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COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY

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The textbook “Comparative typology” compiled in accordance with the leading program of the course and is intended for students of philology undergraduate and graduate programs as well as for researchers of linguistic philological specialties.

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PREFACE

Comparative typology of various related and unrelated languages is one of the significant achievements of Uzbek linguistics, therefore, the introduction of a new theoretical course “Comparative typology of the native and studied foreign language” as a compulsory discipline for philological institutes of the country is quite natural. This textbook is intended for undergraduate students studying in the direction of 5111400 - Foreign language and literature (English). Moreover, the textbook may well be used in the training of masters in the subject of comparative typology of the native and studied foreign language.

Students should study this discipline after they have acquired sufficient theoretical training in a number of disciplines: general linguistics, theoretical phonetics, theoretical grammar, lexicology, history of language, stylistics, translation study, etc.

The purpose of this textbook is to acquaint future philologists, teachers of Uzbek-speaking audiences, with the system features of their native and studied foreign language – English, with basic principles of comparing language systems, to help novice linguists to develop a theoretically sound methodology for teaching a foreign language.

The textbook consists of 3 chapters. The first chapter is devoted to the problems of the theoretical base of research in the field of linguistic typology. The second chapter reveals the typological differences and similarities of the English and Uzbek languages. The third chapter explains the significance of the results of typological analysis in teaching a foreign language and translation studies. In other words, this textbook examines all main sections of a comparative typology: the basic concepts of linguistic typology, comparative typology as a special section of linguistic typology, phonological typology, morphological typology, lexical typology and syntactic typology, the relationship between the methodology of teaching a foreign language and translation problems. Each section includes a list of key concepts; linguistic units undergo a detailed,

multidimensional analysis; theoretical positions are illustrated by vivid and convincing examples from various scientific sources.

It should be noted that this textbook is written based on the textbooks and monographs created by prominent scholars in the field of comparative and contrastive linguistics such as V.D.Arakin, J.B.Buranov, A.A.Abdualazizov, U.K.Yusupov, etc.

The textbook will be useful and very timely publication not only for graduate students and undergraduates but also for teachers, philologists, researchers working in the field of Uzbek and German philology.

Cognition comes through comparison.

Friedrich Wilhelm Nietzsche

Chapter 1. Typology as a method of scientific research

§1. The notion of typology in science

Main notions of the paragraph:

- 1. Typology as a method of scientific research**
- 2. Non-linguistic typology**
- 3. Linguistic typology**
- 4. the types of linguistic comparison**

Typology is the systematic classification of objects or notions according to their common characteristics. It may refer to any field of science being characteristic of all branches of knowledge, because taxonomic description, classification and comparison of various objects are used both in linguistic and non-linguistic disciplines such as medicine, psychology, chemistry, biology, geography, sociology, etc.

Being a method of scientific cognition, general typology combines a non-linguistic and linguistic typology, because both of them have common tasks and similar principles for identifying both isomorphic and allomorphic properties of notions, phenomena, facts, relationships, events united by the principle of dialectical unity. It classifies them according to special criterion taking into account similarities and differences, commonality and separateness, generality and specificity, stability and instability.

The range of *non-linguistic typology* application is very wide and can serve as a comparative method for many sciences. Comparison is one of the logical methods of convincing the world which is made on the basis of general and unique features of notions or objects. Science which studies this notions and objects operates with typological method to find unknown features of notion or object being investigated. For some sciences, however comparison stands out as

a main instrument of research. For instance, comparative medicine (... is a distinct discipline of experimental medicine that uses animal models of human and animal disease in translational and biomedical research. In other words, it relates and leverages biological similarities and differences among species to better understand the mechanism of human and animal disease. It has also been defined as a study of similarities and differences between human and veterinary medicine¹), comparative biochemistry (studies evolutionary relationships between organisms by comparing similarities and differences in genes of DNA), comparative literature (studies various national literatures, stressing their influence one upon another, their use of similar forms, their treatment of similar themes²), comparative pedagogy (studies the general and distinctive features and trends of the development of pedagogical theories and practical training and education in the modern world, revealing their economic, socio-political and philosophical foundations, as well as national characteristics), etc.

The presence of approximately similar operations and similar methods of approach to comparison in various fields of knowledge indicates that general typology is a unified science that has specific sections, similar methods and principles of analysis and classification of facts, events in different areas of human activity. All types of comparison can be attributed to typology and consider the general typology as a single science of comparison.

Linguistic typology is a section of linguistics that deals with the grouping of basic, essential characteristics, attributes and the derivation of patterns observed in a number of languages; the study of the types of languages and the types of linguistic structure. It has its own subject, its own methods, sections and history, which determines its independence among other sections of linguistics.

¹ Jensen-Jarolim, E. (2013). *Comparative Medicine: Anatomy and Physiology*. Springer Science & Business Media. ISBN 9783709115596. Retrieved 24 May 2018.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Comparative_medicine

²<https://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english/comparative-literature>

As V.D.Arakin states, there are different opinions on the definition of the subject of linguistic typology: some linguists excessively expand the scope of the science of typology (Meshaninov I.I., Uspenskiy B.A.), while others, on the contrary, understand typology as a very narrow area of research (Katsnelson S.D., Lomtev T.P.). He mentions that the most common and earliest time of its occurrence value refers to the name of a whole section of science – linguistic typology, or typology of languages. Most linguists agree on the understanding of typology in linguistics as the doctrine of the types of languages that are studied by comparing, or juxtaposing, both individual levels, sublevels and microsystems, and systems of individual languages in general and groups of languages³.

Some linguists state that linguistic typology is also called cross-linguistic typology that deals with the analysis, comparison, and classification of languages according to their common structural features and forms⁴. Dictionaries give another definition: “typology studies the structural similarities between languages, regardless of their history, as part of an attempt to establish a satisfactory classification, or typology, of languages”⁵. Generally, typological studies are related to various terms conventionally assigned to certain sections of the typology: “typology”, “structural typology”, “comparative typology”, “areal linguistics”, “characterology”, “contrastive linguistics”, “confrontational linguistics”, “language universals”, “translational grammar”, “comparative typological linguistics”, “comparative historical method”, “comparative philology”, “contrastive linguistics”, etc.

The terms “compare”, “contrast” and “comparative method”, “contrastive method” were usually used synonymously. Such a scatter in terms indicates the unstable nature of the linguistic typology as a science. In linguistics there is not

³ Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков / В. Д. Аракин. – Л.: Просвещение, 1979.

⁴ Richard Nordquist <https://www.thoughtco.com/what-is-linguistic-typology-1691129>

⁵ Crystal D. A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics. Sixth Edition. Blackwell Publishing Ltd. 2008

enough material to determine the subject of each section and type of linguistic typology to contrast the comparative and typological methods, the typological study of related and unrelated languages, the structural and typological description of languages, characterological and uncharacterological research, etc. However, with the development of comparative study of languages, the terms “comparative method” and “contrastive method” become separate notions. Now comparative method is considered to be an instrument of comparative historical study of related languages, and under the contrastive method, a comparison of both related and unrelated languages in a synchronic aspect is understood.

Depending on a purpose of analysis the number of languages being compared is of fundamental importance in typology. The number of languages is unlimited when analysis considers the establishment of universals. The number of languages is limited when related languages are analyzed. Sometimes it can be a single language when typological analysis serves as a principle of organizing language material of one specific language.

According to Dj.Buranov, for all the variety of existing definitions, typology refers to various types of comparison of language systems⁶. Genetic, typological and areal comparisons comprise three sides of a single process of comparison. These methods do not compete with each other, but complement each other. So, the types of linguistic comparison can be represented as follows:

1) comparative-genealogical comparison (reconstruction of the common ancestors of related languages);

2) typological comparison of systems and subsystems of languages: a) related, b) unrelated - one-system or multi-system languages. The division into closely related and long-distance languages, since in the course of historical development distant languages, structural differences can become so significant that their “kinship” can persist as a historical factor;

⁶ Буранов Дж. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков: Учеб. пособие для пед. ин-тов. –М.: 1983. – 267 с.

3) areal linguistics, for which is characterized by a comparison of language systems of a certain geographical proximity.

Based on the foregoing, we can conclude that comparison of language structures shows their extreme diversity. Linguistic typology designed to provide an answer to the question, what is the degree and where are the boundaries of this diversity, how languages can generally differ – or should contain some common features in their structure.

1. What does linguistic typology study?
2. What is the object of linguistic typology?
3. What is the difference between comparative and contrastive methods?
4. According to Dj.Buranov what are the types of linguistic comparison?

§ 2. From the history of Linguistic typology

Main notions of the paragraph:

1. Linguistic typology - history of development

2. Dj.Buranov's four main historical periods

3. Modern typological studies

Linguistic typology has a rich history of development that cannot be studied without periodization. Each period has its own peculiarities as history itself and linguistics developed as a separate science. Dj.Buranov distinguishes four main historical periods in Linguistic typology⁷.

The first period is characterized as spontaneous and evolutionary. It begins with the advent of first linguistic works: when compiling separate grammars, in various treatises linguists have already used ready-made models on the principle of analogy. During this period linguistic notions were studied within philosophy by Greek philosophers such as Aristotle. To some extent, the works of the philosophers are fundamental in the development of typology. For instance, Aristotle was the first of the ancient thinkers to approach the problem of

⁷ Буранов Дж. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков: Учеб. пособие для пед. ин-тов. –М.: 1983. – 267 с.

grammatical form, developing the doctrine of the parts of speech as grammatically different classes of words. The main type of judgment, he considered the statement: “Noun – subject – noun – predicate” (for example, Horse - animal); he considered other types of judgments - statements as a transformation of the main type. This period ends shortly before Renaissance. On the basis of the ancient Greek linguistic heritage, the science of the language has emerged as an independent area and has been developed in other European countries.

The second period is characterized as the period of formation of linguistic comparison, when the first generalizing works in this area appear. The main works of this type include “Doctrinal” and “Por Royal Grammar”. Particularly, “Doctrinal” or “The Manual for the Young” (lat. *Doctrinale Puerorum*, 1200) by Alexander of Villedieu known for its grammar, where word formation, syntax, metric and prosody of the Latin language were set out, and which was considered the most necessary book in French, Italian and German schools for three centuries (until 1514). Second biggest contribution to the subsequent development of the typology in Indo-European studies is the Por Royal Grammar, published by Antoine Arnauld and Claude Lancelot in 1660 at the Por Royal Abbey near Paris. This work appeared as a result of the merging of the grammatical and philosophical ideas of that time. Philosophical thoughts were reflected in the identification of common units of the content side, while grammatical concepts formed the basis of the process of comparing multilingual units.

The forerunner of the comparative method in Turkology, Mahmoud Kashgary (XI century), with his three-volume work “Devonu lugat it-turk”, laid the foundation for this direction in Turkology. He subjected phonetic, lexical and grammatical analysis to a whole group of Turkic languages and, based on his scientific observations, determined the degree of kinship between the languages of the Turkic tribes that existed in his time.

The third period of the linguistic typology history is connected with the development of comparative-historical linguistics, that is with the development of genealogical and typological classification of languages.

The first typological classifications and terms belong to the beginning of the 19th century, but the prerequisites of typological linguistics were laid back in the Middle Ages – thanks to the centuries-old confidence that all languages are internally similar and therefore, the grammar of the Latin language can understand the structure and categories of any language. The cultural bilingualism that was ubiquitous in the Middle Ages encouraged us to constantly compare languages, to notice their similarities and differences, while Greek and Latin were a kind of “ethanol” languages.

Many believe that the founder of comparative historical linguistics is the English researcher – Williams Jones. He is known today for making and propagating the observation about relationships between the Indo-European languages. In his works he suggested that Sanskrit, Greek and Latin had a common root. In addition to Latin and Greek, Jones saw the similarity of Sanskrit with the Gothic language, as well as with the Celtic languages, which he wrote about in the book “Sanskrit language” published in 1786.

Friedrich Schlegel – a German scientist who was also interested in the culture of ancient India and its language, the author of the work “On the Language and Wisdom of the Indians”, published in 1808, first drew attention to the differences in the structure of languages. He compared Sanskrit with Greek, Latin, and also with Turkic languages and came to the conclusion that all languages can be divided into two types: affixing languages, to which he attributed the Turkic, Polynesian, and Chinese languages; and inflected languages, which included Semitic, Georgian, and French. His brother – August Schlegel in his work *On Provencal Literature* (1818) increases the number of language types in the language classification to three: to affixing and inflectional types he adds isolating type (Chinese). Moreover, in inflectional languages, he

showed two possibilities of the grammatical structure: synthetic and analytical, and secondly, he interprets “affixing” languages as agglutinative, focusing on their derivational affixes.

