammatical category
c) It is a phonological category
d) It is a morphological category
What can you say about the category of number in the Uzbek, Russian, and English languages?
a) It is a grammatical category
b) It is lexical category
c) It is a logical category
d) It is a notional category

What can you say about the category of possession in the Uzbek language?
a) It is a grammatical category
b) It is lexical category
c) It is a logical category
d) It is a notional category

How is the category of definiteness indefiniteness expressed in English?
a) It is expressed by the presence or absence of the article
b) It is expressed lexically
c) It is expressed on the syntactical level of the language
d) It is expressed on the phonological level of the language

What can you say about the category of tense in the English, Russian, and Uzbek language?
It is a lexical-grammatical category
a) It is lexical category
b) It is a logical category
c) It is a notional category

What can you say about the category of voice in the English, Russian and Uzbek languages?
a) It is a grammatical category
b) It is lexical category
c) It is a logical category
d) It is a notional category

What can you say about category of mood in the English, Russian and Uzbek languages?
a) It is a lexical-grammatical category
b) It is lexical category
c) It is a logical category
d) It is a notional category

What can you say about the category of person and number of verbs in the English, Russian and Uzbek languages?
a) It is a grammatical category
b) It is a lexical category
c) It is a logical category
d) It is a notional category

What can you say about the category of transitivity in the Uzbek language?
a) It is expressed on the morphologistical level of the language
b) It is expressed on the syntactical level of the language
c) It is expressed on the phonological level of the language
d) It is expressed analytically

On what level of the language are the tense forms in the English language expressed?
a) Tense forms in English are expressed on the lexical-grammatical level of the language
b) Tense forms in English are expressed on the lexical level of the language
c) Tense forms in English are expressed on the phonological level of the language
d) Tense forms in English are expressed on the syntactical level the language

Are the tense forms in English expressed synthetically or analytically?

a) Tense forms in English are expressed synthetic-analytically, synthetically and pure analytically

b) Tense forms in English are expressed synthetically

c) Tense forms in English are expressed analytically

d) Tense forms in English are expressed analytically by word order in the sentence

The list of recommended literature used for compiling tests on Comparative Typology of the English and Native languages

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

2.Бондарко А.В. Грамматическое значение и смысл. Л., 1970

3.Буранов Ж. Б . Сравнительная типология английского и тюрских языков. М., 1983

4. Рождественский Ю .В .Типология слова. М., 196

5.Яхонтов С.Е . О морфологической классификации языков. Л., 1965

6.Alimova M. Kh . Lectures on Comparative Typology. 2019-2020 . Tashkent State Pedagogical University named after Nizami.

GLOSSARY

1. Affix - an addition to the root morpheme or the stem of a word in order to modify its meaning or create a new word.

2. Agglutination – the addition of the affixal morpheme to the root morpheme or the stem in order to form the new word or express the new grammatical meaning. At the result of the addition of the affixal morpheme to the root morpheme or the stem , neither the main part nor the affix changes its sound structure, the limit between the main part and the affix is light. At the result of separation of the affix from the main part the word does not loose its independence.

3. Agglutinated type of languages is characterized by the following features:
a) suffixes are monosemantic
b) modifying word is used before the noun
c) the root of the word doesn't change while being added to the affixal morpheme
d) phonetic changes have their own place in the word formation and word changing
e) suffixes are added to the stem without fusion, that is mechanically; every suffix in Uzbek has its own grammatical meaning

4. Agreement – the head word demands the adjunct to receive all prammatical forms which exist in it : number, gender, case

5. In analytic language words taken out of the sentence don't preserve their grammatical meaning.Taken out of the sentence they don't demand morphological analysis. They have only their nominative meaning. They acquire grammatical form only in the structure of the sentence. For example, in English the word round (verb, adjective, noun) - кружить, круглый, круг.

6. Grammatical means expressing grammatical meanings outside words are called analytic forms:word order, combination of the function (auxiliary)words with notional ones, inonation

7. Analytical word-forms - auxiliary words, which are used to express grammatical meanings, are considered to be analytical word-forms, performing the same functions as simple word-forms do. Analyzing analytical word-forms we should differ morphological analytical word-forms from those of the syntactic, which perform not morphological but syntactic functions in such sentences, as I'm a teacher, The wall is white, where the nominal part of the predicate can't enter the binary opposition without the auxiliary one. In I shall write/I have written/I have been writing and etc., we find the binary opposition between shall write and other tense forms given above

8. Areal limitation of the group of compared languages presupposes that comparison is limited by the group of languages belonging to certain geographic area.

9. Areal typology. This branch of linguistic typology deals with geographically limited number of languages.

10. Comparative typology is one of the independent branches of linguistic typology. It deals with limited number of languages and also defines typological similarities and distinctions among languages belonging to different genetic groups.

11. Compensation, that is, the relation, where if the language disposes two ways of expressing the same grammatical phenomena, one can suppose that there will be found a language, which uses one of them. So, if the order of words in language is grammatically meaningful as it is in the English, Turkic, and Mongolian languages, there the attribute doesn't agree with the word it modifies in gender, number and case in the language.

12. Cross level approach to comparison is opposed to level isolation and was introduced as a method of linguistic comparison. It presupposes investigation of all possible means of expression of a chosen categorial notion in the system of compared languages.

13. Declension - inflection of nouns, pronouns, or adjectives for case,

number, and gender

14. Deep and surface identity and non-identity - Under deep and surface identity we understand some generalized meaning, which is peculiar to the group of compared languages and has different representation on surface.

15. Etalon language. It is a linguistic means with the help of which scholar carries out the process of comparing languages. For practical purpose etalon language can be divided into maximal and minimal.

16. Evolutional period - starts with the emerging of the primary linguistic works. This period lasted up to the Renaissance Epoch.

17.Maximal etalon language is the usage of the whole language pattern for comparison

18. Formal approach to comparison. Any typological analyses can be produced either in the way of description or by separate system of symbols. It is a formalized approach towards typological description.
19. Formal typology studies the units of the expression plan. It is connected with all levels of language hierarchy. Formal typology studies the periods of the appearance and transformation of information from generation to generation.

20. Genealogical classification studies etic units: concrete sounds, words, syntactic units and so on. According to this classification languages are grouped into the families, such as Indo-European, Semitic, Altaic and so on.

21. General typology studies the problems of taxonomy, which studies the theory of classification and systematization on the basis of comparative method.

22. Genetic closeness means material identity of the group of compared languages. For genetic closeness structural and etic-emic identity is characteristic.

23. Genetic typology deals with the languages which are genetically related both synchronically and diachronically.

24. Government - the relation between a governed and a governing word. Head word demands the adjunct to receive the grammatical forms not existed in the head word

25. Grammatical gender: feminine, masculine, neuter - in logic there exist two biological sexes: male and female. In grammar they correspond to three grammatical genders: masculine, feminine, neuter. Philosophical sex or gender is real, and grammatical gender is formal. They may correspond only when they express animate nouns(on the lexical level of the language).

26. Grammatical-lexical fields are established by E.V, Guliga and E. I. Shendels. They coincide with functional-semantic categories partially. Grammatical-lexical fields unite vocabulary and grammar for the expression of this or that categorial notion.

27. Identity of etic and emic units - is the coincidence of more concrete units of compared languages on etic-emic sublevels. On etic level we observe different variants of suffixes of in expressing one and the

28. Inflected type is characterized by the following features:
a) Inflection is used as the main grammatical signal
b) Every affixal morpheme can be used in different functions
c) The end of the stem may undergo changes when they are declining or conjugating
d) The word order is spread differently: 1) it isn't mainly fixed; 2) it is fixed, for example, the English language has a fixed word order, because in he cause of historical development the inflected English language has lost its rich sysem of declension and conjugation and Modern English language is considered infleced inclined to be analiical, that's why the order of words in this language is fixed, it is meaningful

29. Inflection - a change in the form of a word, usually modification or affixation, causing change of the root morpheme either on the phonological or phonomorphological level of the language in

expressing such grammatical functions as tense, voice, mood, person, gender, number or case

30. Influence of translation - While translating from one language into another the linguist comes across with certain process of comparison of language systems.

31. Influence of lexicography - While preparing different kinds of dictionaries scholars at the same time compare the systems of two or more related and non-related languages.

32. Inner fusion is when the addition of the affixal morpheme changes the inside phoneme of the root: child-children

33. Isolated type of languages is characterized by the absence of inflections and affixal morphemes expressing the relationship among the words in the sentence.

34. Isomorphism is such a relation that if the problem A is solved in a concrete way, the problem B should be solved in this way too. So, if the language has many classes of declension as in the old English language, in old Russian and in other Indo-European languages, where there were several classes of declension, it has several classes of strong verbs and three classes of weak ones.

35. The real language universals were produced in 1961 in the World Congress of Linguists by the group of American scholars Joseph Greenberg, Lyle Jenkins and Charles Osgood.

36. Lexical means of expressing grammatical meaning: die- kill (intransitive- transitive)

37. Lexicography is the activity or profession of compiling dictionaries.

38. Lexical-syntactic means of plurality: a lot of students, much milk.

39. Limitation of etalon language is the linguistic phenomenon with the help of which we compare different languages. The are two types of etalon languages:maximal/minimal

40. Linguistic -phenomenon relating to language or linguistics

41. Linguistic typology - is a field of linguistics that studies and classifies languages according to their structural and functional features.

42. Linguistic universal is a certain phenomenon or regularity, which is common to all languages of the word or to their absolute majority. Grammatical categories of case and gender became the main grammatical universal for the majority of inflected languages.

43. Morphological means of expressing plurality: boy-boys

44. Morphological typology studies the units of morphological level. It deals with two types of comparisons: 1) with morphological classification; 2) with comparing grammatical categories

45. Non-linguistic – the phenomenon not relating to language or linguistics

46. Notional categories are established by Danish scholar O. Yespersen and Russian linguist I. Meshaninov. They study the relations between language and mind. All categories may be of two types: linguistic and logical or philosophical. Philosophical categories are primary, linguistic categories are secondary.

47. One-level approach to comparison. The term "level isolation" was introduced to linguistics in the 19th century. All language phenomena were studied on one level of linguistic hierarchy, mainly on phonetic and morphological levels.

48. Perfectness of typological operations. Typological operation consists of two stages: 1) analysis; 2) correspondence. On the first stage scholars research every language independently. On the second stage

all the results of the previous analysis are compared and general laws of isomorphic and allomorphic features are revealed.

49. Phonetic typology deals with the comparison of units of phonetic level. It may compare units of related and non-related languages and studies the quantity of vowels and consonants, their articulation, presence or absence of some sounds, classification of languages according to the sounds' peculiarities.

50. Phonological typology studies phonological different features, phonological universals and so on. It classifies languages according to the common phonological features.

51. Phono-morphological means of expressing nouns' plurality: child-children, house-houses

52. Polysynthetic or incorporated type of languages are characterized by the following features:
a) the word and the sentence coincide
b) the word and affix coincide
c) parts of speech are not differentiated.