But the true founder of the linguistic typology as a special section of linguistics is Wilhelm von Humboldt. In inflecting languages, Humboldt saw not only the “internal changes” of the “miraculous root”, but also the “addition from the outside”, that is, affixation, which is carried out differently than in agglutinating languages. Humboldt explained that the Chinese language is not amorphous, but isolating, i.e. the grammatical form in it manifests itself differently than in inflected and agglutinating languages: not by changing words, but by word order and intonation, thus this type is a typically analytical language. In addition to the three types of languages noted by the Schlegel brothers, Humboldt described the fourth type; the most accepted term for this type is incorporating. A feature of this type (Native American, Paleo-Asian) is that the sentence is built as a complex word, that is, unformed root words are agglutinated into one common whole, which will be both a word and a sentence. Parts of this whole are both elements of the word and members of a sentence. The whole is a sentence word, where the beginning is the subject, the end is the predicate, and the additions with their definitions and circumstances are incorporated in the middle. Thus, V. Humboldt divided all the languages known to him into four types: isolating languages such as Chinese, that is, languages that do not have inflectional morphemes; agglutinating, or agglutinative, languages such as Turkic, capable of attaching only unambiguous morphemes, and inflective languages such as Indo-European or Semitic, capable of attaching multi-valued morphemes. A special, fourth group – incorporating languages in which words are able to combine into special words-sentences.

A huge contribution to the development of linguistic typology was made by Franz Bopp. He was the author of the first comparative historical grammar of Indo-European languages – “Comparative grammar of Sanskrit, Zend,

Armenian, Greek, Latin, Lithuanian, Old Slavonic, Gothic and German languages”, published in 1833-1853.

Bopp began his investigations with a conjugation system. He compares grammatical forms, taking Sanskrit as a basis. During the comparison Bopp found most of the grammatical matches. His goal was: by comparing the grammatical forms of different languages to find their least distorted, pristine form, as far as possible. Comparison of certified languages gives, in his opinion, the opportunity to go back to the “primitive state” in which grammatical forms can be explained and analyzed directly. In the process of comparing languages, Bopp takes the grammatical system as a basis, relies on the similarity of inflections when proving linguistic kinship, since the latter relate to elements that are rarely borrowed from one language to another.

The fourth period is associated with the development of linguistic typology as an independent discipline. It coincides with the twentieth century, the time of rapid extension of typological sciences on a global scale, characterized by the division of linguistic typology into various specific areas, such as structural, genetic, areal, comparative typology. In the 20th century, a new stage of linguistic typology begins. This stage is tightly connected with the name of American linguist – E.Sepir. He created a fundamentally new typology model based on a set of general characteristics (types and ways of expressing grammatical concepts, the technique of combining morphemes, the degree of complexity of grammatical forms). The multi-aspect and multi-character nature of this typology made it possible to build, instead of the traditional 3-4 types, a more flexible and fractional classification reflecting the polytypologism of languages, diatypical variation, and the presence of transitional languages.

As an example of more modern typological studies of the English, Russian and Turkic languages, we can cite the works of Dj.Buranov and V.D.Arakin. In his work – “Comparative typology of the English and Turkic languages” (1983) Dj.Buranov reveals general and distinct typological characteristics of the

languages being studied. It is noteworthy that the analysis is done at all language levels such as phonological, morphological, lexical, etc. More detailed typological analysis was done by V.D.Arakin in his work – “Comparative typology of the English and Russian languages” (1979). Besides comparative typological investigation of languages the connection of typology with other fields like language teaching methodology is described in this work.

Above we gave a very brief general description of development linguistic typology with a bias towards comparative typology. It should be emphasized that each section of the linguistic typology has its own specific history, is characterized by its own development path, and is a component of the general history of linguistic typology. Therefore, when periodizing the history of linguistic typology, it is necessary to take into account the specifics of the history of each language and its speakers, the formation history of areal and regional unions, as well as the history of systemic changes in the development dynamics of the compared languages.

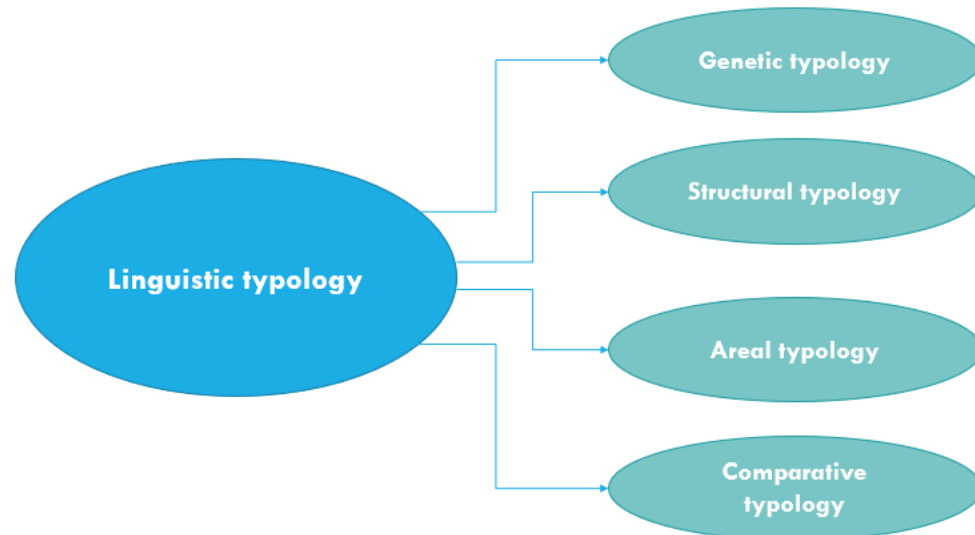
1. How many historical periods of linguistic typology are distinguished?
2. Explain the contribution of Schlegel brothers` to linguistic typology?
3. Who is the author of “Comparative grammar of Sanskrit, Zend, Armenian, Greek, Latin, Lithuanian, Old Slavonic, Gothic and German languages”?
4. Explain the importance of this work in the development of linguistic typology?
5. When were first real typological classifications performed?

§ 3. The branches of Linguistic typology

Main notions of the paragraph:

- 1. Division of Linguistic typology**
- 2. Genealogical typology**
- 3. Structural typology**
- 4. Areal typology**
- 5. Comparative typology**

Linguistic typology has different divisions based on the objectives of analysis. According to the object of study, linguistic typology may include the following sections:



Genealogical typology

In genealogical typology of languages, a classification is based on the genetic principle, that is, grouping related languages by origin into language families. Genealogical typology became possible only after the concept of linguistic kinship arose in 19th century and the principle of historicism was confirmed in linguistic research. It is formed as a result of the study of languages using the comparative-historical method.

The comparative historical method is used to establish the relationship of languages. This method is based on a comparison of languages and is aimed at elucidating their historical past. A comparative historical method is based on the laws of phonetic changes, on the laws and trends of morphological, word-formation, syntactic and lexical levels of a language. Using this method, scientists compare genetically identical words and forms of related languages with each other and restore, their original form, their archetypes, or proto-language.

To prove the genetic relationship of languages, the existence of systemic tendencies in the language development is analyzed. In this case, the specific criterion is the presence of systematic relationships like lexical and grammatical

similarities, and the presence of regular phonetic correspondences in the original material of languages. Moreover, when identifying lexical similarities, not all words should be used, but only those that express vital concepts (basic vocabulary): body parts (arm, leg), terms of kinship (mother, father), some actions (take, eat, give) etc. It can be easily noticed that in the structures of many languages of Europe there are common features, for example, Polish *woda*, Russian *вода*, English *water*, German *Wasser*, etc. Such common features can be found not only in geographically related but also geographically and historically unrelated languages. For example, the table of basic words in 11 different languages extracted from A.A.Reformatskiy illustrates the resemblance of such distinct related languages as English, Greek or ancient languages like Sanskrit and Avestian.

РУССКИЙ	СТАРΟΣЛАВЯНСКИЙ	ЛИТОВСКИЙ	САНСКРИТ	АВЕСТИЙСКИЙ	ГРЕЧЕСКИЙ	ЛАТИНСКИЙ	ФРАНЦУЗСКИЙ	ГОТСКИЙ	АНГЛИЙСКИЙ	НЕМЕЦКИЙ
мать (матери)	мати (матере)	móte móteris	mātár	mātar	metēr māter	māter	mète	—	mother	Mutter
сестра	сестра	seser	svāsar	hvahar	—	soror	soeu	soeur	sister	Schwester
дочь (дочери)	дъштеръ	dukter	duhitar	dugədar	thygāter	—	—	daūhtar	daughter	Tochter
две	дѣвъ	dvi	duvé	duve	dyo	duae	deux	twā	two	zwei
сто	съто	sim̃tas	catam	satem	hekatón	centum	cent	hund	hundred	Hundert
ты	ты	tu	tuvam	tuvəm	ty	tū (ты)	tu (тю)	Θu	thou	du
я (яз)	азъ	aš	ahám	azəm	ēgo	ego	je (жѣ)	ik	I (аӓ)	ich
нос	носъ	nósis	nasā	nāham	—	nāres	nez	—	nose	Nase
волк	влѣкъ	vīlkas	vṛkah	vəhrka	lýkos	lupus	loup	wulfs	wolf	Wolf

This kind of phonetic and semantic resemblance can be explained that all these structures go back to one common proto-language, the appearance of which has been successfully restored by scientists.

According to the genealogical classification, all related languages can make up a language family. Within a family, languages can have more or less common features, so they are grouped into branches. Inside the branch, the proximity between languages can also be different, so within the branch they are divided into subgroups. For instance, into Indo-European language family Slavic, Germanic, Romanic, Celtic, Indo-Iranian and other branches are included, and into Germanic group German, English, Swedish, Norwegian.

As a rule, proto-language of the language family was supposed to exist 6-7 thousand years ago. This time interval was taken from the example of the Indo-European language family, which is the largest in the world – about 3 billion people speak its languages. In recent decades, linguists have made attempts to implement a genealogical classification of languages for a time period earlier than 7 thousand years ago. In this case, it is supposed to talk about macro-families that unite several distinguished language families. One of such macro-families is the Nostratic macro-family, which, in addition to the Indo-European, includes the Altai, Ural, Afro-Asian and other language families. According to various estimates, it is assumed that a single Nostratic-parent language existed 10-20 thousand years ago⁸. In the following extract several words resembling phonetically and semantically in 3 language families are illustrated.

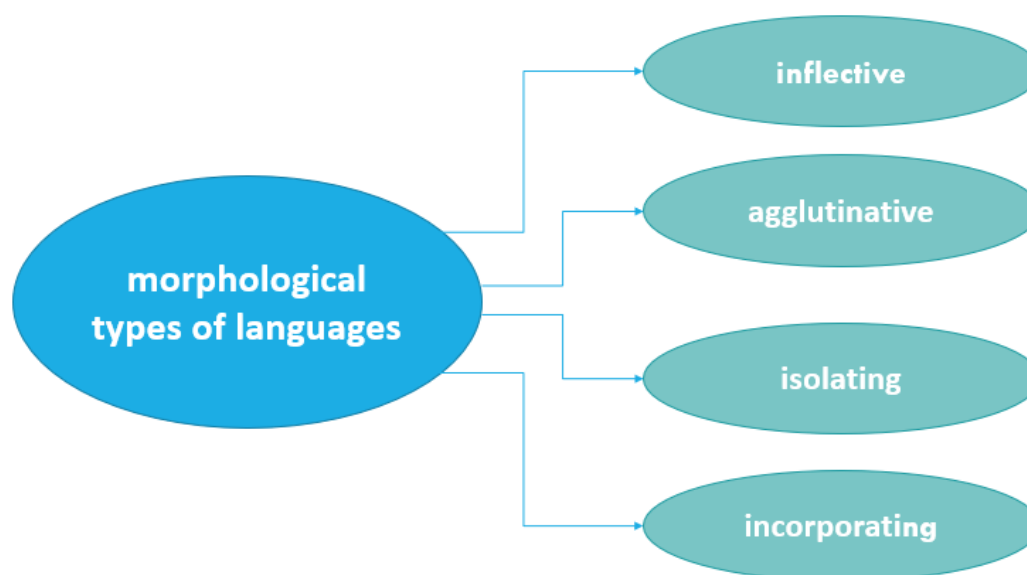
“Nostr. * bura 'snow (sand) storm': sem. * bwr 'sandstorm, wind' (Arabic barih 'hot wind with sand, Somali forā 'strong wind with dust'), Indo-European. *bher 'storm, to rage' (Russian. storm, Iceland. byrr 'tailwind'); Ural. *pura 'to blow' and *purka 'blizzard' (Fin. purku 'blizzard, winter storm'); alt. *bura / bora 'storm, blizzard' (Tatar. buran 'blizzard', Even. borga 'blizzard,

⁸https://spravochnick.ru/yazykoznanie_i_filologiya/sistemy_klassifikacii_yazykov/genealogicheskaya_klassifikaciya_yazykov/

snowstorm')⁹.

Structural typology

The purpose of structural typology of languages is establishing the similarities and differences of languages, which are rooted in the most common and most important properties of languages and are not dependent on their genetic affinity. Structural typology operates with classes of languages, united by those signs that are selected as reflecting the most significant features of morphological structure, for example, the method of connecting morphemes. Classical morphological types of languages include four linguistic types:



Inflectional languages

This type includes languages whose forms are formed by external and internal inflection. Inflexion is an indicator or ending of a complex of grammatical categories expressed in wordforms. Distinguished two types of inflexion: internal and external. The first is such a method of inflection, in which the forms of a word are formed by changing sounds inside the stem. So, for example, Arabian *qatala* - *he killed* is divided into *q-t-l* root and vowels *a-a-a*

⁹ Иллич-Свитыч В.М. Опыт сравнения ностратических языков. Введение. сравнительный словарь (b - K). - М., 1971. - С. 188-189.

expressing grammatical meanings: 3rd person singular past tense, whereas in *qutla* - *he was killed* vowels *u-i-a* indicates 3rd person singular past tense in passive voice. The second type of inflection is about using endings after the root expressing different grammatical meanings, for example, Russian *поле* - *field*, *поля* - *fields*, *полей* - *of fields*, etc.

The presence of external and internal inflection is an important stable sign of languages. Other such signs are: the multifunctionality of grammatical morphemes, the presence of fusion, phonetically unreasonable root changes, a large number of phonetically and semantically unmotivated types of declination and conjugation. Indo-European, Semitic-Hamitic languages belong to the inflective type; they also have signs of agglutinative languages. Inflective languages include languages that occupy a different place in the genealogical classification. Morphological typology does not take into account kinship. Its classification criterion is the form of the word change and the relationship of the word and sentence. The presence of affixes is also characteristic of agglutinative languages, but in these two morphological types of languages external flexion has significant differences. Flexion in inflected languages has the following features:

1) Morphological homonymy.

morpheme *-e* in German: a) is ending of first person singular verb in Present tense (*Ich lerne* – *I learn*); c) is added to the present or past verb stem to create a feminine noun (*haben/die Habe* – *to have/ belongings*); d) is ending of adjectives for feminine nouns in singular (*gute Mutter* – *a good mother*).

2) The synthetic nature of affixes is combination of several different values in one morpheme. In other words affixes of inflected languages are polysemantic (personal endings of verbs in German, for example, in the verb *machst* - *he does* the ending *-st* is one morpheme, combines 2 grammatical meanings: a) a second person; 2) in singular; in Russian *иду* - *I am coming* the ending *-y* indicates 3

grammatical meanings: 1) first person; 2) singular; 3) present tense; 4) indicative mood;).

3) Another sign of inflection is the expression of one grammatical meaning in different forms, it means, morphemes sometimes can be synonyms (the expression of plural number in German occurs using three suffixes and inner inflection - umlaut: *Nächte* (nights), *Häuser* (houses), *Menschen* (people), so as in English, external inflexion: *books*, inner inflection: *men*, and *children* is a rare exception, where to indicate the number both external and internal inflexions are used).

Inflectional languages are characterized by internal inflection. For instant, alternating consonants in the root: in German *schneiden* - *schnitt* - *geschnitten* (cut-cut-cut); spontaneous alternation of vowels in the root: in Russian *день-дня-днём* (day-day`s-in the daytime) or historically explained sound alternation: in English *goose* - *geese*, in German (umlaut): *Baum* - *Bäume* (tree-trees).

Agglutinative languages

Agglutinative languages include Finno-Ugric, Turkic, Altaic, Japanese, Korean, Eskimo, Indonesian, Bantu, etc. They are characterized by developed system of derivational and inflectional affixation. They are also characterized by the presence of affixes in the word: in them change words carried out using agglutinative affixes that attach to the root of the word. They don't have phonetically undefined allomorphy, there is a single type of declination and conjugation, lack of meaningful alternations.

Affixes of agglutinating languages are characterized by the following features:

1) Unambiguity: each affix has only one grammatical meaning. They are characterized by strict monosemantism, for example, in Khakass the morpheme - *чатхан* indicates only particle I: *аннанчатхан* (hunting), *хистанчатхан* (wintering), *атнинчатхан* (not firing).

2) The presence of several affixes in a word, for example, in Uzbek: *ota - otalar - otalaringis - otalaringizga* (*father-fathers-your fathers-to your fathers*), etc.

Compared to inflective languages, affixes of agglutinative languages have the significance of individual grammars. To typological features of agglutinative languages include: 1) a strong opposition of root and functional morphemes. The root elements are immutable, and functional ones are mutable. Besides, agglutinative languages are characterized only by external inflection, internal flexion is absent. In addition, the root, unlike in inflectional languages, exists as a separate word without functional morphemes. 2) The lack of tight soldering affix with the root. 3) Weak contrast parts of speech. 4) Few cases of coordination. 5) There is no grammatical synonymy and homonymy. 6) Few compound words.

In ambiguity of affixes many scientists see the cause of stability and productivity of agglutinative type; the latter is illustrated in the fact that the number of agglutinative languages around the world is growing. Despite significant differences, agglutinative and inflectional languages have and important common features that bring them together in a grammatical sense: this is the presence of a highly developed derivational and inflectional affixation.

Isolating languages

Most of the languages of Southeast Asia like Vietnamese, Chinese, Laotian, Cambodian are isolating languages. They do not have affixes, that is they are characterized by the absence of inflection. In other words, they have sentences composed entirely of free morphemes, where each word consists of only one morpheme. The word in such languages seems to be equal to the root, therefore it is isolated from other words in the sentence. For instant, in Mandarin Chinese properties such as plural form and past tense comprise their own morphemes and their own words: *wo men tan tchin le* (*we played the piano*), *wo* first person; *men* plural form; *tan* play; *tchin* piano; *le* indicator of present simple tense.

The main role in this case belongs to intonation and word order. Isolating languages frequently have a complex tonal system. For example, Chinese have 4 main tones (1.high tone, 2.rising tone, 3.falling then rising tone, 4.falling tone) whereas in Thai there are 5 (1.high tone, 2.mid tone, 3.low tone, 4.rising tone, 5.falling tone). For instance, in Chinese to change the meaning of a word different intonation tones are used:

morpheme	tone	meaning
yi	high tone	clothes
yi	rising tone	to suspect
yi	falling then rising tone	chair
yi	falling tone	meaning

Relations between words are expressed by word order, that is why for isolating languages word order is grammatically significant. Isolating languages usually have fixed word order. Because of the absence of morphological marking, grammatical distinctions can only be expressed by word order. Thai has SVO word order:

S	V	O
kháo	châwp	sàp-pà-rót
he	likes	pineapples

A characteristic feature of isolating languages is the inter-paradigmatic homonymy of the word. The isolating languages have the following features:

- 1) the brevity of the word;
- 2) weak discrimination parts of speech;
- 3) a fixed word order;
- 4) few complex words;
- 5) weak synonymy and homonymy in grammar.

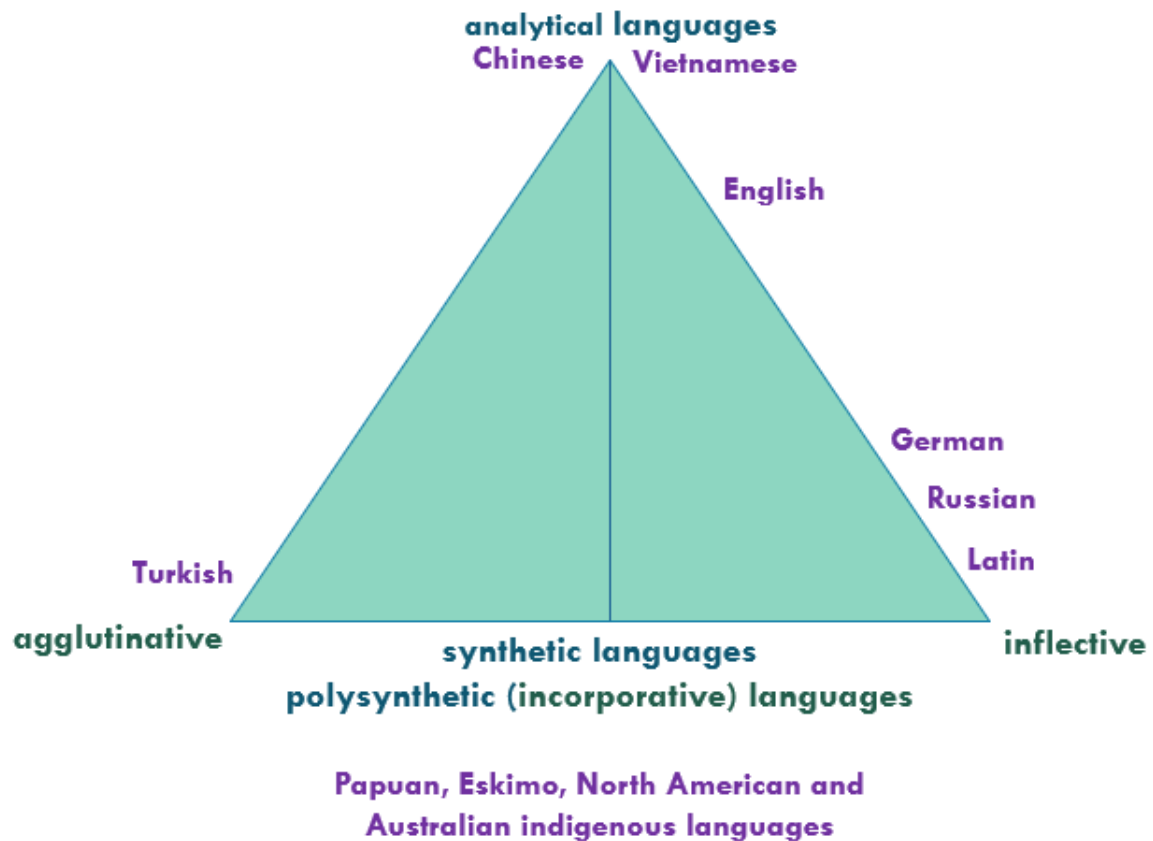
Incorporating languages

Incorporating languages are considered to be a unique type. Feature of this type of languages illustrated in the fact that a sentence is constructed as a complex word, that is, root words are combined into one general whole, which has a form of a word and a sentence at the same time. The whole is a sentence word, where the beginning is the subject, the end is the predicate, and the objects are incorporated in the middle with their definitions and circumstances. The main way to express grammatical relationships in them is incorporation. Incorporated languages include Paleo-Asian, Chukchi-Kamchatka languages, languages Indians of North America and some other languages. For example, in the Chukchi language sentence *t-i-kaa-nm-at-i-rkin* (*I am killing the deer*) consists of two roots (*-kaa-* deer and *-nm-* kill), two connective vowels *-i-*, first person singular *t-* and suffixes *-at-* (suffix of verb action) and *-rkin* (verb suffix of the present tense). Literally this sentence can be translated as *my deer killing: I + deer + kill + now*.

It should be noted that sometimes incorporating languages may have agglutinative and inflectional features too. Chukchi language as incorporative language is accompanied by agglutinative prefixation as well. They come closer to agglutinating according to the principle of combining morphemes, and with flexing – by the presence of internal inflection. Many languages are intermediate in morphological classification scale, combining signs of different types, for example, the languages of Oceania are characterized as amorphous-agglutinative.

The notion of analytic-synthetic- continuum

In structural typology of the world`s languages the inflectional properties of most languages can be defined in terms of analytic-synthetic continuum which can be illustrated by vertical line.



At one extreme of this continuum there is so-called analytic languages whose words have little or no internal structure. At the other extreme stand synthetic languages which do allow the analysis of their words into smaller parts or morphs. Analytic languages which are also referred to as isolating languages generally do not allow the segmentation of their words that is the words of an analytic language cannot or hardly be split into smaller units. Well-known examples of analytic languages are Vietnamese and Chinese (see p.).

Synthetic type, by contrast, do allow a segmentation of the words into morphs. An example from Turkish illustrates this: *Adamlarin* (men`s)

Adam	-lar	-in
stem	plural	genitive
		case

So Turkish is clearly a synthetic language. Another example is from German: *Menschen* (*humans*)

Mensch	-en
stem	plural nominative
	plural genitive
	plural dative
	plural accusative

The word normally can be subdivided at least into two morphs. So, German is synthetic language too. But the difference between these two languages is that the morphs in both cases have different function. In Turkish each affix performs one particular function. Whereas in German this is relatively difficult to understand what is the function of the morphs without context. The final suffix can denote the plural in the nominative case, plural genitive, plural dative, plural accusative and even the genitive singular at the same time. So, the difference between Turkish and German is that the bound morphs in Turkish are functionally unambiguous whereas in German the bound morphs exhibit several grammatical functions. Thus, depending on the function of the morphs two types of synthetic language can be defined: agglutinating and inflective (see p.). The agglutinating languages can be contrasted with the inflective languages such as German. There are no clear-cut boundaries between the morphs also several grammatical functions and properties are often fused together to give a single unsegmented morph. Most Indo-European languages are fusional, for example, Latin which is highly synthetic, Russian is also inflective. Russian is less synthetic than Latin but more synthetic than German. English is also defined as a synthetic inflective language. But it is known from the historical development of English that it is becoming more and more analytic. English has now many analytic words that cannot be subdivided any further: conjunctions prepositions pronouns etc. It

should be noted that it is often difficult to assign a language to agglutinating or inflective type as many synthetic languages have properties of both types.