53. Port-Royal grammar : In the 17th century French scholars Antoine Arnauld and Claude Lanslot wrote their Universal or Rational Grammar concerning Germanic languages. They compared phonetic, grammatical and logical categories in the structures of different languages. Port-Royal Grammar is of great importance , because it was the first scientific work concerning language universals and the systemic investigation of language sysems

54. Primary grammatical categories are parts of speech. In modern English and Uzbek languages parts of speech are classified according to the following peculiarities: 1) according to lexical and lexical-grammatical meanings; 2) according to morphological structure; 3) according to the function of words, according to their combineability and stem-building elements

55. Quantitative limitation of compared languages may be of the

following types: a) minimal limitation. It means that the limit of compared languages is open. This type is used in investigating language universals; b) maximal limitation. It means that only two languages may be compared. This type is used in comparative typology; c) genetic limitation is used in genetic typology and it means that only neighbor languages may be compared; d) limitation of certain universals.

56. Secondary grammatical categories (forms of words) are classified according to the plan of meaning (content) and the plan of expression (form)followed by function that is, while defining any form of the word the linguist should not forget that this form has the meaning expressing some function in the sentence

57. Semantic typology studies two types of meanings: l)lexical meaning, which corresponds to the real meaning of the word; 2) grammatical meaning, which is more abstract and typical to the whole classes of words.

58. Structural typology is one of the basic branches of linguistic typology, which deals with systematization and summarizing some general linguistic facts and establishing language universals.

59. Syntactic typology studies the syntactic structure of different languages, which consist of two sublevels: phrase level and sentence level. Syntactic typology studies types of syntactic relations,syntactic ties and grammatical signals expressing syntactic relations among the words in the sentence

60. Inner fusion, outer fusion: affixation followed by flexion, the change of the place of the stress in the word, suppletive forms. These are grammatical means expressing grammatical meanings inside words and they are called synthetic forms.

61. In synthetic languages expression of grammatical meanings are repeated. For example, in German: das Buch - die Bu'cher, Der Mann - die Ma'nner

62. System closeness means the identity or non-identity of structural types of compared languages.

63. In modern linguistics, the language is considered to be the system of signs.

64. A three-morpheme structure: In Indo-European languages there was a three morpheme structure in the word : root+ stem forming suffix, which makes up a stem together with the root and the third morpheme is case inflection. Stem-forming suffixes were different, therefore stems of the nouns were different too.

65. Transformation is a process by which an element in the underlying logical deep structure of a sentence is converted to an element in the surface structure

66. Typological categories are established by professor Buranov. They are connected with typological investigation and consist of the typological form and typological meaning. Typological meaning is modified as an abstract notion, which lies under the system of languages under comparison.

67. Typological classification is introduced by several linguists who treated languages not according to their genetic backgrounds, they are W. Humboldt, E. Sapir, F.F. Fortunatov. According to the opinion of these linguists languages are classified into 5 types:inflected, agglutinated, isolated, polysynthetic, agglutinated-inflected

68. Typological imitation means using certain methods and models of one language while studying the system of another language.

69. Typological theory. Typological operations are accomplished by typological theory which is connected with establishing different etalon languages(methods) of linguistic investigations. It is also connected with description of different language universals which may be described in different ways.

70. Typological categories are interlanguage because they are common

to the system of comparing languages. For example, the category of number consists of the opposition of singularity and plurality. It is a language universal and characterizes majority of languages; English, Russian, Uzbek in particular. So the category of number is an interlanguage category.

71. The process of comparison is very complicated with different types of languages, where this or that language under comparison has its own specific peculiarities. That's why the ways of expression of typological categories may be different and in order to reveal them typologist deals with all levels while investigating languages, that is interlevelness of typological categories. For example, on the morphological level the category of number is expressed by suffix- s (es) in English (book-books, yard-yards, class-classes), -лар in Uzbek (китоб-китоблар). Besides, in English compound nouns form plurality in different ways, for example: bookcases, passers - by, and men-of war.

72. Typological categories are interclass, because their meaning can be expressed by means of different lexical-grammatical classes of words.

73. F. F. Fortunatov's word form theory is taken in the wide sense, that is form of words are expressed in two ways: synthetically and analytically. Fortunatov's the so called «грамматически частичные слова» are considered to be analytical forms. He says the following about such forms: «грамматически частичные слова имеют формы, которые своими формами изменяют формы другого полного слова, соотносительно по значению с известными простыми формами полного слова» [Фортунатов Ф.Ф.. Избр. труды, 1965, стр. 178].

1. The principle terms and notions of contrastive typology.
Language is the most important and affective means of communication. It renders the meaning of the words, modal and emotional shades of meanings (the attitude of the speaker to what he is saying to his partner and to the situation of speech, towards the reality).

Typology studies relevant features and general tendencies both in related and non-related languages. It studies types of languages and types of language structures.

Typology is the science that studies types of languages, it compares and correlates the system of languages or groups of languages, levels, sublevels, microsystems (e.g. Levels include phonemes, morphemes, words, phrases. Sublevels include vowels and consonants; microsystems include diphthongs and monophthongs).

Aims of typology: Typology aims at establishing similar general linguistic categories with the classification of different types of languages, irrespective of genealogical relationship of languages. Its final aims are:

1) To identify and classify common and distinctive (different) features of different languages;

2) To identify isomorphic regularities and allomorphic features in the languages contrasted (compared).

3) To establish the typical languages' structures and types of languages;

4) To establish the universal phenomena in the languages of the world or in the majority of languages

2) Aspects of typology

General typology studies the most general, phonetic, morphological, lexical and syntactic features in languages which belong to different genetic groups.

Special typology treats concrete languages, one of which is the native language.

Both general and special typologies study non-related and related languages.

Historical typology studies the historical changes in the structure of different languages and compares these historical changes in the cause of historical development.

The typology of the language levels studies and compares different levels of languages.

Contrasted typology is based on the method of comparison or contrasting. It establishes the most general types of languages on the basis of their dominant or common phonetic, morphological, lexical and syntactic features.

Partial typology includes the typology of phonetic or phonological level

units, typology of the morphological level units, typology of the lexical level units, and typology of the syntactic level units separately.

Basic notions of typology are:

1) language type;

2) isomorphism, allomorphism;

3) language universals;

4) model language.

1) Language type is a stable set of interrelated relevant features. (The category of case in Uzbek and Russian presupposes free word order. The absence of this category in English presupposes fixed word order.)

There are 4 types of languages:

• Inflected(Russian):

1. In these languages affixal morphermes are polysymantic, for ex. широкий:

 the affixal morpherme -ий is polysymantic, it expresses that this word is an adjective,in masculine gender, in singular and in the nominative case. Besides in Russian the root of the word in the majority of cases doesn't exist as an independent word. In English the root coincides with the word .

2. As for the sentence structure, they are marked by free word order.

Subject + Predicate + Object - Я уважаю вас.

Object + Predicate + Subject - Вас уважаю я.

Object + Subject + Predicate - Вас я уважаю.

The word order is free, but the first is preferable.

• Agglutinated (Turkic, Mongolian and Japanese): English has many features of agglutinative languages.

1. Words can take only monosemantic morphemes: (E.g. She worked hard – the inflexion -ed indicates the Past tense).

2. Word order is fixed,(Subject+predicate+ object), but there are some examples of inversion.

3. There is no agreement: exceptions are: this town – these towns; this student – these students.

4. Parts of speech by conversion may change their lexical meaning (E.g. cold :adjective, noun);

• Isolated (Chinese): These languages have no word building affixal morphemes, they is no agreement and there is no opposition of parts of speech.

• Incorporative/ polysynthetic languages are highly synthetic languages in which words are composed of many morphemes(words that have independent meaning but may or may not be able to stand alone).They are very highly inflected languages.Polysynthetic languages typically have long "sentence- words" . The word consists of the morphemes.Generally polysynthetic languages have polypersonal agreement.Polysynthetic languages can be agglutinative or fusional depending on whether they encode one or multiple grammatical categories per affix.At the same time, the question of whether to call a particular language polysynthetic is complicated by the fact that morpheme and word boundaries are not always clear cut, and languages may be highly synthetic in one area but less synthetic in other areas (e.g. verbs and nouns in Southern Athabaskan languages or Inuit languages). Many polysynthetic languages display complex evidentiality and/or mirativity systems in their verbs.These languages are observed in Americas, Australia, Siberia, and New Guinea; however, there are also examples in other areas.The concept became part of linguistic typology with the work of Edward Sapir, who used it as one of his basic typological categories.Recently. Mark C. Baker has suggested formally defining polysinthesis as a macro-parameter within Noam Chomsky's principles and parameters theory of grammar.

2) Isomorphism and allomorphism. Isomorphism is the similarity in the structure of language (I will read – Я буду читать). The category of number in English, Uzbek and Russian is an isomorphic feature. Besides, isomorphism in English, Uzbek and Russian is the existence of consonants and vowels, assimilation, the categories of person, tense, parts of speech, the existence of sentences. For ex. isomorphic features of the interrogative pronouns. In both languages there are interrogative pronouns that are used for asking person:who-kim. The English interrogative pronoun who has the category of case: whose/whom; the Uzbek demonstrative pronouns kim,nima have the categories of number, possession and case: kim-kimlar; kimim/nimam ; kimlarimiz/nimalarimiz ; kimni/nimani ;kimdan/nimadan; kimga/nimaga. In both languages there is a genitive case form of the interrogative pronouns:whose/kimning

Allomorphism is the property possessed by certain substances of assuming a different form while remaining unchanged in constitution:In English there two case forms, in Uzbek –six; In English interrogative pronoun who has here case forms , in Uzbek the interrogative pronoun kim is used in six case forms and etc.

3) Language universals – regularities, characteristic to all, or the majority of languages. The systems of vowels and consonants are present in all languages. Present tense form exists in all languages as well. Universals common to all or to the majority of languages are called absolute universals.

4) Model languages - The language with which other language under investigation is compared is called model language. If you compare native and foreign languages, your native language will be a model one.

<u>2. The problem of the segmental level and its units</u>

The aim of typological phonetics is to identify and investigate the isomorphic and allomorphic features in the system of speech sounds in the English and native languages. The aim of typology is to identify the systems of phonemes of the contrasted languages. Typological phonetics and phonology have a common subject matter (combinability and functioning) of sounds (phonemes) in words and syllables (segmental) level. And the super segmental level includes word stress, sentence stress and tones melody in syntagmas.

Phoneme is an abstract linguistic unit, it combines all the features which the sound actually posses in speech. Sounds are called phones and they are the manifestation of one and the same phoneme.