Very special type of synthetic language is referred to as polysynthetic. Polysynthetic language is one in which verb, subject or object of a sentence may be included within a single word, in other words the main functional elements of clause structure are incorporated in one word and have no independent existence. In other words, they are called incorporating languages (see p.). There are three types of incorporating languages, for example the concatenative type. An example would be Eskimo where there is a heavy reliance on concatenation that is chaining of inflectional and derivational affixes in the formation of words or sentences. The second type – compositional type is characterized by stems incorporated into more complex constructions, examples can be found in the Papuan languages. Finally, slot type – a type of language that determines fixed positions for elements that can be obtained by members of the same paradigm. Slot type polysynthetic languages can be found among the North American and Australian indigenous languages¹⁰.

Areal typology

Among the existing typologies of languages, a special place is occupied by the areal typology, which is sometimes also called geographical, since it is carried out taking into account the territorial location of speakers of classified languages. Areal typology of languages refers to their division into certain classes on the basis of common features that arise in them as a result of long contacts of people speaking these languages. A distinctive feature of areal typology is that it does not apply to all the world languages, but only to the languages of individual regions, while genealogical and structural typologies cover all languages of the world. The language associations distinguished in the areal typology are always located within a proper geographical area, that is, they occupy adjacent territories,

¹⁰ Handke J. Language typology-Structural typology, 2012. Copyright: Virtual linguistic campus. www.linguistic-online.com. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Ka5oH7gHOlw>

while different groups of languages distinguished by genealogical and structural typologies, can be territorially divided, separated from each other by the territories where other type languages are spoken.

One of the main notions of areal typology are language unions. The language unions are a special type of linguistic community, which include various languages within the boundaries of the same geographical space. These languages are characterized by common structural features obtained over a long time of coexistence. For instance, East Asian language union was organized as a result of centuries-old relationships of Southeast Asian languages of different origin, including Thai and Vietnamese. These features were adopted from Chinese with its most expressive features, in particular monosyllables and meaningful tones. However, Thai and Vietnamese are not genetically related either to Chinese, or even to each other. Another example of language union is called Uzbek-Tajik language union. This Union is characterized by several interlingual exchanges both in lexical and grammatical terms.

Of particular interest are language contacts in a specific area or state, the emergence of hybrid languages and many etc. Controversial cases include problems associated with the determination of the nature of the English language variants (American, Australian, Asian, etc.), as well as the status of hybrid languages type – Pidgin English such as Chinglish, Hinglish, Konglish, Singlish and many others.

Comparative typology

Comparative typology, being one of the independent sections of the linguistic typology, considers a limited number of languages. Minimum comparison limits can be reduced to binaries. A comparative typology identifies cross-lingual invariants of a selected unit of the content plan. It should be noted that, despite the large number of works in this area, the main methods of analysis and general principles of comparison have not yet been developed. Comparison of two languages belonging to different structures and families, became possible

only after languages and subsystems of languages began to be compared. Comparative typology determines the typological similarities of the languages of the most diverse genetic groups. It may highlight some commonality, or isomorphism in a system of a limited number of languages. Due to the limited number of languages being considered, comparative typology cannot identify linguistic universals. However, the results obtained by studying systems of a limited number of languages can be used by structural typology to identify linguistic universals. Comparative typology develops a system of each language individually regardless of the variety of linguistic phenomena. The identification of the corresponding means of a comparative typology can be multi-tiered, while the structural typology proceeds from the unary complexity of isomorphic phenomena.

Comparison of two or more language systems is based on already known materials of the system of each compared language separately. In this case, the characteristic features of units of each level are taken into account both individually and in relation to units of other levels. The initial process in this case is to compare the systems of two languages. Usually two languages are selected from different family groups as representatives, and further the number of languages increases. Unfortunately, currently there are no generally accepted terms on comparative typology. For example, works on comparing language systems are called: “comparative”, “contrastive”, “confrontational”, “translational”, “characterological”, “typological”, and etc. The method adopted in the proposed study guide, is called comparative-typological and the corresponding section of the linguistic typology - comparative typology, which is opposed to structural, genetic and areal typology. In this work the term “comparative typology” selected in accordance with the academic discipline comparative typology of the native and studied foreign language. Between sections of linguistic typology there are many common features that serves as the

basis for complementarity and mutual enrichment of these sections. At the same time, each of the sections has their features, on the basis of which they differ.

The general goal of linguistic typology is the definition of language types, the identification of the main methods of comparing language systems. On this basis, genealogical and morphological classifications of world languages were carried out, such types of languages were identified, as inflectional, agglutinating, insulating and incorporating. Structural typology addresses general issues within an unlimited number of languages, genetic typology limited to comparing systems of genetically limited languages, the areal typology chooses the languages of a certain range, and finally, the comparative typology studies systems of a limited number of languages.

1. What are the characteristics of genealogical typology?
2. What are the characteristics of structural typology?
3. What types of languages are distinguished from the morphological point of view?
4. What languages are agglutinative?
5. Explain the difference between syntactic and analytical language type?

§4. Main notions of Linguistic typology

Main notions of the paragraph:

- 1. Etalon language**
- 2. Linguistic universals**

Etalon language

In terms of its tasks, linguistic typology uses different tools for comparison of languages. One of these tools is etalon language.

Etalon language is the most important element of the typological analysis. It allows you to define structural similarities and differences of languages being analyzed.

When comparing languages, to determine similarities and various traits one of the languages turns out to be a measuring instrument, and the other language, which is compared, is measured. If a foreign language is compared with a native

language, then it will be the quantity that is defined or described with respect to the native language, and the last, native language, is taken as a unit or standard. But the structure of the native language can be different, and therefore the results of comparison with the native language, for example, like Russian, will be one, and the type of Estonian will be different. Therefore, a comparison with the native language, taken as a standard, is not absolute and gives relative results, which cannot give reliable scientific grounds for any conclusions.

Typology deals with an unlimited number of languages. It can be genetically related languages (Indo-European), languages of geographical area (Balkan). Therefore, the scientific description of the language and definition of its typology will be unconditional if etalon language is found.

The etalon language contains statements describing two kinds of language properties: statements explaining the structure of all languages, and statements regarding universal definitions that distinguish languages. The etalon language represents all the languages of the world in one language.

Although, the concept of etalon language exists relatively recently, some languages has been already used as etalon language since the very time when linguistics appeared as a science. In fact, a model system used for describing the Latin language system later was used as etalon language for comparison of other languages. Various grammatical and other categories were studied in various languages through etalon language (mainly Latin). As a universal language, the etalon language has its own invariants in all languages, which serve as a kind of measurement unit for systems of compared languages. Invariant is a structural unit of language, an element of the abstract system of language that can be used for comparison.

It should be noted that in the modern typology, the types and quantities of the etalon language are not fully developed. But some systems that are used as a etalon language can be distinguished:

- 1) specially created artificial language or symbolic language, consisting of general artificial rules;
- 2) a specific language with a well-developed system;
- 3) phonetic, morphological, syntactic and other models;
- 4) Intermediary language for translation, etc.

The selected etalon language should have wide applicability, universality when comparing systems of various known and unknown languages. Depending on the scale or range of the object of study, the etalon language can be divided into the maximum etalon language and the minimum etalon language.

The maximum etalon language has an ability to be universal, has a relatively unlimited application in comparison, and mainly with its help linguistic universals are determined.

The minimum etalon language is a variant of the etalon language created specifically for practical purposes when comparing a limited number of languages, usually two (created, as a rule, within the genetic or areal group of languages).

With etalon to the comparative typology, the standard language guarantees the uniformity of descriptions of the languages being compared and ensures the use of the same terms.

Linguistic universals

If we compare the structure of several languages, for example, Russian, English, Uzbek, Turkish, then we can easily find a number of common features in them. All these languages have a system of vowels and consonants, specific system of cases, parts of speech, affix types and word order. Although, these categories have individual character in each language, they show that these categories are universal for most of the languages of the world.

In the vast majority of languages known to science, there is, for example, the present tense of the verb. But in the English language, there are two forms of the present tense, which oppose one form of the present tense of the Russian,

French and German languages. Nevertheless, the form of the present tense is common, universal, despite some deviations in the English language. We also cannot imagine a language that does not have words or in which sentences do not exist.

All these similar facts have universal linguistic character, reflecting certain patterns of structure inherent in all languages. Such laws, common to all languages, are called linguistic universals. In linguistic typology 2 main types of universals are distinguished: absolute universals (characteristic of all known languages, for example: every natural language has a system cases) and statistical universals (almost all languages have nasal consonants).

However, since absolute universals do not make it possible to identify specific features of individual languages, it has to be recognized that those typologies and facts of a linguistic nature that are not present in all, but in the vast majority of languages, acquire more importance for typology. So, in a number of Indo-European languages there is a system of cases, starting with 8 cases, as in the Marathi language in Central India, and ending with two cases, as in the Scandinavian languages - Swedish, Danish, Norwegian. On the other hand, Indo-European languages have a number of languages in which there is no declension in the noun system. It is Bulgarian, French, Spanish, English.

1. What is etalon language?
2. What is language universal?

Chapter 2. Comparative typology of English and Uzbek at different language levels

§1. Phonological level

Main notions of the paragraph:

- 1. The sections of linguistic typology**
- 2. The phonemic system of languages**
- 3. The concept of a phoneme**
- 4. Phonological opposition**
- 5. compile typological characteristics of English and Uzbek the phonological systems**

As it was mentioned above, linguistic typology has different divisions based on the objectives of the analysis. Depending on the nature of the comparison, it can be genetic, structural, areal, or comparative typology. Besides, the analysis can be performed within these typologies in different language levels. Linguistic typology operates at all levels of language without exception. In other words, it can compare units of phonological, morphological, lexical, syntactic levels, and several others as well. So, concerning the levels of language linguistic typology may have the following sections: 1) phonological typology; 2) morphological typology; 3) syntactic typology; 4) lexical typology.

Phonological typology implies a comparison of phonological units of languages. It deals with the issues of distinguishing phonological differential features, determining their universality, studying the phonological structure of languages, classifying languages based on their phonological features, the definition of the phonemic composition of the languages of the world and many others. Each language has its peculiar system of sounds. So, it is necessary to determine the most basic units of phonological classification, before conducting a phonological typology of different languages.

The basic unit of the phonological level of the language is the phoneme. The concept of a phoneme is associated with the development of an

understanding of language as a holistic system. A phoneme is the smallest phonetic unit of a language used to distinguish between words and word forms. They perform two functions that are very essential for communication purposes: 1) the constitutive function, consisting in the fact that phonemes are the necessary building material for units of morphological and other levels (without phonemes, neither morpheme nor word cannot exist); 2) distinctive function, which makes it possible to distinguish one morpheme from another, one word from another, which is also of great importance for communication purposes.

World languages have very diverse phonological system and phonemic compositions. Therefore, they are analyzed classified according to various criterion. Languages can differ in the number of phonemes. The number of phonemes in different languages ranges from 14 (in some indigenous languages of Australia) to 70 (in the Caucasian languages).

The difference in the differential features of phonemes leads to a different ratio of vowels and consonants in a particular language. In some languages, the consonant system is predominant, characterized by a variety of consonant phonemes and a relatively small number of vowel phonemes. Such languages are called consonant languages. In other languages, there is a fairly diverse system of vowel phonemes with a limited number of consonants (the Ubykh language is one of the Abkhaz-Adyghe languages, there are only two vowels (closed [ə] and open [a], which can acquire various timbre qualities, allophones, and about 80 consonants phonemes). Languages with such a composition of phonemes are called vocal language languages.

The phonemic system of languages can also differ in a number of features. For instant, in the English, Arabic, Turkmen languages there are so-called interdental phonemes - [θ] and [ð]. In such languages as Uzbek and Arabic noisy consonant of the deep back row - [ɣ] is represented. In Japanese [r] is of particular interest being an apical postalveolar mostly sounds like [l] because of the tendency to lateralize the sound. In contrast to these languages, there are a number

of languages where vowels are distinguished according to a long and a short correlation, as in English and Arabic.

It follows from what has been said that the inventory of phonemes, vowels and consonants, their number and composition can be recognized as a general criterion for the typological characteristic of phonological systems of the languages being compared. The structure of the phoneme inventory is important for establishing the typology of the corresponding language. One of the components of the structure should be considered the quantity and quality of oppositions and correlations.

Phonological opposition refers to the opposition of two or more phonemes in order to identify the presence or absence of any feature. Depending on this, L.S.Ivanova and S.L.Vasilyeva identified various types of oppositions of phonemes.