Phoneme is a class of physically similar sounds which perform the same function. They may be variants of one and the same class (allophones). Phonemes and allophones are segmental units of speech. Different languages have different phonological systems. Languages in which the system of consonant is more developed than the system of vowels are called consonantal languages (in Russian there are 35 consonans)

Phonemic stock of languages differs not only in quantity but in quality as well. In some languages there are long and short vowels (Eng) or long and short consonants (Ukr). These consonants' contrast between two or more phonemes is called a phonological opposition (cat-cut, seat-sit). The functions of phonemes in the contrasted languages are common.   They   are:

1. The constitutive is the ability of phonemes to constitute separate

morphemes and words.

2. The distinguishing is the ability to differentiate the meaning of the words: coat, goat, boat;

3. Word-stress and its functions in English and Russian

Super segmental means (word stress and intonation) together with segmental means (phonemes and allophones) form the phonological level of the language.

By stress or accent we mean prominence given to 1 syllable in a word or word combination. Like the syllable word stress belongs to absolute universals. Its functions are:

• Constitutive is due to which the syllables when arrange in a definite stress pattern form a definite word (conduct – conduct, present – present, пóра – порá, зáмок – замок , olma'-o'lma)

• Distinctive – word stress helps to differentiate between word groups and words:

blue bottle; blue, bottle; qizil gul; qizil ,gul

Functions of stress in compared languages are different. In English and Uzbek languages word stress helps to differentiate between nouns and verbs:'present-pre'sent, olma'-o'lma. But the number of such pairs is limited. There are about 135 such words differentiating the lexical meaning by the change of the place of the stress in the word in English. In Russian word stress helps to express different categorial meanings and to form new words as well: засыпа'ть(несов.вид)-засы'пать(сов. вид), замо'к –за'мок.

   Some polysemantic English words have primarily and secondary stress (opportunity).

The number of words with 2 primarily stresses is much larger in English. Due to the prefixes un-in-,dis-,sub-, under-, and others, forming prominent syllables.

Stress may be fixed if it occurs on a definite syl. or it can be moveable (can change its position). According to the place in the majority of cases English stress is fixed. It occurs on the initial syllable – power-powerful.

Universal: by its nature and functions the stress can be utterance-stress, which can be observed in the contrasted languages in 2 types:

1. Logical stress- points out a word or a word combination of more importance than others. (It was John, not Jack).

2. Emphatic stress- expresses emotions and is much stronger than logical stress. Emotions may be positive (happiness, love, joy, luck, admiration) and negative (indignation, sadness): What a nice weaher! How awful, what? – that is impossible.

4. Historical outline of typological investigation
1. German school of Linguistics.
In the 17th – 18th centuries European scientists pointed to the existence of some common features in different languages. Only the beginning of the 19th century with its historic and comparative method is characterized by a development of European Linguistics. One of the first linguists to have made a systematic approach to the analysis of structurally different languages was Friedrich Shlegel (1772 – 1829). first to notice Grimm's law, Shlegel was a pioneer in In Indo-European studies,comparative linguistics and morphological typology, who published in 1819 the first theory linking the Indo-Iranian and German languages under the Aryan group.He compared Sanscrit with Latin , Greek, Persian and German ,noting many similarities in vocabulary and grammar. He singled out 2 clearly distinguished groups:
1) affixal languages (Turkic languages);
2) inflexinal languages (Germanic).
Later this classification was perfected by his brother August Wilhelm Shlegel. On the basis of the same morphological criteria he singled out 3 groups of languages:
1) amorphous languages(his term);
2) the affixal languages;
3) the flexional languages.
Wilhelm von Humboldt is considered to be the founder of typology (1767 – 1835). He is considered as a linguist who made important contributions to the philosophy of language, ethnolinguistics and to the theory and practice of education . He was the architect of the Humboldtian educational ideal, which was used from the beginning in Prussia as a model for its system of public education , as well as in the United States and Japan. On the basis of morphological criteria of languages , he classified all the languages in the following way:
1) isolating languages (like Chinese);W. Humboldt changed the term amorphous languages suggested by August Shlegel by the term isolating, saying that the language can't be without form
2) agglutinative languages (like those of the Turkic family);

3) flexional languages (Indo-European);

4) incorporative languages of the American Indians.

His followers in linguistics were Franz Bopp (1791 – 1867) and August Schleicher(1821 – 1868).

They introduced a new approach to the typological investigation of the languages on the basis of the root structure of the word. The "family – tree" theory – "Schtaum – baum" was introduced by Schleicher, who sort out languages as an organism that can grow and decay, whose changes could be analyzed using the methods of the natural sciences. Typological investigations of the first part of the 17th century were mostly focussed on the morphological classification of languages. Schleicher's great work was A Compendium of the Comparative Grammar of the Indo-European languages in which he attempted to reconstruct the Proto-Indo-European language to show how Indo-European might have looked, he created a short tale, Shleicher's fable, to exemplify the reconstructed vocabulary and aspects of Indo-European society inferred from it.

The next step in the development of typology was made by G. Shteyntal(1823 – 1899). The object of his studies was not word taken separately, he investigated the syntactic connection in different languages. So he switched from morphology to syntax.

2. American school of Linguistics

The 20th century typological investigations are characterized by some new approaches to the contrasted study of languages and their classification. American scientist Eduard Sapir(1884-1939) is the founder of American structuralism. He was anthropologist-linguist ,dealt with the relationship between languages and extra-linguistic reality (language and thought). All this made him one of the founders of ethnolinguistics. He is considered to be a founder of a new trend in typology. Some languages distant in location could in the course of time acquire common features. Sapir put forward 3 criteria in language classification:

1) the degree of cohesion between the root morphemes and the affixal morphemes;

2) the degree of synthesis (the ability of a word to combine and express different lexical and grammatical meanings as inflexional languages).

3) the nature of grammatical processes by means of which the morphemes are joined in the word (isolation, agglutination). In this way

the linguists singled out 4 types of languages. Sapir was the first who treated a language material as a system.

3. Prague school of Linguistics

In 1926 a group of well known linguists established the Prague school of Linguistics. Its most representative people were a group of Russian linguists: Roman Yakobson, Nikolay Trubetzkoy, A.V. Isachenko and others. The primary interest of them was phonological theory. The leading light in this domain was Nikolay Trubetzkoy(1890-1939) , a professor in Viena. He was the founder of morpho-phonology. He worked out typology of phonemic and morpho-phonemic systems of languages based on opposition. He made important contributions to the notion of the phoneme. Prague school phonology succeeded in placing the notion of the phoneme in the centre of Linguistic theory as one of the   most   fundamental   units. Great research work in phonological typology was carried on by A. V. Isachenko, who investigated the Slavonic languages on the qualitative representation of vowels and on the existence or non-existence palatalized consonants. As a result 2 types of languages were singled out:

1) Vocalic languages;
2) Consonantal languages.

The vocalic types of languages are: Serbian and Slovenian. Their features   are:
1. some consonants have historically changed into vowels and some have become syllable phonemes;
2. languages in which there occurs an inclusion of vowels between consonants;
3. languages in which the double consonants have reduced to single consonants.

The consonantal type of language have the following features:
1. the existence of the binary opposition of palatalized consonants verses non-palatalized one;
2. the loss of the syllable – forming consonants;
3. the retention (being preserved) of the double consonants.

4. Russian school of Linguistics

Russian typological investigations began at the end of the 19th century and the representatives were N.Ya.Marr and Ivan Meshchaninov (1883 – 1967). Ivan Meshchaninov was a Soviet linguist and ethnographer who studied the syntactical relations (predicative, objective) in different languages. Meshchaninov's syntactical typology includes 3 classes:

1. passive structure languages (Chukot lang. and lang. of American Indians). They are characterized by incorporation, such syntactical structures comprised neither the subject nor the object not having any definite grammatical form. They are united in a single complex word which is subordinated to a leading word, a verb. In this language it is impossible to differentiate between transitive and intransitive verbs;

2. ergative structure languages are characterized by the so-called negative construction. Predicate has dual syntactical connection with subject. It agrees with the subject and governs it at a time. The subject is used in special the so-called ergative case. We can come close to this phenomena in Russian sentences, such as Мальчика сбило машиной. In this sentences the subject is not used in Nominative case but in ergative case.

3. nominative structure languages are characterized by the usage of subject in nominative case, irrespective of transitive or intransitive verb in the function of the predicate. I. Meshchaninov considered Indo-European, Turkic, Mongolian languages to be nominative structure languages.

5. Typological characteristics of the super-segmental means. Typology of intonation system.

Super-segmental means (word stress and intonation) together with segm. means (phonemes and allophones) form the phonological level of the l-ge. By stress or accent we mean prominence given to one syl. of a word or a word combination. Like the syl., word stress belongs to absolute universals.

Intonation as well as word stress belongs to super-segmental means of language. It's one of the most important means of differentiation of meaning.

The most important components of intonation in the contrasted languages are speech, melody,stress, sentence and utterance .

The main functions of intonation are isomorphic. They are:

1) sentence or utterance stress phoneme (forming);

2) sentence or utterance delimiting;

3) distinctive (helps to differentiate types of utterance);

4) attitudinal (to express differential model and pragmatic meanings).
Syntagma (sense group or intonation group) is the basic unit of into-logical level. This notion was introduced by Lev Shcherba(1880-1944). Syntagma is a word or a group of words which form a shortest possible unit in a sentence from the point of view of meaning, grammatical structure and information. It doesn't have to coincide with a sentence. It can coincide with a word. It has the following characteristics:
- it has at least one accented word, which carries change in pitch (falling, rising tone);
- it is pronounced at a certain rate, things that are less important are pronounced faster;
- it has a special voice quality – timbre.
The elements of the pitch and stress pattern of the intonation group are as follows: the most important is a nuclear tone, a stressed syllable with a marked change in pitch. Post nuclear, unstressed and partial stressed syllables are called tail.
So we can speak about two variants of terminal tone:
- nuclear
- nuclear + tail
The terminal tone may be persisted by a scale, a serious of stressed and unstressed syllables beginning with the first stressed one. The first stressed syllable is called head, unstressed syllables before head are called pre-head. In English the system of intonation groups was worked out by Ernst Frideryk Konrad Koener (1939) and Arnold Gordon Frederick.

6. Syntactic process, their types and ways of realization
Syntactic processes are various in contrasted languages and are realized only in word-groups and sentences. The realization of these processes may be realized by isomorphic and allomorphic ways, they are as follows: 1. Extension is achieved in both contrasted languages through adding subordinate components to an element that is the head/nucleus, i.e. subordinating in the syntaxeme. Extension in English may be achieved both by syndetic, i.e.explicit, synthetic or analytical means or (which is more often in English) asyndetically, i.e. only by way of placement of components. Eg: this book – these books, to see somebody - to see him.

As to their structure, word-groups can be unextended, i.e. consisting of two notional words (read well, nice flowers, good enough) and extended which consist of more than two notional words, e.g. to go to work every day. Extension may be achieved in English with the help of asyndetic clustering of nouns : school library -- school library books -- new school library books -- school library books readers.

Ways of realisation of syntactic processes achieved through extension:
Apposition: a woman doctor, the city of Kiev/London, Shevchenko, the poet; Шевченко-поэт.

Detachment is one more common way of external syntactic extension that is presumably of isomorphic nature in most languages. Detached syntactic process in English may happen by any secondary part of the sentence and detachment is achieved through extension
by means of subordination: They're (Negroes) just like children , just as easy-going, and always singing and laughing(D.Parker).

Specification. This kind of syntactic process presents a way of syntactic extension in English which is achieved via a syntactic element/part of the sentence usually modified by one or more other complementing elements of the same nature and syntactic function. "I'm not very tall, just average.

Expansion is usually achieved by addition (termed so by Georgy Pocheptsov).   Formed in this way (through addition) strings of components usually function as homogeneous parts of the sentence. For example, homogeneous subjects:
The police, the fishmonger, boys going to school, dozens of people , десятки людей,.......

Representation (репрезентація)   represents a kind of reduction in which the component of a syntaxeme is used to present the content of the whole syntactic unit, which remains in the preceding syntaxeme but its meaning is implicitly represented by some element. For example: "I don't know if he's hungry, but I am." (I. Baldwin) Here the linking verb am in the closing co-ordinate clause (but I am) represents the whole subordinate clause "if he's hungry".

Contamination is a process in which two syntaxemes merge into one predicative unit as in the following sentence: The moon rose red. This means: The moon rose + she was red.

Compression represents a syntactic process which is closely connected with reduction and with the secondary predication complex. This

syntactic process is most often observed in English with the nominative absolute participial constructions: He stood beside me in silence, his candle in his hand. (C. Doyle)- Nominative Absolute Construction; He stood beside me in silence, holding his candle in his hand- Nominative Absolute Participial Construcion.

There exist four <u>types of syntactic relations</u> that are also realized in different languages partly via different means. These are:
1) predicative relations
2) objective relations
3) attributive relations
4) various adverbial relations
a) primary predicative relations and b) secondary predicative relations.
I. Primary predication is universal. It finds its realization between the subject and predicate in any two-member sentence : "I never said I was a beauty"-he laughed
Secondary predicative relation is formed in English by verbals in connection with other nominal parts of speech: He stood by the creek and heard it ripple over the stones(Objecive Infinitive Construcion).
Objective relations. They are directed by the action of the transitive verb on some object, which may be either a life or lifeless component. The notions of seeing/hearing somebody or something of being given smth. by somebody, etc. are pertained to each single language and to all languages of the world irrespective of their structural/typological differences . Depending on the concrete language, these relations may have different/unlike forms of expression: give a book to Peter)
Attributive relations are formed in all languages between adjuncts and head words (subordinating parts) of nominal word-groups.
Adverbial relations in compared languages are created both in co-ordinate and in subordinate word-groups to express different adverbial meanings. Co-ordinate word-groups expressing adverbial relations may be <u>a) substantival</u>: in winter or in summer (time) <u>b) adverbial</u>: quickly and well (manner or attendant circumstances); neither seldom nor often (time or frequency).

OUTSTANDING SCIENTISTS : THEIR CONTRIBUTION TO COMPARATIVE LINGUISTICS AND LINGUODIDACTICS

Alisher Navoi. His real name is Nizomiddin Mir Alisher. He wrote his poems under the pen-names of Navoi (in his poems which were written in the old Uzbek language) and Foni (in his poems which were written in Persian language). Navoi is a great Uzbek poet, a representative of the Uzbek literature which is called Chigatoy leterature in the West. He was born in Herat and spent the main part of his life there. Navoi's family was close to Timurid's palace. According to the information of great historian Hondamir, an old poet Lutfi met with Alisher Navoi, when he was a child and Lutfi appreciated his talent.

During 1464-65 the fans of Navoi's creation collected all of his poems and copied them to make "devon". Since 1469 Navoi had lived far from Herat because of the inside fights which were going in Timurid's state.

Navoi's "Muhokamatu-l-lugatayn" is devoted to the comparative analysis of Turkish and Persian. His tazkira "Majolisun-nafois" was written in the way of literary criticism (Hayitmetov A. Alisher Navoiyning adabiy-tanqidiy qarashlari (Literary critic thoughts of Alisher Navoi). Tashkent, 1959). His "Mezon ul-avzon" was written about the theory of aruz, "Mufradot" was written about the rules of problems.

Also he created the works called "Tarixi muluki ajam", "Tarixi anbiyo va hukamo". In the base of his collection called "Munshaot". In memorialistic genre he wrote "Hamsatu-l-mutaxayyirin" ("Besh hayrat") devoting to Abdurahmon Jomi (1494), "Holoti Sayyid Hasan Ardasher" (Sayyid Hasan Ardasher hayoti bayoni) and "Holoti Pahlavon Muhammad" (Pahlavon Muhammad hayoti bayoni). In

Navoi's nasriy work "Mahbubu-l-qulub" (1500) the social and political thoughts were expressed in high level.

254 handwritings of 24 works of Navoi are kept in the Academy of Sciences of Uzbekistan, in the Institute of Oriental Languages (3rd fund) (Hakimov M. Navoi asarlari qo'lyozmalarining tavsifi. Toshkent, 1983).
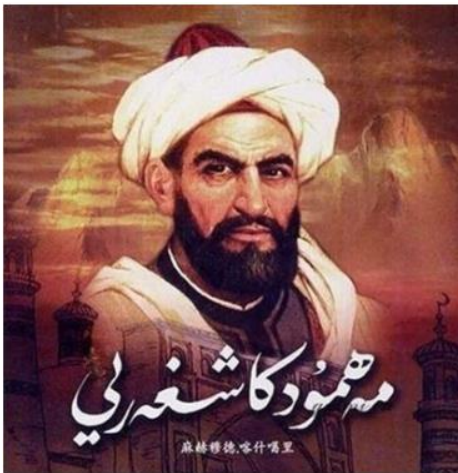
Mahmud ibn Husayn ibn Muhammed al-Kashgari was an 11th-century Kara-Khanid scholar and lexicographer of the Turkic languages from Kashgar.

His father, Husayn, was the mayor of Barsgan, a town in the southeastern part of the lake of Issyk-Kul (nowadays village of Barskoon in Northern Kyrgyzstan's Issyk-Kul Region) and related to the ruling dynasty of Kara-Khanid Khanate.

Map from Mahmud al-Kashgari's Diwan (11th century)

Al-Kashgari studied the Turkic languages of his time and in Baghdad he compiled the first comprehensive dictionary of Turkic languages, the Dīwān Lughāt al-Turk (English: "Compendium of the languages of the Turks") in 1072–74. It was intended for use by the Abbasid Caliphate, the new Arab allies of the Turks. Mahmud Kashgari's comprehensive dictionary, later edited by the Turkish historian, Ali Amiri, contains specimens of old Turkic poetry in the typical form of quatrains (Persio-Arabic رباعيات, rubā'iyāt; Turkish: dörtlük), representing all the principal genres: epic, pastoral, didactic, lyric and elegiac. His book also included the first known map of the areas inhabited by Turkic peoples. This map is housed at the National Library in Istanbul.

Dīwān Lughāt al-Turk also contains linguistic data about multiple Turkic dialects that may have been gathered from merchants and others involved in trade along routes that travelled through the Oguz steppe. The origin of the compiled information is not known. Scholars believe it is likely that Kashgari would have gathered most of the content about Oguz-Turkmen from Oguz tribes in Khorasan, since he himself was a student in Seljuk Baghdad, but it is possible that some of this material could have come from early Turkmen. Scholars have not yet come to a settled conclusion, however.

Al-Kashgari advocated monolingualism and the linguistic purism of the Turkic languages and held a belief in the superiority of nomadic people (the Turkic tribes had traditionally been nomads) over urban populations. Most of his Turkic-speaking contemporaries were bilingual in Tajik (a Persian language), which was then the urban and literary language of Central Asia.

The most elegant of the dialects belongs to those who know only one language, who do not mix with Persians and who do not customarily settle in other lands. Those who have two languages and who mix with the populace of the cities have a certain slurring in their utterances. Even so, Kashgari praised the dialect spoken by the bilingual Uyghurs as "pure" and "most correct" on par with those of Turkic monolinguals.The non-Muslim Turks worship of Tengri was mocked and insulted by the Muslim Turk Mahmud al-Kashgari, who wrote a verse referring to them - The Infidels - May God destroy them!

Some researchers think that Mahmud al-Kashgari died in 1102 at the age of 97 in Upal, a small city southwest of Kashgar, and was buried there. There is now a mausoleum erected on his gravesite. But some modern authors reject this assertion, saying that the date of his death is just unknown.Some claim Mahmad Kashghari was Hazrat Mullam.

Legacy. He is claimed by Uyghur, Kyrgyz, and Uzbek nationalists as part of their respective ethnic groups. An oriental study university, situated in the capital city of Bishkek in post-Soviet Kyrgyzstan, was named after Makhmud Kashghari, in the 1990s.

UNESCO declared 2008 the Year of Mahmud al-Kashgari.

Ferdinand de Saussure (/soʊˈsjʊər/; French: [fɛʁdinɑ̃ də sosyʁ]; 26 November 1857 – 22 February 1913) was a Swiss linguist, semiotician and philosopher. His ideas laid a foundation for many significant developments in both linguistics and semiotics in the 20th century. He is widely considered one of the founders of 20th-century linguistics and one of two major founders (together with Charles Sanders Peirce) of semiotics, or semiology, as Saussure called it.

One of his translators, Roy Harris, summarized Saussure's contribution to linguistics and the study of "the whole range of human sciences. It is particularly marked in linguistics, philosophy, psychoanalysis, psychology, sociology and anthropology.

Although they have undergone extension and critique over time, the dimensions of organization introduced by Saussure continue to inform contemporary approaches to the phenomenon of language. Prague school linguist Jan Mukařovský writes that Saussure's "discovery of the internal structure of the linguistic sign differentiated the sign both from mere acoustic 'things'... and from mental processes", and that in this development "new roads were thereby opened not only for linguistics, but also, in the future, for the theory of literature". Ruqaiya Hasan argued that "the impact of Saussure's theory of the linguistic sign has been such that modern linguists and their theories have since been positioned by reference to him: they are known as pre-

Saussurean, Saussurean, anti-Saussurean, post-Saussurean, or non-Saussure".

Saussure had a major impact on the development of linguistic theory in the first half of the 20th century with his notions becoming incorporated in the central tenets of structural linguistics. His main contribution to structuralism was his theory of **a two-tiered reality about language**. The first is the *langue*, the abstract and invisible layer, while the second, the *parole*, refers to the actual speech that we hear in real life. This framework was later adopted by Claude Levi-Strauss, who used the two-tiered model to determine the reality of myths. His idea was that all myths have an underlying pattern, which form the structure that makes them myths. These established the structuralist framework to literary criticism.