Oppositions are paired (binary)	
proportional	isolated
English, German, Russian, French [b] : [p] = [d] : [t] – voiced / voiceless French [ɛ̃] : [ɛ] = [ã] : [a] – nasal / non-nasal Russian [n] : [n'] = [d] : [d'] – hardness / softness	English, German [r] : [l]
Three-membered opposition (ternary)	

Stepped (degree):	Norwegian [u – u' – ü]	}	Language advancement
	French [me – e – ε]		
	German [u – o – O]	}	Tongue lift
Chain:	English [m – n – ŋ]		Different locations and active organ
	Russian [p – t – k]		
Bundles:	[t] ← ↓ → [s] [ts]		An affricate is a phoneme that combines an attack like a vocal consonant and an indentation of a slotted consonant.

1. By the number of phonemes with common differential features and opposed by one differential feature, one-dimensional and multi-dimensional oppositions are distinguished. One-dimensional oppositions are inherent in only two phonemes of this system. For instant, in Russian phonemes [i]-[u] having the only differential feature upper rise of tongue, contrasted in labialization and non-labialization. In multidimensional oppositions, general differential features are inherent in a larger number of phonemes. So, the general differential features – explosive, deaf, hard in phonemes [n]-[t]-[k] are contrasted at the place of formation.

2. If the relationship between members of one-dimensional opposition is also observed among members of some other oppositions or a number of the oppositions, they are called proportional. For example, contrast of phonemes in deafness and voicedness is inherent in many other phonemes. In Uzbek, Russian, English, German and French there is a contrast in deafness and voicedness: [b]-[p], [z]-[s], [d]-[z], etc. The opposition can also be isolated, because the relation between phonemes is not repeated in any other pair of phonemes. The phonological structure of the Arabic language is characterized by a binary opposition of simple and emphatic connective phonemes: [s]-[s], [h]-[h], [t]-[t] and [d]-[d], which we do not find in many other languages, for example in English, German, Russian.

3. Multidimensional oppositions are represented by three types: stepped, chain and bundle oppositions. For instant, stepped opposition of [i]-[e]-[ɛ] is characterized by the degree of tongue lift in French. The chain oppositions are characterized by different places of formation and active speech organs, as in English phonemes [m]-[n]-[ŋ] or Russian [n]-[t]-[k]. Bundle oppositions occur in the affricates: [t] ← [ts] → [s] in English and Turkmen.

As V.D.Arakin states, some one-dimensional proportional oppositions, characterized by the same features by which phonemes are opposed, make up correlations¹¹. For example, the extent of hardness and softness correlation in Russian: [k – k`], [g – g`], [h – h`], [ts – tʃ], [ʃ – ʃʲ], [ʒ – ʒ`].

Additionally, to the opposition and correlation discussed above, there is another notion called neutralization, that is, removal of a feature distinguishing one phoneme from another in binary opposition, for example, neutralization of the sign of sonorousness in all voiced phonemes in the final position in the word, which is especially characteristic of the Russian and German languages, but is not represented either in English or in French:

¹¹ Аракин В.Д. Типология языков и проблема методического прогнозирования. Учебное пособие. – М.: ВЫСШАЯ ШКОЛА. 1989.

Language	word	transcription
Russian	гараж	[garaʃ]
French	garage	[gara:ʒ]
English	garage	[gæra:ʒ]

In Russian and German, neutralization is observed in two cases:

- 1) neutralization of the opposition voiced and non-voiced, when the distinctive sign of voicing is removed;
- 2) neutralization of the opposition voiced - inaudibility, when a sign of voicedness is added to the second member of the opposition:

Language	word	translation	transcription
Russian	лоб	forehead	[lop]
German	Staub	dust	[ʃtaop]
German	Zug	train	[tsu: k]

Apart from abovementioned characteristics of phonological systems, special attention is given to the phoneme distribution and the usage frequency of a particular class of phonemes of the corresponding language. So, in Russian and in Belarusian there is a phoneme [v] which has a completely different distribution in these languages. In Russian, due to the inherent neutralization of final consonants in this language, [v] is realized at the end of a syllable or word in its deaf version [f]: *зов (call)* [zof]; in the Belarusian language, the phoneme [v] is implemented in the same position in its half-vowel version [ø]: *леб (lion)* [leø].

Finally, in a set of features that are used to determine the typology of languages at the phonological level, should include those functions that perform certain classes of phonemes in the structure of a given language. For example, in

Arabic, the main lexical meaning is given by consonants: [c-n-d-q] (*dower chest*), whereas, grammatical meaning is expressed by vowels: [c-a-n-d-i-q] in singular (*dower chest*), [c-u-n-d-u-q] in plural (*dower chests*). In contradistinction to Arabic, in Uzbek like in many Turkic languages vowel phonemes do not carry any grammatical load, but perform exclusively as distinctive unit: *bor* (*exist*) [bor], *ber* (*give*) [ber], *bur* (*turn*) [bur], *bir* (*one*) [bir], *bo`r* (*chalk*) [bør].

To summarize, one can say that indicators which can be considered typologically determining at the phonological level are: 1) quantitative and qualitative inventory of phonemes, 2) the number and quality of oppositions and correlations, 3) cases of neutralization of phonemes, 4) distribution of phonemes, 5) functions phonemes in the word.

1. Concerning the levels of language, how many sections does linguistic typology have?
2. What does phonological deals with?
3. What languages are called vocal language languages?
4. What does the notion of phonological opposition refer to?

Typology of vowels

The abovementioned indicators make it possible to compile typological characteristics of the phonological system of two languages – native (Uzbek) and studied (English). In any language, as observations on languages show, one can easily be convinced that languages of our country are divided into two groups according to the simplicity or complexity of vowels system. English has a very complex subsystem of vowel phonemes. The inventory of vowel phonemes in English is more than 20. Whereas Uzbek vowel system is characterized by a limited number of phonemes.

In addition to the criterion mentioned above, it is necessary to use the following criteria arising from the very essence of the vowel subsystem: 1) a sign

of a row, 2) a sign of a rise, 3) a sign of longitude or brevity, 4) sign of lip position, 5) sign of diphthong and monophthong.

For the subsystem of English vowels, the following are distinguished:

1) according to a sign of a row:

3 front vowels: [i:], [e], [æ];

1 vowel of the anterior advanced row: [i];

2 middle vowels: [ɜ:], [ə];

3 back vowels: [ɒ], [ɔ:], [u:];

3 vowels of the rear advanced row: [ɑ:], [ʌ], [ʊ];

2) according to a sign of a rise:

2 vowels of the upper lift, narrow: [i:], [u:];

2 vowels of the upper lift, wide: [i], [ʊ];

2 medium vowels, narrow: [e], [ɜ:];

1 vowel of medium rise, wide: [ə];

2 lower vowels, narrow: [ʌ], [ɔ:];

2 lower vowels, wide: [ɒ], [ʌ], [æ],

3) a sign of length or brevity

6 short vowels: [ʌ], [ə], [æ], [i], [e], [ɔ], [ʊ]

5 long vowels: [ɑ:], [ə:], [i:], [ɔ:], [u:]

4) sign of presence or lack of labialization

1) rounded lip position: [ʊ];

2) spread lip position: [i];

3) neutral lip position: The sound English people produce when they are hesitating (er...);

5) sign of diphthong and monophthong

Monophthong is a vowel made within one stressed syllable. When pronouncing monophthong, the organs of speech retain a certain fixed position. There are 12 monophthongs in English: [i:], [i], [ʊ], [u:], [e], [ə], [ɛ:], [ɔ], [ɔ:], [æ], [ʌ], [a:].

Diphthong - a combination of two vowels, pronounced without a pause in one stressed syllable. There are 8 diphthongs in English: [ei], [ai], [ɔi], [au], [əu], [iə], [ɛə], [uə]. In English, there is also a combination of three vowels, pronounced without a pause in one stressed syllable, which is called triphthong. In English, there are 2 triphthongs: [aiə] and [auə].

In contrast to the English vowel subsystem, the Uzbek language has relatively simple system of vowels (only 6). In Uzbek, monophthongs and diphthongs are not distinguished, and there is no correlation of long and short vowels. Accordingly, the typology of vowels is carried out according to 3 parameters of distinguishing vowels: 1) a sign of a row, 2) a sign of a rise, 3) sign of presence or lack of labialization.

1) a sign of a row:

2 front vowels: [i], [e];

1 middle vowels: [ø];

3 back vowels: [a], [u], [o];

2) according to a sign of a rise:

2 vowels of the upper lift, narrow: [i], [u],

2 vowel of medium rise, wide: [e], [ø];

2 lower vowels, wide: [a], [o];

4) sign of presence or lack of labialization

1) rounded lip position: [ø], [u], [o];

2) spread lip position: [a], [e], [i];

Typology of consonants

English and Uzbek subsystem of consonant phonemes can be compared, as particular properties of consonants exist in both languages. These properties are general in nature and therefore can serve as criterion for typological comparisons. These criteria are as follows: 1) the place of articulation, 2) the composition of phonemes, 3) the opposition in voiced and voiceless phonemes.

There are 8 articulation zones in the English consonant subsystem: 1) bilabial, 2) labiodental, 3) dental, 4) alveolar, 5) palate-alveolar, 6) palatal, 7) velar, 8) glottal.

- 1) bilabial: [b], [p], [m];
- 2) labiodental: [f], [v];
- 3) dental: [θ], [ð];
- 4) alveolar: [t], [d], [s], [z], [n], [l], [r];
- 5) palate-alveolar: [ʃ], [ʒ], [dʒ], [tʃ];
- 6) palatal: [j];
- 7) velar: [k], [g], [ŋ];
- 8) glottal: [h].

According to the composition of phonemes in classes, there are 6 types of consonants: 1) plosive, 2) affricates, 3) fricatives, 4) nasal, 5) lateral, 6) approximate.

- 1) plosive: [p-b], [t-d], [k-g];
- 2) affricates: [tʃ], [dʒ];
- 3) fricatives: [f], [v], [s], [z], [h], [ʃ], [ʒ], [θ], [ð];
- 4) nasal: [n], [ŋ], [m];
- 5) lateral: [l];
- 6) approximate: [w], [r], [j].

The opposition in voiced and voiceless phonemes based on the participance of voice in the process of sound production.

- 1) voiced consonants: [m], [n], [l], [v], [z], [b], [g], [d], [r], [w], [j], [ʒ], [dʒ], [ð], [ŋ].

2) voiceless consonants: [f], [s], [p], [k], [h], [t], [ʃ], [tʃ], [θ].

Although English and Uzbek system of consonants have many features in common, some differences also occur. So, according to the place of articulation, consonants are divided into followings:

- 1) bilabial: [b], [p], [m];
- 2) labiodental: [f], [v];
- 3) front tongue: [t], [d], [s], [z], [n], [l], [r]; [ʃ], [dʒ], [tʃ], [ts];
- 4) mid tongue: [j];
- 5) back tongue: [k], [g], [ŋ];
- 6) deep back tongue: [q], [ɣ], [x].
- 7) glottal: [h].

However consonant division according to the composition of phonemes in classes and voiced/voiceless opposition the indicators of the Uzbek language are similar to English:

- 1) plosive: [p-b], [t-d], [k-g], [q];
- 2) affricates: [ts], [tʃ];
- 3) fricatives: [f], [v], [s], [z], [h], [x], [ʃ], [dʒ], [j], [ɣ];
- 4) nasal: [n], [ŋ], [m];
- 5) lateral: [l];
- 6) approximate: [r].

1) voiced consonants: [m], [n], [l], [v], [z], [b], [g], [d], [r], [j], [dʒ], [ŋ], [ɣ], [ts];

2) voiceless consonants: [f], [s], [p], [k], [h], [t], [ʃ], [tʃ], [q], [x];

Based on the analysis of consonant systems of English and Uzbek, it can be said that both languages have general and at the same time original characteristics. In Uzbek consonant subsystem, there are deep back tongue consonants - [q], [ɣ], [h] and the correlation of hard and soft glottal consonant [h]-[x]. Whereas in English this kind of correlations are absent. In Uzbek dental

consonants - [θ], [ð] don't exist. Alveolar and palate-alveolar consonants are united into a group of front tongue consonants.

The establishment of typological properties of phonological systems of comparable languages also includes the determination of typological characteristics of super-segment phonological means, which include stress and intonation. A stress is a stable set of structural-acoustic features that characterize this stress as a super-segment phonological tool. Intonation, as well as stress, refers to the super-segmented phonological means of the language. It is constantly present in the speech process and, superimposed on the linear structure of speech, serves as an important means of distinguishing the meaning of a speech chain perceived by ear. Unfortunately, the insufficient knowledge of certain aspects of stress and intonation in both English and Uzbek limits the possibility of developing clear and sufficiently complete criteria that could serve as a basis for determining intonation units as a basis for distinguishing these notions in a comparative sense. Especially the characteristics of stress and intonation in the Uzbek language need careful and deep investigation within the language itself. The results of this investigation can serve as a basis for detailed comparative typology of super-segment phonological means of the two languages.