Friedrich Wilhelm Christian Karl Ferdinand von Humboldt (/ˈhʌmboʊlt/,also US: /ˈhʊmboʊlt/, UK: /ˈhʌmbɒlt/;German: [ˈvɪlhɛlm fɔn ˈhʊmbɔlt]; 22 June 1767 – 8 April 1835) was a Prussian philosopher, linguist, government functionary, diplomat, and founder of the Humboldt University of Berlin, which was named after him in 1949 (and also after his younger brother, Alexander von Humboldt, a naturalist).

He is especially remembered as a linguist who made important contributions to the philosophy of language, ethnolinguistics and to the theory and practice of education. He made a major contribution to the development of liberalism by envisioning education as a means of realizing individual possibility rather than a way of drilling traditional ideas into youth to suit them for an already established occupation or social role.In particular, he was the architect of the Humboldtian education ideal, which was used from the beginning in Prussia as a model for its system of public education, as well as in the United States and Japan. He was elected as a member of the American Philosophical Society in 1822.

Humboldt was born in Potsdam, Margraviate of Brandenburg, and died in Tegel, Province of Brandenburg. In June 1791, he married

Caroline von Dacheröden. They had eight children, of whom five (amongst them Gabriele von Humboldt) survived to adulthood.

Humboldt was a philosopher; he wrote The Limits of State Action in 1791–1792 (though it was not published until 1850, after Humboldt's death), one of the boldest defences of the liberties of the Enlightenment. It influenced John Stuart Mill's essay On Liberty through which von Humboldt's ideas became known in the English-speaking world. Humboldt outlined an early version of what Mill would later call the "harm principle". His house in Rome became a cultural hub, run by Caroline von Humboldt.

The section dealing with education was published in the December 1792 issue of the Berlinische Monatsschrift under the title "On public state education". With this publication, Humboldt took part in the philosophical debate regarding the direction of national education that was in progress in Germany, as elsewhere, after the French Revolution.
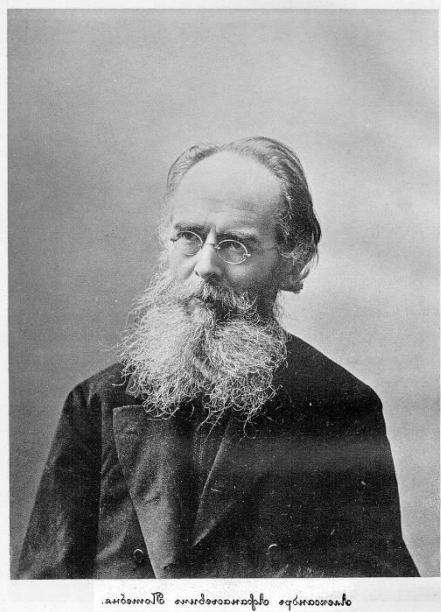
Alexander Potebnja (Russian: Алекса́ндр Афана́сьевич Потебня́;Ukrainian: Олекса́ндр Опана́сович Потебня́) was a Russian Imperial and Ukrainian linguist, philosopher and panslavist, who was a professor of linguistics at the Imperial University of Kharkov. He is well known as a specialist in the evolution of Russian phonetics.

He constructed a theory of language and consciousness that later influenced the thinking of his countryman the Psychologist Lev Vygotsky. His main work was Language and Thought (Russian: Мысль и язык) (1862). He also publisched a number of works on Russian Grammar, on the History of the Sounds in the Russian Language and on Slavic folk poetry, furthermore he translated a short fragment of Homer's Odyssey into Ukrainian. Potebnja was a corresponding member of the St. Petersburg Academy of Sciences, the foremost academic institution in the Russian Empire.

Alexander Potebnja was born into a noble family in 1835 on his family's estate in Manev, near the village of Gavrilovka near Romny,

Government of Poltava, then part of the Russian Empire, now Ukraine. He received his primary education in the Polish school of the city of Radom. He studied law, history, and philology at the Imperial University of Kharkov (PhD in Philology, 1874). In the early 1860s he was known as an active ethnographer, he took part in folklore expeditions in Poltava and Okhtyrka counties. His teachers were the brothers Peter Lavrov and Nikolai Lavrov and Professor Ambrose Metlinsky. He graduated from the University in 1856, served briefly a teacher of literature at a school in Kharkov, and then in 1861 he defended his master thesis Certain characters in the Slavic folk poetry (Russian: О некоторых символах в славянской народной поэзии), before beginning to lecture at the Imperial University of Kharkov. In 1862 he published his most important work Thought and Language, and in the same year he went on a trip abroad. He attended lectures at the University of Berlin, he studied Sanskrit and visited several Slavic countries. In 1874 he defended his doctoral dissertation entitled Notes on Russian Grammar (Russian: Заметки о русской грамматике). In 1875, he became a professor at the Imperial University of Kharkov. He also presided over the Kharkov Historical-Philological Society (1877–90) and was a member of the Bohemian Society of Sciences (from 1887).

Charles Bally (French: [bɑji]; 4 February 1865, Geneva – 10 April 1947, Geneva) was a Swiss linguist from the Geneva School. He lived from 1865 to 1947 and was, like Ferdinand de Saussure, from Switzerland. His parents were Jean Gabriel, a teacher, and Henriette, the owner of a cloth store. Bally was married three times: first to Valentine Leirens, followed by Irma Baptistine Doutre, who was sent into a mental institution in 1915, and finally with Alice Bellicot. In addition to his edition of de Saussure's lectures, Course in General Linguistics (co-edited by Albert Sechehaye), Charles Bally also played an important role in linguistics.
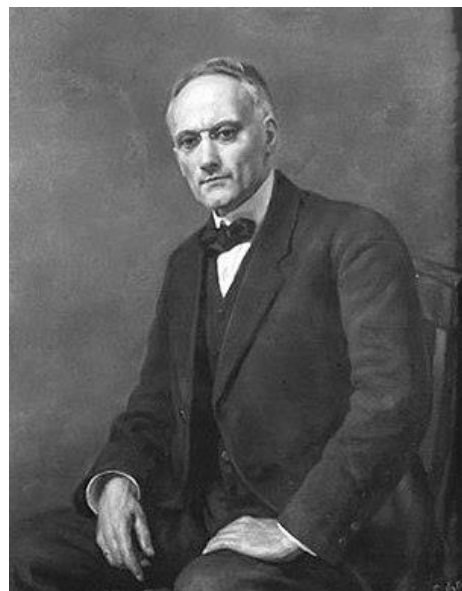
From 1883 to 1885 he studied classical languages and literature in Geneva. He continued his studies from 1886 to 1889 in Berlin where he was awarded a Ph.D. After his studies he worked as a private teacher for the royal family of Greece from 1889 to 1893. Bally returned to Geneva and taught at a business school from 1893 on and moved to the Progymnasium, a grammar school, from 1913 to 1939. He also worked as PD at the university from 1893 to 1913. From 1913 to 1939 he had a professorship for general linguistic and comparative Indo-European studies which he took over from Ferdinand de Saussure.

Besides his works about subjecthood in the French language he also wrote about the crisis in French language and language classes. He was active in interlinguistics, serving as a consultant to the research association that presented Interlingua in 1951. Today Charles Bally is regarded as the founding-father of linguistic theories of style and much honored for his theories of phraseology.In terms of modern stylistics he dealt with the expressive function of signs.

Leonard Bloomfield (April 1, 1887 – April 18, 1949) was an American linguist who led the development of structural linguistics in the United States during the 1930s and the 1940s. He is considered to be the father of American distributionalism. His influential textbook Language, published in 1933, presented a comprehensive description of American structural linguistics. He made significant contributions to Indo-European historical linguistics, the description of Austronesian languages, and description of languages of the Algonquian family.

Bloomfield's approach to linguistics was characterized by its emphasis on the scientific basis of linguistics and emphasis on formal procedures for the analysis of linguistic data. The influence of Bloomfieldian structural linguistics declined in the late 1950s and 1960s as the theory of generative grammar developed by Noam Chomsky came to predominate. Distributionalism can be said to have

originated in the work of structuralist linguist Leonard Bloomfield and was more clearly formalised by Zellig S. Harris. This theory emerged in the United States in the 1950s, as a variant of structuralism, which was the mainstream linguistic theory at the time, and dominated American linguistics for some time. Using "distribution" as a technical term for a component of discovery procedure is likely first to have been done by Morris Swadesh in 1934 and then applied to principles of phonematics, to establish which observable various sounds of a language constitute the allophones of a phoneme and which should be kept as separate phonemes. According to Turenne and Pomerol, distributionalism was in fact a second phase in the history of linguistics, following that of structuralism, as distributionalism was mainly dominant since 1935 to 1960. It is considered one of the scientific grounds of Noam Chomsky's generative grammar and had considerable influence on language teaching.

Roman Osipovich Jakobson (Russian: Рома́н О́сипович Якобсо́н; October 11, 1896 – July 18, 1982) was a Russian-American linguist and literary theorist.

A pioneer of structural linguistics, Jakobson was one of the most celebrated and influential linguists of the twentieth century. With Nikolai Trubetzkoy, he developed revolutionary new techniques for the analysis of linguistic sound systems, in effect founding the modern discipline of phonology. Jakobson went on to extend similar principles and techniques to the study of other aspects of language such as syntax, morphology and semantics. He made numerous contributions to Slavic linguistics, most notably two studies of Russian case and an analysis of the categories of the Russian verb. Drawing on insights from C. S. Peirce's semiotics, as well as from communication theory and cybernetics, he proposed methods for the investigation of poetry, music, the visual arts, and cinema.

Through his decisive influence on Claude Lévi-Strauss and Roland Barthes, among others, Jakobson became a pivotal figure in the

adaptation of structural analysis to disciplines beyond linguistics, including philosophy, anthropology, and literary theory; his development of the approach pioneered by Ferdinand de Saussure, known as "structuralism", became a major post-war intellectual movement in Europe and the United States. Meanwhile, though the influence of structuralism declined during the 1970s, Jakobson's work has continued to receive attention in linguistic anthropology, especially through the ethnography of communication developed by Dell Hymes and the semiotics of culture developed by Jakobson's former student Michael Silverstein. Jakobson's concept of underlying linguistic universals, particularly his celebrated theory of distinctive features, decisively influenced the early thinking of Noam Chomsky, who became the dominant figure in theoretical linguistics during the second half of the twentieth century.

Avram Noam Chomsky (born December 7, 1928) is an American linguist, philosopher, cognitive scientist, historian,[b][c] social critic, and political activist. Sometimes called "the father of modern linguistics",[d] Chomsky is also a major figure in analytic philosophy and one of the founders of the field of cognitive science. He is a Laureate Professor of Linguistics at the University of Arizona and an Institute Professor Emeritus at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT), and is the author of more than 150 books on topics such as linguistics, war, politics, and mass media. Ideologically, he aligns with anarcho-syndicalism and libertarian socialism.