1. Explain the inventory of vowel phonemes in English.
2. What are the parameters of distinguishing vowels in Uzbek?
3. How many articulation zones there are in the English consonant subsystem?
4. What are the general and original characteristics of English and Uzbek consonant systems?

§2. Morphological level

Main notions of the paragraph:

- 1. The basic unit of the morphological level is a morpheme**
- 2. Category of case**
- 3. Category of number**

4. Category of degree

5. Category of tense

6. Category of voice

The next level with general categories in both English and Uzbek that can be typologically compared is morphological. This level considers the structure of a word, the forms of inflection, the ways of expressing grammatical meanings, and also the assignment of words to a specific part of speech. The basic unit of the morphological level is the morpheme – the smallest structural unit having a bilateral character.

The morpheme is a stable sequence of phonemes making up its material side, the content of the morpheme, or its semantics, usually consists of a certain set of minimal semantic elements called semes. Morphemes can be of two kinds: it can be a non-derivative basis containing the meaning of the word – root morpheme; it can be affix morphemes that carry particular functions. Affix morphemes can also be of two kinds: 1) inflectional morphemes expressing the relationship between words in a phrase or sentence: a morpheme of comparative degree *-er* in English (*fast-er*); 2) word-building morphemes used either to form a new word: a morpheme of profession *-chi* in Uzbek (*o`qituv-chi* – *teacher*).

The combination of the root morpheme with the affix morpheme builds a word form: degree of adjectives *soft/soft-er/the soft-est* or past form of verb *look/look-ed* in English; the forms of noun in different cases *uy/uy-ni/uy-ning/uy-ga/uy-dan* in Uzbek. An amount of word forms, reflecting the system of inflectional changes, forms a paradigm that serves as an inflection model of a whole group of words included in this part of speech. For instant, the declension paradigm of adjective degrees, the conjugation paradigm of verbs, the declension paradigm of noun in cases, etc.

The set of paradigms characterizing a given class of words, is called grammatical expression of the most common properties, or characteristics, which owns particular part of speech in grammatical point of view. All these properties

or characteristics form some general grammatical term, commonly called grammatical category.

Based on all of the above, it can be concluded that the morphological level of the tongue is composed of the following values: morphemes, containing bundles of elementary semantic quantities – seme, word forms, expressing specific relationships between words, paradigms, which are a stable set of relationships, and finally-grammatical categories – general grammatical concepts realized materially in classes of words.

From the grammatical point of view particular word classes are clarified as parts of speech. Parts of speech are rather general typological universals and used to compare a lot of languages. Almost all languages have special classes of words such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, pronouns, numerals, etc. Each part of speech has its specific grammatical categories that differ from language to language due to the morphological type of languages. However, the most general grammatical categories serve as a criterion for comparative typology of languages despite of their morphological form. These are the categories of noun (case, number, person), adjective (grade), verb (tense), etc.

Category of case

Among the various grammatical categories that characterize several parts of speech, the case category is quite an important place. The category of case is usually understood as grammatical category representing the unity of the value of the relationship of the designated subject to other objects.

The form of the case category expressed by affix morpheme and root morpheme inputs word forms a certain content. The set of case forms presented in the change system forms the paradigm of the declension of a given word.

It is known that, the number of cases and their semantics differ significantly in languages (there are 18 cases in Estonian, 6 in most of the Turkic languages, no cases at all in French and Italian) and this fact can be considered as one of the criteria for the typological characteristics of the morphological structure of a

given language. The number of cases and their semantics also serve as an indicator for assigning a particular language to a particular typological group.

Being an agglutinative language Uzbek has very complicated case system. This system is characterized by 6 different case categories:

cases		affixes
1	nominative	-
2	possessive	-ning
3	accusative	-ni
4	dative - directive	-ga
5	ablative	-dan
6	locative	-da

The cases in the Uzbek language express syntactic relations in a phrase and a sentence using case affixes. Case affixes are attached directly to the base of the noun after the pronoun-possessive affixes and the plural affix of the declined noun, as the case affixes express the “final” syntactic relations of names in the phrase and sentence: *мактаб-ни* (school + accus. case affix/school), *мактаб-им-ни* (school + pronoun-possessive affix + accus. case affix/my school), *мактаб-лар-ни* (school + s+accus. case affix/schools), *мактаб-лар-им-ни* (school + plural form affix + pronoun-possessive affix + accus. case affix/my schools), etc.

In Uzbek besides nouns, other parts of speech, such as numerals and pronouns, are also conjugated in case:

cases	personal pronoun	noun	numerals
nominative	men (I)	qush (a bird)	bir (one)
possessive	mening (my)	qushning (bird`s)	birning (one`s)
accusative	meni (me)	qushni (a bird)	birni (one)
dative - directive	menga (to me)	qushga (to a bird)	birga (to one)

ablative	mendan (from me)	qushdan (from a bird)	birdan (from one)
locative	menda (in me)	qushda (in a bird)	birda (in one)

Unlike the Uzbek system of cases, the English case category has wholly different characteristics. There are two categories of case: nominative and possessive, in which only nouns denoting animate objects and nouns of the semantic field “time” can be conjugated. Thus, from the typological characteristic viewpoint, all English nouns are divided into two classes: words denoting inanimate objects that do not have the case category, and words denoting living objects and time, having two cases – nominative and possessive.

cases		noun denoting animate objects	nouns of time
1	nominative	women	century
2	possessive	women`s	century`s

Summarizing above-mentioned facts, a comparison table of the case category in both languages can be constructed:

Uzbek	English
1. The presence of 6 cases in the system of nouns	1. The presence of 2 cases in the system of nouns
2. The presence of 6 cases in personal pronouns and ordinal numbers	2. The absence of the category of case in any other parts of speech
3. The absence of the living objects class separation	3. Separation of a class of living objects using apostrophe `s

It should be noted that some sources distinguish 3 or even 4 categories of case in modern English: 1. nominative; 2. accusative; 3. genitive or 1. subjective; 2. objective; 3. possessive; 4. vocative. This kind of distinction is based on a purely syntactical function of parts of speech but not their morphological ones. Moreover, some parts of speech have separate forms in case categories. So, in English, nouns do not change their forms in any of the cases other than the possessive case (*Tom`s*). Pronouns, however, have separate forms in the possessive (*he/his*) and the objective cases (*he/him*).

Category of number

Grammatical category of number is inquired both in English and in Uzbek. This category expresses linguistic representation of the objective category of quantity.

The category of number, reflecting the quantitative relations between real objects, is tightly related to the class of nouns. It is realized through the opposition of two forms: plural form and singular form, and depends on the implicit grammatical meaning of countableness and uncountableness. So, the number category is realized only within the subclass of countable nouns. However, this category has a different representation in world languages. So, for example, there are languages in which the category of a number is expressed not only by a plural, but also by a dual, a triple and a quadral number. Tolomako, Lihir, Manam and Tok Pisin (though only in its pronouns) have trial number¹². Whereas in some languages the grammatical distinction between singular and plural does not exist at all: American Indian languages.

In English and Uzbek, the category of number is represented by the semes of singularity and plurality, which find their expression in the singular and plural

¹² Wilfrid Rotge, Plurality in English and other languages: does it add up? *Anglophonia/Sigma* [Online], 13 (26) 2009, Online since 13 December 2016, connection on 14 June 2020. URL: <http://journals.openedition.org/anglophonia/875>; DOI: <https://doi.org/10.4000/anglophonia.875>

forms. In both languages the plurality seme is represented by the morphemes of the numbers: -s (-es) in English and -lar in Uzbek.

However, some differences in the representation of the singular and plural forms nouns occur as well. Being flectional language English can express the plural form by internal flexion: *man-men*, *mouse-mice*, etc. One more original characteristics of English is that significant group of nouns in which only the plurality of seme is represented, which finds its expression in the corresponding morphemes of the number mentioned above. These are primarily nouns denoting paired or compound objects: *scissors*, *panties*, *glasses*, *pajamas*, *gloves*, *binoculars headphones*, etc. Also, there are some nouns that are used only in singular form: *money*, *public*, *work*; some nouns are used only in the singular, even though they have the plurality morphemes -s: *mathematics*, *measles*, *news*.

In both English and Uzbek there is a group of nouns that are used only in singular form, they are the nouns denoting abstract notions, names of professions (spheres), names of products, chemical elements: *love-muhabbat*, *agriculture-qishloq xo`jaligi*, *flour-un*, *iron-temir*, etc. Also, pronouns and verbs are conjugated in number in both languages, but as an agglutinative language – Uzbek has a more complicated categorization of verbs in number.

number	Uzbek singular	English singular	Uzbek plural	English plural
I person	men boraman	I go	biz boramiz	we go
II person	sen borasan	you go	siz borasiz	you go
III person	u boradi	he/she/it goes	ular boradilar	they go

Category of degree

The main means of expressing the category of degree are adjectives. According to their typological characteristics, adjectives in both English and Uzbek differ significantly from each other. In English, there are three series of forms of formation of degrees of comparison: 1) with morphemes *-er* for forms of comparative degree and *-est* for superlatives, is used only for monosyllabic and some two-syllable adjectives: *tall-taller-the tallest*; 2) by special words *more, the most* added to a positive degree of adjectives for multisyllabic adjectives: *beautiful-more beautiful-the most beautiful*; 3) by the way of internal flexion in the root of adjectives: *good-better-the best*.

In Uzbek there is only one way of formation of comparison degrees: with morpheme *-roq* for forms of comparative degree, and by adding special words *eng/juda* to a positive degree of adjectives for superlatives: *katta (big) - kattaroq(bigger) - eng katta (the biggest)*.

The results of this analysis show that both languages use synthetic and analytical methods for the formation of degrees of comparison.

Category of tense

In most of the well-known languages, there are tools that allow the speaker to arrange the action in time. The most important of these means are verbs, in other words – verbal tenses. Regarding English, it is traditionally believed that there are four forms for expressing, for example, the present tense - Present Indefinite, Present Continuous, Present Perfect and Present Perfect Continuous. However, these forms are not exclusively temporary: they indicate not only the location of the action, state, process or events in time, but also indicate their internal structure, their extent, prevalence in time.

According to U.Yusupov the category of tense shows the relations of the time of the action denoted by the verb to the moment of speech¹³. He indicates that in English this category is represented by a system of three-member

¹³ Yusupov U.K. Contrastive Linguistics of the English and the Uzbek Languages. –T., 2013

opposition: past tense - future tense - present tense, whereas, in Uzbek it is represented by a system of two-member opposition: past tense - non-past tense. Non-past tenses depending on the context of speech situation can express both present and future time. As in English grammatical form contains several grammatical meanings, forms are many in number. They are: Present Indefinite, Past Indefinite, Future Indefinite, Future Indefinite in The Past, Present Continuous, Future Continuous, Future Continuous in The Past, Present Perfect, Past Perfect, Future Perfect, Future Perfect in The Past, Present Perfect Continuous, Past Perfect Continuous, Future Perfect Continuous, Future Perfect Continuous in The Past.

As English has both synthetic and analytic features, it can use affixes (-ed, -ing) and auxiliary verbs (to be, to have, etc.) at the same time to form different tenses. For instant, in the sentence *I have finished the work*, the present perfect tense has a structure of – subject + auxiliary verb (have) + verb (finish) + ed + object.

In Uzbek grammatical categories of tense are not less complicated, where each tense has its variations. A detailed classification of Uzbek verb tenses is presented V.V.Reshetov¹⁴. In his opinion in Uzbek there are three main groups of the verb tense: The Present tense; Past tense; The Future tense groups. The Present tense is divided into two groups: Present Indefinite and Present Continues, where Present Continuous has four types of representation. The Past tense is divided into two varieties: the form of Past Defined and form of Past narrative. In their turn, these forms are divided into more detailed subdivisions, so Past Definite has two forms and Past Narrative has four forms of representation. Future tense is also divided into two types. The first is the estimated future tense and the second is certain future tenses.

¹⁴ Решетов В.В. Основы фонетики, морфологии и синтаксиса узбекского языка. – Т.: Учитель, 1965.

All of the above tense forms have their special affixes that perform a single grammatical function that is, represent a certain time for the execution of an action. For instant, first type of past narrative tense – the long past tense is formed by combining past participle affix *-gan* with an insufficient verb *emoq* in the form of the past definite.

verb	affix	Person					
		singular			plural		
		I	II	III	I	II	III
ishla	-gan	edim	eding	edi	edik	edingiz	edilar

The second type of past narrative tense – past participle or indefinite tense is formed by adding complete personal affixes to past participle affixes *-b,-ib*.

verb	affix	Person					
		singular			plural		
		I	II	III	I	II	III
ishla	-b	-man	-san	-di	-miz	-siz	-dilar

The third type of past narrative tense – past imperfect tense is formed by composing the participle affixes *-b,-ib* with the insufficient verb *emoq* in the form of past definite.

verb	affix	Person					
		singular			plural		
		I	II	III	I	II	III
ishla	-b	edim	eding	edi	edik	edingiz	edilar

The fourth form of past narrative tense – past multiple-long time is formed by composing the participle of the future tense *-r*, *-ar* with an insufficient verb *emoq* in the form of the past definite.

verb	affix	Person					
		singular			plural		
		I	II	III	I	II	III
ishla	-r	edim	eding	edi	edik	edingiz	edilar

The analysis of these examples shows that in Uzbek synthetic and analytic ways are used as well. The combination of affixes (*-b*, *-r*, *-gan*, etc.) and insufficient verb *emoq*, in some sense can be considered as a combination of synthetic and analytic ways of expressing grammatical categories.