During his postgraduate work in the Harvard Society of Fellows, Chomsky developed the theory of transformational grammar for which he earned his doctorate in 1955. That year he began teaching at MIT, and in 1957 emerged as a significant figure in linguistics with his landmark work Syntactic Structures, which played a major role in remodeling the study of language. From 1958 to 1959 Chomsky was a National Science Foundation fellow at the Institute for Advanced Study. He created or co-created the universal grammar theory, the

generative grammar theory, the Chomsky hierachy, and the minimalist program. Chomsky also played a pivotal role in the decline of linguistic behaviorism, and was particularly critical of the work of B. F. Skinner.

Since retiring from active teaching at MIT, he has continued his vocal political activism, including opposing the 2003 invasion of Iraq and supporting the Occupy movement. Chomsky began teaching at the University of Arizona in 2017.

One of the most cited scholars alive, Chomsky has influenced a broad array of academic fields. He is widely recognized as having helped to spark the cognitive revolution in the human sciences, contributing to the development of a new cognitivistic framework for the study of language and the mind. In addition to his continued scholarship, he remains a leading critic of U.S. foreign policy, neoliberalism and contemporary state capitalism, the Israeli–Palestinian conflict, and mainstream news media. Chomsky and his ideas are highly influential in the anti-capitalist and anti-imperialist movements.

Louis Trolle Hjelmslev (Danish: [ˈjelˀmslew̥]; 3 October 1899 – 30 May 1965) was a Danish linguist whose ideas formed the basis of the Copenhagen School of linguistics. Born into an academic family (his father was the mathematician Johannes Hjelmslev), Hjelmslev studied comparative linguistics in Copenhagen, Prague and Paris (with Antoine Meillet and Joseph Vendryes, among others). In 1931, he founded the Cercle Linguistique de Copenhague. Together with Hans Jørgen Uldall he developed a structuralist theory of language which he called glossematics, which further developed the semiotic theory of Ferdinand de Saussure.

Glossematics as a theory of language is characterized by a high degree of formalism. It is interested in describing the formal and semantic characteristics of language in separation from sociology, psychology or neurobiology, and has a high degree of logical rigour. Hjelmslev regarded linguistics — or glossematics — as a formal science. He was the inventor of formal linguistics. Hjelmslev's theory

became widely influential in structural and functional grammar, and in semiotics.

The Linguistic Circle of Copenhagen was founded by Hjelmslev and a group of Danish colleagues on 24 September 1931. Their main inspiration was the Prague Linguistic Circle, which had been founded in 1926. It was, in the first place, a forum for discussion of theoretical and methodological problems in linguistics. Initially, their interest lay mainly in developing an alternative concept of the phoneme, but it later developed into a complete theory which was coined glossematics, and was notably influenced by structuralism. Membership of the group grew rapidly and a significant list of publications resulted, including an irregular series of larger works under the name Travaux du Cercle Linguistique de Copenhague. A Bulletin was produced, followed by an international journal for structuralistic research in language, Acta Linguistica (later called Acta Linguistica Hafniensia), which was founded with the members of the Prague Linguistic Circle. It was, at that time, the sole journal explicitly dedicated to structuralism. With one short break from 1934 to 1937, while he lectured at the university of Aarhus, Hjelmslev acted as chairman of the Circle until shortly before his death in 1965.

Émile Benveniste (French: [emil bɛ̃venist]; 27 May 1902 – 3 October 1976) was a French structural linguist and semiotician. He is best known for his work on Indo-European languages and his critical reformulation of the linguistic paradigm established by Ferdinand de Saussure.

Benveniste was born in Aleppo, Aleppo Vilayet, Ottoman Syria to a Sephardi family. His father sent him to Paris to undertake rabbinical studies, but he left the Rabbinical School after receiving his baccalauréat, and enrolled in the École pratique des hautes études. There he studied under Antoine Meillet, a former student of Saussure, and Joseph Vendryes, completing his degree in 1920. He would return to the École pratique des hautes études in 1927 as a director of studies, and would receive his doctorate there in 1935, with his major thesis on the formation of noun roots, and his

secondary thesis on the Avestan infinitive. Following Meillet's death in 1936, he was elected to the Chair of Comparative Grammar in the Collège de France in 1937. He held his seat at the Collège de France until his death, but ceased lecturing in December 1969, after suffering a stroke that left him aphasic. Earlier that year he had been elected as the first President of the International Association for Semiotic Studies, and stayed nominally in that position until 1972. Benveniste died in a nursing home in Versailles, aged 74.

At the start of his career, his highly specialised and technical work limited his influence to a small circle of scholars. In the late thirties, he aroused some controversy for challenging the influential Saussurian notion of the sign, that posited a binary distinction between the phonic shape of any given word (signifier) and the idea associated with it (signified). Saussure argued that the relationship between the two was psychological, and purely arbitrary. Benveniste challenged this model in his Nature du signe linguistique.

The publication of his monumental text, Problèmes de linguistique générale or Problems in General Linguistics, would elevate his position to much wider recognition. The two volumes of this work appeared in 1966 and 1974 respectively. The book exhibits not only scientific rigour but also a lucid style accessible to the layman, consisting of various writings culled from a period of more than twenty-five years. In Chapter 5, Animal Communication and Human Language, Benveniste repudiated behaviourist linguistic interpretations by demonstrating that human speech, unlike the so-called languages of bees and other animals, cannot be merely reduced to a stimulus-response system.

Jens Otto Harry Jespersen (Danish: [ˈʌtsʰo ˈjespɐsn̩]; 16 July 1860 – 30 April 1943) was a Danish linguist who specialized in the grammar of the English language. Steven Mithen described him as "one of the greatest language scholars of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries."

Otto Jespersen was born in Randers in Jutland. He was inspired by the work of Danish philologist Rasmus Rask as a boy, and with the help of Rask's grammars taught

himself some Icelandic, Italian, and Spanish. He entered the University of Copenhagen in 1877 when he was 17, initially studying law but not forgetting his language studies. In 1881 he shifted his focus completely to languages, and in 1887 earned his master's degree in French, with English and Latin as his secondary languages. He supported himself during his studies through part-time work as a schoolteacher and as a shorthand reporter in the Danish parliament.

In 1887–1888, he traveled to England, Germany and France, meeting linguists like Henry Sweet and Paul Passy and attending lectures at institutions like Oxford University. Following the advice of his mentor Vilhelm Thomsen, he returned to Copenhagen in August 1888 and began work on his doctoral dissertation on the English case system. He successfully defended his dissertation in 1891.

Jespersen was a professor of English at the University of Copenhagen from 1893 to 1925, and served as Rector of the university in 1920–21. His early work focused primarily on language teaching reform and on phonetics, but he is best known for his later work on syntax and on language development.

He advanced the theories of Rank and Nexus in Danish in two papers: Sprogets logik (1913) and De to hovedarter af grammatiske forbindelser (1921). Jespersen in this theory of ranks removes the parts of speech from the syntax, and differentiates between primaries, secondaries, and tertiaries; e.g. in "well honed phrase," "phrase" is a primary, this being defined by a secondary, "honed", which again is defined by a tertiary "well". The term Nexus is applied to sentences, structures similar to sentences and sentences in formation, in which two concepts are expressed in one unit; e.g., it rained, he ran indoors. This term is qualified by a further concept called a junction which represents one idea, expressed by means of two or more elements, whereas a nexus combines two ideas. Junction and nexus proved valuable in bringing the concept of context to the forefront of the attention of the world of linguistics.

Jan Niecisław Ignacy Baudouin de Courtenay (13 March 1845 – 3 November 1929) was a Polish linguist and Slavist, best known for his theory of the phoneme and phonetic alternations.

For most of his life Baudouin de Courtenay worked at Imperial Russian universities: Kazan (1874–1883), Dorpat (now Tartu, Estonia) (1883–1893), Kraków (1893–1899) in Austria-Hungary, and St. Petersburg (1900–1918). In 1919–1929 he was a professor at the re-established University of Warsaw in a once again independent Poland.
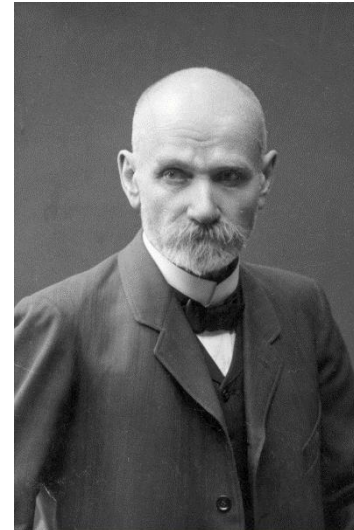
He was born in Radzymin, in the Warsaw Governorate of Congress Poland (a state in personal union with the Russian Empire), to a family of distant French extraction. One of his ancestors had been a French aristocrat who immigrated to Poland during the reign of Polish King Augustus II the Strong. In 1862 Baudouin de Courtenay entered the "Main School," a predecessor of the University of Warsaw. In 1866 he graduated from its historical and philological faculty and won a scholarship of the Russian Imperial Ministry of Education. After leaving Poland, he studied at various foreign universities, including those of Prague, Jena and Berlin. In 1870 he received a doctorate from the University of Leipzig for his work on analogy and a master's degree from St. Petersburg for his Polish-language dissertation On the Old Polish Language Prior to the 14th Century.

Baudouin de Courtenay established the Kazan School of linguistics in the mid-1870s and served as professor at the local university from 1875. Later he was chosen as the head of linguistics faculty at the University of Dorpat (now Tartu, Estonia) (1883–1893). Between 1894 and 1898 he occupied the same post at the Jagiellonian University in Kraków only to be appointed to St. Petersburg, where he continued to refine his theory of phonetic alternations. After Poland regained independence in 1918, he returned to Warsaw, where he formed the core of the linguistics faculty of the University of Warsaw. From 1887 he held a permanent seat in the Polish Academy of Skills and from 1897 he was a member of the Petersburg Academy of Sciences.

Three major schools of 20th-century phonology arose directly from his distinction between physiophonetic (phonological) and psychophonetic (morphophonological) alternations: the Leningrad school of phonology, the Moscow school of phonology, and the Prague school of phonology. All three schools developed different positions on the nature of Baudouin's alternational dichotomy. The Prague School was best known outside the field of Slavic linguistics. Throughout his life he published hundreds of scientific works in Polish, Russian, Czech, Slovenian, Italian, French and German.

Prince Nikolai Sergeyevich Trubetzkoy (Russian: Никола́й Серге́евич Трубецко́й, IPA: [trʊbʲɪtsˈkoj]; 16 April 1890 – 25 June 1938) was a Russian linguist and historian whose teachings formed a nucleus of the Prague School of structural linguistics. He is widely considered to be the founder of morphophonology. He was also associated with the Russian Eurasianists.

Trubetzkoy was born into privilege. His father, Sergei Nikolaevich Trubetskoy, came from a Lithuanian Gediminid princely family. In 1908, he enrolled at the Moscow University. While spending some time at the University of Leipzig, Trubetzkoy was taught by August Leskien, a pioneer of research into sound laws.After he graduated from the Moscow University (1913), Trubetzkoy delivered lectures there until the Russian Revolution, when he moved first to the University of Rostov-on-Don, then to the University of Sofia (1920–1922) and finally took the chair of Professor of Slavic Philology at the University of Vienna (1922-1938). He died from a heart attack attributed to Nazi persecution after he had published an article that was highly critical of Hitler's theories.

Trubetzkoy's chief contributions to linguistics lie in the domain of phonology, particularly in the analyses of the phonological systems of individual languages and in the search for general and universal phonological laws. His magnum opus, Grundzüge der Phonologie (Principles of Phonology)[3] was issued posthumously in which he defined the phoneme as the smallest distinctive unit within the structure

of a given language. It was crucial in establishing phonology as a discipline separate from phonetics.

Trubetzkoy also wrote as a literary critic. In Writings on Literature, a brief collection of translated articles, he analyzed Russian literature beginning with the Old Russian epic The Tale of Igor's Campaign and proceeding to 19th-century Russian poetry and Dostoevsky. It is sometimes hard to distinguish Trubetzkoy's views from those of his friend Roman Jakobson, who should be credited with spreading the Prague School views on phonology after Trubetzkoy's death.

In his biography of the mathematical collective Nicolas Bourbaki, Amir Aczel described Trubetzkoy as a pioneer in structuralism, an interdisciplinary outgrowth of structural linguistics that would be applied in mathematics by the Bourbaki group, as in the notion of a mathematical structure, and in anthropology by Claude Lévi-Strauss.

Filipp Fyodorovich Fortunatov (Russian: Фили́пп Фёдорович Фортуна́тов; 14 January [O.S. 2 January] 1848 – 3 October [O.S. 20 September] 1914) was a Russian philologist, Indo-Europeanist and Slavist, best known for establishing the Fortunatov–de Saussure law. Fortunatov was born in Vologda in 1848. His father was the director of public schools in Olonets Governorate, and Fortunatov entered the Olonets provincial male gymnasium [ru] in Petrozavodsk, which was also overseen by his father.

Following his father's retirement in 1863, the family moved to Moscow, where Fortunatov continued his studies at the 2nd Moscow Gymnasium [ru]. Fortunatov then entered the Faculty of History and Philology of Imperial Moscow University in 1864. During his time at the university, Fortunatov was influenced by Fyodor Buslaev and his works on comparative linguistics. He graduated in 1868. In 1871, Fortunatov and Vsevolod Miller travelled to Suwałki Governorate, where they studied Lithuanian fairy tales and songs. After this trip, Fortunatov was sent aboard to Germany, France and England, spending two years aboard in total between 1871 and 1873. During the trip, Fortunatov attended lectures and also studied the Vedas at the British

Museum.After his return to Moscow, Fortunatov completed his Master's degree in 1875.From 1876 onwards, Fortunatov began lecturing in the university.In 1884, Fortunatov was made a part-time professor in the faculty at the Department of Comparative Linguistics and Sanskrit Language, and was promoted to a full-time professor two years later.

Fortunatov was the founder of the Moscow linguistic circle, and the foremost representative of the Neogrammarian school in Russia. His studies specialized in the phonetics of the Indo-European languages, emphasizing the importance of using a strict historical approach in studying phonetic changes. His works included studies on the Slavic languages, Sanskrit, Vedic Sanskrit, Greek, Armenian, Gothic and Lithuanian. Through the Moscow linguistic circle, Fortunatov had immense influence on the subsequent generation of Russian and foreign linguists, producing distinguished students like Aleksey Shakhmatov, Dmitry Ushakov, Nikolai Durnovo, Olaf Broch, Aleksandar Belić, Mikhail Pokrovsky, Johan August Lundell, Jiří Polívka and J. J. Mikkola.However, his international impact remained small due to his limited written works.
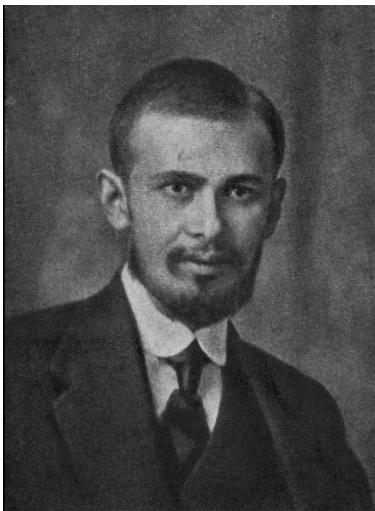
Yevgeny Dmitrievich Polivanov (Russian: Евге́ний Дми́триевич Полива́нов; 12 March [O.S. 28 February] 1891 – 25 January 1938) was a Soviet linguist, orientalist and polyglot who wrote major works on the Chinese, Japanese, Uzbek and Dungan languages and on theoretical linguistics and poetics.

He participated in the development of writing systems for the peoples of the Soviet Union and also designed a cyrillization system for Japanese language, which was officially accepted in the Soviet Union and is still the standard in modern Russia. He also translated the Kyrgyz national Epic of Manas into Russian. Polivanov is credited as the scholar who initiated the comparative study of Japanese pitch accent across dialects.

In 1928–1929 he expressed disagreement with Nicholas Marr's Japhetic theory, which was promoted by the regime at the time. After

this he was blackballed from all scholarly institutions in Moscow and Leningrad and until his arrest "was essentially in exile in Central Asia, where he accomplished fruitful work on the local languages."

Alexander Khristoforovich Vostokov (born Alexander Woldemar Osteneck; Russian: Алекса́ндр Христофо́рович Восто́ков; 27 March [O.S. March 16] 1781 – 20 February [O.S. 8 February] 1864) was one of the first Russian philologists.
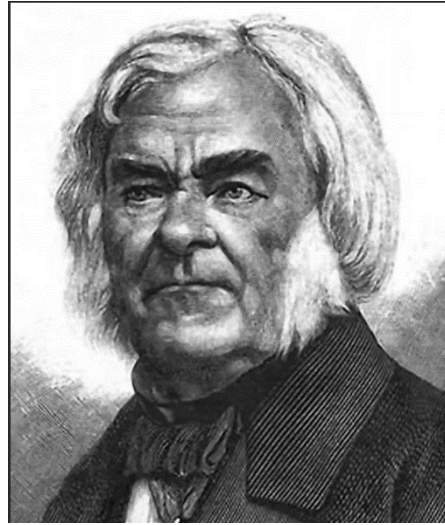
He was born into a Baltic German family in Arensburg, Governorate of Livonia, and studied at the Imperial Academy of Arts in Saint Petersburg. As a natural son of Baron von Osten-Sacken, he received the name Osteneck, which he later chose to render into Russian as Vostokov (Ost, the German word for "east," translates to vostok in Russian).[1] He liked to experiment with language and, in one of his poems, introduced the female name Svetlana, which would gain popularity through Vasily Zhukovsky's eponymous ballad.

During his lifetime, Vostokov was known as a poet and translator, but it is his innovative studies of versification and comparative Slavonic grammars which proved most influential. In 1815, he joined the staff of the Imperial Public Library, where he discovered the most ancient dated book written in Slavonic vernacular, the so-called Ostromir Gospel. In 1841, Vostokov was elected to the Russian Academy of Sciences.

Vostokov's works on the Church Slavonic language were considered a high-water mark of Slavic studies until the appearance of Izmail Sreznevsky's comprehensive lexicon in 1893–1903 and garnered him the doctorates honoris causa from the Charles University and University of Tübingen.

Michael Alexander Kirkwood Halliday (often M. A. K. Halliday; 13 April 1925 – 15 April 2018) was a British linguist who developed the internationally influential systemic functional linguistics (SFL) model of language. His grammatical descriptions go by the name of systemic functional grammar. Halliday described language as a semiotic system, "not in the sense of a system of signs, but a systemic resource for meaning". For Halliday, language was a "meaning potential"; by extension, he defined linguistics as the study of "how people exchange meanings by 'languaging'". Halliday described himself as a generalist, meaning that he tried "to look at language from every possible vantage point", and has described his work as "wander[ing] the highways and byways of language". But he said that "to the extent that I favoured any one angle, it was the social: language as the creature and creator of human society".

Halliday's grammar differs markedly from traditional accounts that emphasise classification of individual words (e.g. noun, verb, pronoun, preposition) in formal, written sentences in a restricted number of "valued" varieties of English. Halliday's model conceives grammar explicitly as how meanings are coded into wordings, in both spoken and written modes in all varieties and registers of a language. Three strands of grammar operate simultaneously. They concern: (i) the interpersonal exchange between speaker and listener, and writer and reader; (ii) representation of our outer and inner worlds; and (iii) the wording of these meanings in cohesive spoken and written texts, from within the clause up to whole texts. Notably, the grammar embraces intonation in spoken language. Halliday's seminal Introduction to Functional Grammar (first edition, 1985) spawned a new research discipline and related pedagogical approaches. By far the most progress has been made on English, but the international growth of communities of SFL scholars has led to the adaptation of Halliday's advances to some other languages.

Halliday's grammatical theory and descriptions gained wide recognition after publication of the first edition of his book An Introduction to Functional Grammar in 1985. A second edition was published in 1994, and then a third, in which he collaborated with

Christian Matthiessen, in 2004. A fourth edition was published in 2014. Halliday's conception of grammar – or "lexicogrammar", a term he coined to argue that lexis and grammar are part of the same phenomenon – is based on a more general theory of language as a social semiotic resource, or "meaning potential" (see Systemic functional linguistics).

Khamid Gulamovich Nigmatov (22 November 1941 – 28 April 2016, Bukhara, Uzbekistan) was an Uzbek linguist, philosopher and linguodidact (Doctor of Philological Sciences, Professor). He was the founder of Uzbek substantial linguistics. His and his disciples' researches served for the development of the national and comparative (typological) linguistic analysis. Developing the scientific ideas of the Swiss linguist, Ferdinand de Saussure, he tried to establish a totally new system of linguistic researches, which became known as "a Substantial Approach" in the world science about the language. The interrelation between the human language and the speech, outcomes of human consciousness and the language, converting of the logical units into the language ones, language picture(s) of the world, linguistic relationships (paradigmatic, syntagmatic, graduonymic) and other issues were thoroughly studied in the scholar`s works.
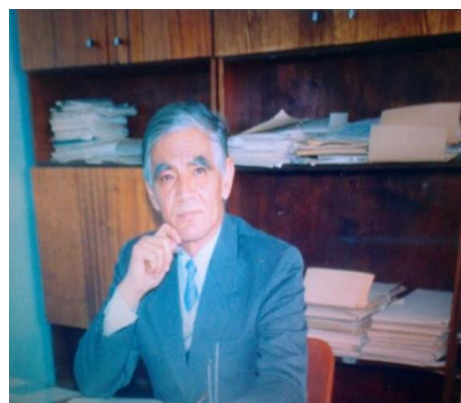
The newest linguistic phenomena, in particular "graduonymy" in the world linguistics deal with Kh.Nigmatov`s name and "Bukhara Linguistic School", which was founded by him.