Another grammatical category in English and Uzbek verbs is the categories of number and person, which are of great importance in the comparative typology of both languages. The category of Person of verbs expresses the relation between the speaker, the person or persons addressed and another person or thing while the category of number shows the quantity of the persons or things expressed by the subject.

The categories of person and number of Uzbek verbs are more developed than those of the English. Since Uzbek is an agglutinative language, its verbs (as well as nouns) are carefully conjugated by the person and the number. Where as in English these categories are found only in such verbs as *to be* and *to have*. In other verbs this category is represented as an affix *-s* (*-es*), only for third person in singular.

verb (Present tense)	person					
	singular			plural		
	I	II	III	I	II	III

be	am	are	is	are	-	-
have	-	-	has	-	-	-
stay	-	-	-s	-	-	-
kela	-man	san	-di	-miz	-sizlar	-dilar

Summing up, it can be argued that the considered grammatical categories are universal for the Uzbek and English languages. Despite the fact that these two languages are not related, their analysis shows that they have a number of similarities.

1. What is morpheme? What functions does it have?
2. What does the expression – grammatical category mean?
3. What are the characteristics of Uzbek system of cases?
4. What are the characteristics of English case system?
5. Explain the category of number in English and Uzbek.
6. How does compared languages use synthetic and analytical methods for the formation of degrees of comparison?
7. What are the differences of tense representation in English and Uzbek?

Category of voice

Comparative typological analysis of the category of voice in compared languages, as well as analysis of the category of tense, is fraught with serious difficulties. They stem primarily from a different understanding of the very essence of this category. So, some grammarians define the voice as grammatical, others as lexical classification category of verb. In some grammar books, the voice expresses the attitude of the verb actions to the subject, in the understanding of others - the voice expresses subject-object relations. Still others define voice as a category, denoting the relation of an action to its subject and object.

Such a different understanding of voice causes ambiguous decision and the question about the number of voices in the compared languages. In English, most grammarians distinguish two voices – active and passive. Some grammarians

distinguish in Uzbek four voices, others five. But in most grammar textbooks distinguish five voices in modern Uzbek – active, passive, reflexive, mutually joint, causative.

Active voice shows that the subject is carrying out an action that transfers to another subject: *The student solves the problem - talaba masalani echadi*. In English, words denoting the subject to which the action is transferred stand after the verb of the active voice. in Uzbek, the word denoting the subject to which the action is transferred is always placed before the transitive verb: *to read the book – kitobni o`qimoq; to watch a film – film ko`rmoq*, etc.

Verbs of the passive voice indicate an action directed at the subject, they do not indicate the direction of action on the subject. In English only, the analytical way of forming a liability is used, which is based on the model: the auxiliary verb to be + the participle II of the conjugated verb: *was driven; has been said*, etc. Passive Verbs in English are characterized by the presence of nouns/pronouns with the prepositions *by* or *with* in the same function:

This work was done by my friend;

The window was broken with a stone.

In English, the subject passive construction can be, in addition to direct, also indirect and even a prepositional supplement of the corresponding active construction:

They offered him an interesting job.

He was offered an interesting job.

They laughed at him. He was laughed at.

In Uzbek, the meaning of the passive voice is expressed synthetically – in a special form of the verb, which is formed with the help of suffixes - *l (-il) - n (in)*. Moreover, the name of the subject of action is combined with the word *tomonidan*: *Metropolitan quruvchilar tomonidan qur-il-moqda* (*The subway is being built by developers*). In separate cases, in Uzbek, a word that expresses an object that is the real performer of the action. It is used with a postposition or is

put in the original case. For example: *Hona lampa bilan yoritiladi* (A room is lit by a lamp).

The reflexive voice denotes the subject, the direction to the actor who is simultaneously with the subject and the object of the action. The value of the reflexive voice in Uzbek is conveyed mainly by the suffixes - *n* (-in), - *l* (-il) which are attached to the original form of the verb of the active voice: *kiy* (dress) - *kiy-in* (dress yourself), *tayyorla* (get ready) - *tayyorla-n* (get ready yourself).

Mutually-joint voice in and Uzbek denotes an action performed by two or more entities and moving mutually from one to another. In Uzbek, the meaning of the mutual voice is expressed by adding the suffix in -*sh*, -*ish*: *uchratmoq* (to meet) - *uchra-sh-moq* (meet each other), *quchoqlamoq* (to hug) - *quchoqlashmoq* (hug each other). In the Uzbek language there is the so-called joint pledge, which is expressed as a mutual pledge, using the suffix - *sh*, - *shish*: *chopmoq* (to run) - *chopishmoq* (to run together). A joint pledge differs from a mutual one in that it means only the joint and simultaneous, and sometimes different, actions of two or more entities: *bololar xovlida o`nashayapti* - children are playing in the yard.

A causative voice expresses an action performed by a subject through another person. In Uzbek, it is formed by adding to the base of the verb a number of suffixes: - *t*, - *dir*, - *tir*, - *p*, - *ar*, - *giz*, - *giz*, - *kaz*, - *kiz*, -*qaz*, -*qiz* and others:, *yoymoq* (to write) - *yozdirmoq* (to make someone to write), *kelmoq* (to come) - *keltirmok* (to make someone to come or bring),etc.

In the Uzbek language, almost any verb can form voice forms. For example: *urmoq* - beat (active voice); *urilmoq* - beat, hit (passive voice); *urinmoq* - fight, try (reflective voice); *urishmoq* - beat together (joint voice); *urishmoq* - fight, beat each other (mutual voice); *urdirmoq* – make someone to beat (causative voice).

In English last three voices are is not expressed by grammatical means. Thus, these voices are compensated lexically, that is by verbs or different verb phrases for each action.

1. How many voices are distinguished in English?
2. How many voices are distinguished in Uzbek?
3. What morphological way of organizing voice forms is dominant in Uzbek?

§3. Syntactical level

Main notions of the paragraph:

- 1. The word-combination and the sentence**
- 2. Word order**
- 3. Greenberg's classification**

The syntax of a language studies the units more complicated than the word. These are the phrase and the sentence, their combinations, types, structures of sentences and parts of the sentences. The Syntactic typology is engaged into a comparison of syntactic level units. The basic units for comparison are the word-combination and the sentence. Depending on the character of research the Syntactic typology may fall into several sections: comparison of units of a word-combination, the level of the sentence, as well as comparison of units of various levels with regards to their syntactic functioning. The Syntactic typology usually compares languages on the basis of a transformational syntax. The word combination (phrase) is a combination of two or more notional words syntactically related to each other and having a nominative function. And the phrase is the smallest speech pattern and it consists of two notional words which are grammatically and lexically connected to each other. Phrases, like words, denote objects, phenomena, action or process. However, unlike words, they represent them as complicated phenomena. A sentence is an integral unit of speech having a communicative purpose; it expresses a statement, a question or inducement. The sentence expresses predication, i.e. shows whether the event is real or unreal, desirable or obligatory, stated as truth or asked about, etc. The sentence can consist of one or several notional words. In Uzbek the sentence is characterized as a smallest communicative unit with the following features: It has

predication which consists of modality and time. It may have the meanings of person and number. It is addressed to a hearer. It has a new information. It has the speaker's intention. It is related to certain speech situation. Key points for discussion: Definition of syntax. Classification of syntactic level. Typology of English and Uzbek syntactic level. It has definite intonation. Phrases and sentences are universal linguistic phenomena. Their structures can be used as a basis for typological comparison. For identifying the type of a phrase, the following criteria have been established:

- a) The type of syntactical connection in a phrase.
- b) The means of expressing the syntactical connection.
- c) The position of the elements of the phrase.

The elements of a phrase can be syntactically equal or unequal. In the former case, neither of the elements modifies the other. We can change their position without any change of meaning. Such combinations are called equipotent. e.g. father and son; son and father. If the elements are syntactically unequal, one of them modifies the other. The principal element is called the "kernel" or "head word". The subordinate element is called "the adjunct". Their respective positions are different for different types of phrases and different languages. Such phrases are called dominational. The connections between the elements of a dominational phrase can be further grouped into:

predicative	attributive	objective
the combination of the subject and the predicate of a sentence	the combination of a noun with its attribute expressed by an adjective or a noun	the combination of a verb with a subordinate element expressed by a noun,

		pronoun or a verbal
e.g. the train arrived	e.g. an emerald ring; a woman of strong character	e.g. to read the book; to read it; to decide to stay

These syntactical connections can be formally expressed in different ways: Government. The form of the adjunct is influenced by the head-word (*позвала брата; сказать брату*) Agreement. The kernel and the adjunct have the same number, gender, case, person (*большая комната, в большой комнате*). The elements are combined with one another by sheer contact, without the help of any grammatical forms (*бежать быстро*) The adjunct can be in pre-position or in post-position to the head-word. E.g. a health certificate; справка о здоровье. The typology of the sentence has been investigated nearly as closely as the typology of the morphological structure. The first scholar who made a considerable contribution to this part of typology was I.Mestchaninov. He created a new typological classification of languages based on their syntactical structure, mainly on the typology of sentences. He classifies the languages into nominative, ergative and passive is considered too general. For example, according to his classification, isolating, agglutinational and inflexional languages all belong to the nominative type. Such characteristics were supplied by V.Skalicka. According to him, fixed word order is characteristic of agglutinational and isolating types. The former has the Subject - Object - Predicate word order, and the latter has the Subject - Predicate - Object word order. In inflexional languages, word order is not fixed, but the most common variant is Subject - Predicate - Object. V.Skalicka's typology is more detailed but it has also been criticized. Linguists have pointed out that some of the inflexional languages have fixed word order (Persian, Armenian) and it is similar to the word order of agglutinational

languages. Another typology of the sentence was set up by J.Greenberg. He based it on three criteria: The existence of prepositions or postpositions. The word order of declarative sentences The position of attributes expressed by adjectives J.Greenberg classified about 30 languages. He found only three variants of word order: S+P+O, S+O+P, P+S+O. According to Greenberg's classification, the English and Russian languages belong to the group having prepositions, adjectives in preposition to nouns and SPO word order. But Uzbek language belongs to an inflectional group of languages and SOV word order. At the same time, the facts of the languages show that these languages are not identical in their syntactical structure. There is evidently need for more subtle syntactical classifications¹⁵.

Questions for self-control:

1. What is the object of Syntactic Typology?
2. What basic units for comparison in Syntactic Typology do you know?
3. Give the definition of the term "sentence"
5. Characterize and compare types of syntactic relations in English, Uzbek and Russian languages.
6. The problem of interference in foreign language teaching acquisition.

§3. Lexicological level

Main notions of the paragraph:

1. The semantic volume of lexical units

2. Full and incomplete words

The semantic volume of lexical units

Typology, the subject of which is the word and its meaning in compared languages is called lexical typology.

Words as a structural element of language are characterized multidimensionality. Common lexemes of compared languages can have a certain

¹⁵ Extracted from: library.ziyouet.uz/ru/book/87349

semantic volume, have certain structural features, form identical verbal series, are combined into semantic fields, characterized by a certain motivation, form phraseological units, are used in terminological and non-terminological vocabulary, function in various styles, correlate with native and borrowed vocabulary, are divided into specific and abstract, distributed according to lexical and grammatical categories, etc. The presence of similarities in the words of the compared languages does not mean the identity of their lexical systems. As A.M.Bushuy states, language is primarily a way of organizing information, with each language transmitting the same information in different ways, linking it with specific material elements. Here are given some examples, Russian word *подросток* (*teenager*) means age from 12 to 16 years old, whereas in English the word *teenager* corresponds the age from 13 to 19. Russian word *человек* in English corresponds to such units as *man*, *person*, *woman*, whereas in Russian it is characterized by a wider range of meanings than the corresponding words of the English language. The range of meanings assigned to specific words in languages is nationally specific.