Professor Khamid Nigmatov was known as an outstanding linguodidact as well. As he was tasked to solve some educational and methodological problems, existing in the middle and higher education systems in the years of independence, he totally devoted him to these issues. Nigmatov strongly believed that "the progress of the country and the nationality is tightly linked with the upbringing of the creative and progressive man". Therefore, he tried to reform the whole educational (teaching) process, focusing on the "inductive way" of teaching, and emphasizing its effectiveness compared to the "deductive method" of teaching in public education.

Moreover, he was an author of the main teaching curricula and

programs, study-books and aids on philology for higher education. The linguistic school, under the guidance of professor Khamid Nigmatov, also aimed to teach Uzbekology (Uzbek linguistics and literature) on the basis of the European scientific materials, masterpieces and/or translations. By the works investigating different comparative matters in relative and/or non-relative languages, he tried to reveal common language data and facts, which demonstrate undisputable mechanism of "language consciousness" and manifestation of "language picture(s) of the world". Therefore he is considered to be a great linguist-philosopher, a contributor to the general linguistics.

During his progressive and fruitful professional activity the scientist was granted with several governmental awards, namely "Honorary Professor of Public Education" (1966), "People`s Respect" (2010) and lots of certificates and diploma.

Jamol Jalolov is the profound scholar and the founder of FLT Methodology School in Uzbekistan and Central Asia. He is the author of "State Educational Standard of Foreign Language in the Republic of Uzbekistan", course-books on English and FLT Methodology for Secondary and Higher Education. Under his supervision numerous DSc and PhD works have been successfully defended.

Professor Jalolov: "Language is a unique factor, invaluable means in establishing close communication, mutual respect and friendship among people".

Sh.Safarov has been working effectively in the field of education for many years and is one of the prominent scientists in the Republic, who have been conducting research on a foreign language, in particular English, teaching English to the youth of our country and preparing them for the

purpose of continuing scientific succession, substantiating the place of their study. He is the author of more than 200 scientific articles, including 2 textbooks, 6 educational and methodical, 9 monographs.

During the leadership of Sh.Safarov, an agreement was concluded with 21 large foreign educational and scientific centers; 5 International, 12 Republican scientific conferences were held, the Institute for the first time had a specialized Council in the specialty 10.02.04 german languages, which was intended for the protection of candidate dissertations.

The institute has established the publication of the journal "Foreign philology", which is constantly on the HAC list. Currently professor Sh. Safarov is working as the responsible editor of this journal. During his leadership, 6 new directions were opened at the Institute (Italian, Spanish, Chinese, Japanese, Arabic and translation studies); centers are operating, opened in cooperation with more than 10 countries such as Italy, France, Germany, Great Britain, Japan, China, South Korea, Egypt.

During trips in countries such as Great Britain, Denmark, Germany, Italy, France, Israel, Japan, Shahriyar Safarov collected information about the educational system of these countries and constantly delivered them to the educational authorities. Having gained experience in the results of such research, Shahriyar Safarov became one of the organizers of the joint magistracy in the specialties of museum studies and source Studies, which was introduced in cooperation with the University of Bologna (Italy) among the first in our country at Samarkand State University .

Under the scientific leadership of Professor Sh.Safarov, more than 40 candidates of Sciences were trained doctors of Philosophy (PhD) and doctors of Sciences, 36 candidates and doctoral dissertations were opponent.

Mirzaev Ibodulla Kamolovich was born on January 2, 1946 in the Zharkurgan district of the Surkhandarya region in a peasant's family. Ibodulla Mirzaev started his career in 1967 as an English teacher at the secondary school#1 in Termiz. I.K.Mirzaev, whose

specialty was a French language teacher - philologist, soon gained attention as an English teacher, and later the school administration appointed him as the head of the English language office. He studied at the National University of Uzbekistan, Samarkand State University, St. Petersburg University, Moscow State University, Moscow University of World Languages and took advanced training courses in France.

Being involved in writing scientific works is an important part of Professor Ibodulla Mirzaev's activity. Monographs such as "French specific words and issues of artistic translation", "Theory of linguistic analysis", "Lexical and morphological features of rhyme", "Professor S.N. Ivanov. Bibliographic index", "Professor A.V. Fyodorov. Bibliographic index", "V.G. Gak. Bibliographic index" (in cooperation), "A. Abdurakhmanov. Works such as "Biobibliographic Index"; Dictionaries such as "Uzbek alternatives to French proverbs and sayings", "French-Uzbek dictionary", "French-Russian-Uzbek dictionary", "French-Uzbek dictionary" can be a clear proof of our opinion.

Scientific translations are another essential part of Professor Ibodulla Mirzaev's activity. His "Gak V.G. Theoretical grammar of the French language", "Jakobson O. Methodological problems", "Ivanov S.N. Turkish language course", "Linguistic analysis methods", "Lotman Yu.M. Poetic text analysis. Poem Structure", E.E. Bertels' "Literature of Sufism and Sufism", "Navoi and Attar", "Epics writings about Iskandar before Navoi's period", "Saddi Iskandari" epic by Navoi, "Nur-ul-Ulum", "Khoraqani", translations of such monographs as "Nur ul-Ulum" and "The Main Stages of Persian Sufism Poetry" are among them. Works of academicians E.E. Bertels, Yu, M. Lotman, L.V.Shcherba, professors Baudouin do' Courtenay, V. Kudryavtsev, A. Bogoroditsky, S. Kartsevsky, S. Ivanov, V. Gak, I. Kovtunova, L. Zubova, J. Lyons, L. Bloomfield were skillfully translated into Uzbek language by I.K.Mirzaev. Translations of F. Do Saussure's "General Linguistics Course", "Prague Linguistics Complete Theses", E.E. Bertels' "Literature of Sufism and Sufism", "Navoi and Attor" are the highlights of M.K. Mirzaev's translating activity.

If you look at the life path of Sano Saidov, professor of the Department of German Philology of Bukhara State University, you will be able to witness how difficult and fruitful it was. After all, he carried out significant work as a philologist-germanist, both translator, teacher-methodologist and lexicographer-linguist in the establishment and improvement of the teaching of Roman-Germanic languages in the system of higher and secondary education in the Republic, and thanks to his multifaceted activities he gained recognition and attention not only in our country, but also outside its borders.

Having conducted teaching and research work in harmony, the teacher studied in 1961-1964 at the Graduate School of the Tashkent State Institute of foreign languages, where he studied. At the same time, working at the Department of foreign languages of the Academy of Sciences of the Republic of Uzbekistan, he studied and taught graduate students both in the process of teaching German, and studied practice and theory among themselves. His mentor is the famous germanist N.A.Under the leadership of Zusmanovskaya began to study the nature of modal words, which were not studied in German and Uzbek linguistics. For the first time in Uzbek linguistics, modal brought the concept of Word and modality, substantiating, classifying modal words as a special word category, clarifying which word category has so far been attributed to its composition, clarifying its syntactic function, researching the history of its origin, and finally summarizing the issues of their application. Describing the results of his observations in this area in a number of articles, such as "on the issue of classification of modal words", "from the history of the study of modal words", "syntactic functions of modal words in the current German and Uzbek languages", he was the first in the history of Uzbek linguistics to begin a comparative typological study of the phenomenon Summarizing his conclusions in this area, on October 14, 1964, he successfully defended his Ph. D. thesis on "modal words in German and Uzbek languages" at the specialized scientific council of the Uzbek Institute of language and literature, and was the first among the National personnel in the German language to receive the degree of candidate of philological Sciences. In

other words, he was the first swallow among National personnel in Uzbekistan in the field of German and Uzbek languages and defended his dissertation.

The teacher considered the conduct of scientific work as an integral part of labor activity. The number of published scientific works exceeds 200. Of these, 10 are textbooks and manuals. These are" German-Uzbek"," Uzbek-German "dictionaries," German-Uzbek, Uzbek-German "educational vocabulary," German-Uzbek colloquial"," German grammar (in Uzbek)","German grammar in samples "(in German),"German grammar in exercises "(in German),"German grammar in exercises" (in German), "German grammar in practice" (in German). 10 scientific articles of the teacher were published in such scientific journals as "Sprachpflege" – ("culture of speech"), "Deutsch als Fremdsprache" – ("German as a foreign language"), "NDL - Neue Deutsche Literatur" – ("new German literature"), "Das Hochschulwesen" – ("High School"). 25 scientific articles are on the page of magazines published in the cities of Moscow, St. Petersburg, Kiev.

Scientific articles on a number of translations and translation issues were published in the magazines "star of the East", "art of translation", "world literature", "Bliss", "Gulistan", "Mushtum" and the newspaper "literature and Art of Uzbekistan".

Yakubov Jamoliddin Abduvalievich was born on April 26, 1955 in Andijan region. Doctor of Philology, professor Yakubov Jamoliddin Abduvalievich, head of the Department of Theory and Practice of the French Language at the Faculty of Roman-Germanic Philology of UzSWLU, graduated from the Faculty of French at the former Tashkent State Pedagogical Institute of Foreign Languages with honors in 1978.

J.A. Yakubov's scientific activity was fruitful, he wrote more than 150 scientific works. Among them, he created 3 monographs, 3 textbooks, 4 manuals, as well as curricula for students and masters. More than 50 scientific works were published in the last five years.

J.A. Yakubov conducted his scientific and pedagogical activities in a joint way with public affairs.   In addition to actively participating in

the "Young Scientist" school established at UzSWLU sharing his knowledge and experience with young professionals, he also worked as an expert council of the Higher Attestation Commission for Philological Sciences of the Republic of Uzbekistan in 2007-2009, where he justified the high trust given to him in the objective evaluation of dissertations.

J.A. Yakubov had the honor of lecturing the students studying at the Master's Department of the Sorbonne University for three months on the subject "Actual problems of theoretical grammar of the French language".

Based on National personnel training program, J.A.Yakubov's wrote curricula for first- and second-year students on the subject "Main foreign language (oral and written speech)" and for third-year students in the theoretical subjects "Theoretical grammar", "Introduction to Roman philology" and "History of the Language" and they are printed and used in the educational process. In 2014, he co-authored a new textbook "Communicative grammar of the French language" for first- and second-year students.

In 2015, Mr. Jacques Henri Ols, Ambassador of France in Uzbekistan awarded J.A. Yakubov with the PALMA order of the French Academy. This top award was the respect, attention and appreciation for J.A. Yakubov's pedagogical activity. This award was presented for his achievements in science, his great contribution to the teaching and development of the French language. This high award is the result of J.A.Yakubov's 35 years of work.

Currently, he works as a professor at the Department of Theoretical Sciences of the French Language. Also, Jamoliddin Yakubov works as a member of the scientific council under DSc.03/30.12.219. Phil/Ped ed. 27.01 giving academic degrees at the State University of World Languages of Uzbekistan and as the chairman of the scientific seminar under the same scientific council.

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