In English and Uzbek, studies show that there is a certain number of lexically expressed concepts that differ in their volume. In the following table (based on A.M.Bushuy and¹⁶ analysis of semantic volume in English and Russian) the differences of English and Uzbek is illustrated:

English	Uzbek
fire	o't qo'ymoq, portlatmoq, pechkaga o't yoqmoq, otib tashlamoq
coat	пальто, пиджак
desk	parta, stol

¹⁶ Бушуй Т., Рузикулов Ф. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков. тексты лекций. – Самарканд: САМГИИЯ, 2012. – 128 с.

floor	pol, qavat
blow	gullamoq, puflamoq, esmoq
cry	yig'lamog, baqirmog
dream	tush ko`rmog, orzu qilmog
run	yugurmog, yuritmog
smell	hidlamog, hid taratmog
blue	ko`k, havo rang

Cases of concretization of the semantic volume of words observed in words belonging to the semantic field of kinship in Uzbek, for example:

English	Uzbek
aunt	amma, hola
uncle	tog'a, amaki
sister	opa, singil
brother	aka, uka
a word indicating the kinship between you and the husband of your wife's sister	boja
a word indicating kinship between you and the parents of your children's spouses	quda

Cases of concretization of the semantic volume of words observed in words belonging to the semantic field of body parts in English, for example:

Uzbek	English
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oyoq	food, leg
barmoq	finger, toe
qo'l	arm, hand

When learning English, students came across not only with difficulties due to different semantic volumes:

English	Uzbek
travel, journey, trip, tour, voyage,	sayohat
attorney, counsel, advocate, solicitor, barrister, counselor, pleader, counsel for the defense	advokat
court	sud, hovli, o'yin maydonchasi, hakam, boshqaruv organi
sentence	hukm, gap, qaror
order, warrant, indent	order

but also with difficulties in recognizing meanings similar in terms of expression:

English	Uzbek
artist	artist (actor)
magazine	magazine (shop)
aspirant	aspirant (postgraduate)
gazette	gazeta (newspaper)

Other difficulties associated with words such as *politic - political, black-blacken, suit-suite, human-humane, continual-continuous, comprehensible-comprehensive, comical-comic*:

politic (*politic behavior, politic answer*) corresponds to Uzbek *chaqqon* (*dexterous*);

political (*political power, political economy*) corresponds to Uzbek *siyosiy, davlat* (*political, state*);

continual (*continual interruptions, continual reminders, continual reproaches, continual blows*) corresponds to Uzbek *doimiy, o'zgarmas* (*lasting, permanent*);

continuous (*continuous headache, continuous range of mountains, continuous rain*) corresponds to Uzbek *uzluksiz, davomiy, to'xtovsiz* (*continuous, uninterrupted, continued, succession*);

comprehensible (*comprehensible point of view*) corresponds to Uzbek *tushunarli* (*understandable, comprehensible*);

comprehensive (*comprehensive school, comprehensive education, comprehensive mind*) corresponds to Uzbek *har tomonlama, atroflicha, mufassal* (*extensive, comprehensive*).

Lexical typology of borrowings

Borrowed words are the words adopted from other languages. Borrowing is a consequence of cultural contact between two language communities. Borrowing of words can go in both directions between the two languages in contact, but often there is an asymmetry, such that more words go from one side to the other. According to the nature of borrowings, they can be classified in all languages into:

A loan word taken over from another proper language can be modified in phonetic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the language. Example: English→Russian→Uzbek: club, pop, a best-seller, show,

CD-Rom. Russian→Uzbek: журнал, театр, роман, армия, сюжет, автобус. A translation loans are the words and expressions formed in one language after the pattern's characteristic of it but under the influence of some foreign words and expressions. For example: Latin: "tinge maternal" → mother tongue; English: "Periodical journals" → периодические журналы; Russian: "Дом престарелых" → қариялар уйи and etc.

Semantic borrowings are the appearance of a new meaning due to the influence of a related word in another language. For instance: English: mother → Mutter (German) → Madre (Spanish). Russian: nokъ (night) (proto Slavic) →ночь (Russian) →ніч (Ukrainian)→ноч (Belarusian) →noc (Polish) →noc (Czech) →noc (Slovak) →noč (Slovene) →ноћ/noć (Serbo-Croatian) →нош (nosht) (Bulgarian). Uzbek: бош (Uzbek)→ бас (Kazakh, Kharakhalpak)→ баш (Kirgiz, Turkmen), тоғ (Uzbek)→ тоо (Kirgiz) → тав, тай (Kazakh, Kharakhalpak) → дағ (Turkmen, Azerbaijan).

During XV centuries of its written history, the English language comes in long and close contacts with several other languages, mainly, Latin, French and Norman (Scandinavian). The great influence of borrowings in English is explained Borrowings Loan words Translation loans Semantic loans 148 by a number of historical causes: Latin was for a long time used as a language of learning and religion; Norman was the language of conquerors in the IX-XI centuries; French was the language of other conquerors in the XI-XIV centuries. The Uzbek language also has had an old and long contacts with many nations in its history, especially with Arabians, Persians, Turkish and Russians. It is known from the history of Uzbek language that Arabian was the language of religion and science as Latin in English, Turkic and Persian were mostly the languages of poetry in the middle ages and other languages were the languages of the conquerors of several historical periods. Different from English and Uzbek languages Russian language did not acquire words from any kind of conquerors,

but as other languages, it also has a group of words which acquired from various genetically related and non-related languages. This language started to enlarge its vocabulary from ancient times. For instance, from VI-VII centuries words which connected with florans taken from Proto-Slavonic language, in VI-IX centuries influence of Eastern-Slavonic and Russian national language formed in the period of XVII-XVIII centuries. Besides, it expands its vocabulary from Indo-European languages too. English Latin Norman French Uzbek Arabian Russian Turkic and Persian 149 Borrowings enter the language in two ways: Through oral speech (by immediate contact between the people); Through written speech (by indirect contact through books, writings, etc.) Orally borrowed words are usually short and they undergo considerable changes in the act of adoption. Written borrowings preserve their spelling and some peculiarities of their sound form, their assimilation is a long and difficult process. Oral borrowings due to personal contacts are assimilated more completely and more rapidly than literary borrowings, i.e. borrowings through written speech. For instance, in English:

Written borrowings	oral borrowings
Inch, meel, street (L.)	Sombrero (Mex.)
Husband, gate, take (scan.)	Sari, riksha (Ind.)
Table, face, figure (Fren.)	Formula, phenomena (Gr.)

Chapter 3. Relationship of comparative typology and other disciplines

§1. Relationship of comparative typology and teaching methodology

Main notions of the paragraph:

1. The importance of comparative typology in teaching a foreign language

2. The notion of Interference

3. Ways of preventing interference

Questions of teaching a foreign language are the object of research for many sciences, including for comparative typology. The comparative typology deals with the typology of Bilingualism and multilingualism, various issues of language contacts, which, in turn include problems of bilingualism, interference, convergence and many others. All these concepts are interconnected, and each of which is directly related to comparative typology. Linguistic issues occupy a large place in comparative typology. The problem of bilingualism is understood as the process of describing systems of mutually contacting languages, identifying systemic differences, determining differentiating means, etc.

The use of comparative typology as an applied discipline can be carried out through the methodology of teaching foreign languages. When comparing systems of languages, typology determines the system features of each language. These distinguished abstracted models, representing certain cuts and speech activity, can serve as an additional material for the introduction of students into the world of another unknown language. This issue is of particular importance in teaching unrelated languages or languages with different structure.

Teachers of any foreign language in their pedagogical activities inevitably encounter errors, and often numerous, which their students make both in pronunciation and in the structure of a foreign language, especially in oral and written language. Often, instead of one word, another is used, and the compatibility of words accepted in a given language is violated, being affected by the compatibility standards of the students' native language.

So, the methodology can use the adequacy and inadequacy laws of system units of different languages established by typology to solve particular problems.

Like any theoretical study, the comparative typology of two languages has two: theoretical and practical goals. The first is related to the typological analysis of the system of each of compared languages separately, by determining

structural features, identifying the main system units, listing of each level separately with further identification of universal or differential typological forms in terms of expression, and in terms of content. The second is put forward mainly on the basis of the first and is connected with the further application of the results obtained in theoretical research in the process of practical training.

The methodology requires the conclusions of a comparative typology in explaining certain categories. In this case, the heightened isomorphic and allomorphic agents play a special role. For example, categories such as the category of perfection, the category of certainty/uncertainty, and others, stand out in English as independent categories, while in Uzbek there are no special morphological indications for expressing these categories. Another example is the fact that in Uzbek there are no special tools for expressing a category of status and when transmitting it, you can use various linguistic means. Category of modality has various forms of expression in compared languages. Identification of the main ways of expressing this categories, lexical and grammatical classification of modal words and verbs, refinement of the description technique and typological comparison in terms of expression and in terms of content can represent great value for methodology. In theoretical terms, it is necessary to clarify issues related to: a) the relationship of this category to this or that level of the language; b) with the problem of distinguishing between analytical and non-analytical forms; c) with issues of semantic classification of modal words and verbs. In terms of teaching methodology, the topics of causative verbs and causative constructions in English deserve special attention, as they present a tremendous difficulty, in particular, when they are transmitted in native language.

There are some common and differentiating features of causation in English and Uzbek. The common features are: a) availability of this category in compared languages; b) the presence of causative verbs serving as the core of causative configurations; c) the existence of a syntactic way of expressing causation; d) participation of all language levels to express the category of

causation in dialectic unity. The differentiating features include: a) the presence of a lexical way of expressing the causation in the English language; b) the presence of a morphological method and opposed forms in the Uzbek language.

Thus, the main difficulty in studying the category of causation is that: a) it is expressed at different levels, b) the correspondence system is not developed, c) it is poorly described in the language system itself. For example, existing English grammar textbooks do not include causation into the category of voice. The category of voice in English grammar is clarified only into active and passive forms.

A comparative typology may be associated with the methods of identifying interfering agents. Interference is a mixture of differential signs of native and studied languages. Students' native language which they speak from childhood, cannot but influence the system of a foreign language, which they begin to study. Here an interlanguage analogy plays a big role.

The study of interference is associated with a comparative study of two or more language systems, with the identification of differential signs of phonological, lexical and grammatical systems, with the question of the need to include or exclude the native language from teaching a foreign language.

From a theoretical point of view, the study of interference is related with the establishment of typological isomorphism and allomorphism. From practical point of view, such a study can help to identify errors that occur under the influence of the native language system on the system of the corresponding levels of foreign language, and vice versa, especially at the initial stage of teaching foreign language, since at first stage the students' skills of correct using the system units have not been developed yet and, moreover, are not automated.

In teaching foreign languages, the definition of the role and place of the native language is of great importance. The fact that the study of a foreign language is based on the mother tongue may have positive and negative impact on the learning process.

The positive effect is that knowledge and students' native language skills can serve as the foundation for an analogy. They can already imitate articulation movements when teaching pronunciation, compare the meanings of words using the vocabulary of their native language. Structural models of the native language can help them to form the similar models in foreign language.

The negative effect is the interference of the native language in the course of teaching a foreign language, since when learning a foreign language, the mother tongue system serves as a kind of language substrate, which cannot but affect the studied foreign language. This peculiar language substrate is manifested at all language levels. A concrete example of the influence of the native language can be the emergence of the so-called hybrid languages. For example, under the strong influence of some systems local languages formed special languages such as: Pidgin English (in East China and Japan), Beach-La-Mar English (on the shores of the Pacific Ocean), Krio English (in Africa), etc.

Pronunciation, word forms and constructions of these hybrid languages is explained precisely by the influence of the language substrate of nations for whom English is not native. So, based on the characteristics of the local language, the interference of the native language can be divided into: a) phonetic-pronouncing, b) intonational, c) grammatical, d) lexical, etc.

Teaching a foreign language is based on the following principles: a) teaching an abstract system of the language hierarchy; b) training in speech activity in general. This classification is connected with analysis, with synthesis, with the teaching of one or another aspect in individually and in combination. The implementation of this task is closely related with the age characteristics of students, the level of development of abstract thinking, with the stages of training, with knowledge of their native language, on which teaching is based, with typological similarities and differences of native and studied languages systems and a number of other factors.

The grammar of any language is a system. Therefore, learning grammar is learning a language system. It follows from the foregoing that when compiling textbooks of foreign languages, it is necessary to proceed from the systemic features of the native and foreign languages. The interference of the native language can be reduced by purposefully showing the systemic differences between the native and foreign languages. Learning the grammar system through conscious comparison, that is, based on the grammar of the native language, can be considered particularly effective. Success also depends on the pace of material development and the types of abstraction of the systems of the compared languages. This principle requires, firstly, the availability of ready educational material, secondly, knowledge of both languages and creative organization of the educational process by the teacher.

The initial stage of teaching a foreign language can be organized according to the principle: from the mother tongue to the foreign one, that is, at the very initial stage of acquaintance with the system of foreign language, the system of native language is used.

To the necessary conditions for preventing interference, can be included the compilation of textbooks and teaching aids for elementary stage in the native language. Such textbooks can be: 1) with a complete comparison or 2) with a partial comparison of the studied and native languages.

A complete comparison is characteristic of more advanced stage of teaching a foreign language and can pursue both as practical and theoretical goals.

Partial comparisons are for practical purposes and characteristic of the very initial stage of teaching foreign languages. In a partial comparison, the interfering means of the mother tongue are deliberately chosen, which most affect the system of the foreign language, and the main ways of their overcoming are selected. The principle of comparison can serve as one of the most effective methods of gradually eliminating the negative influence of the mother tongue system.

The task of comparison is to eliminate the pressure of non-identical means of expressing of mother tongue on a foreign language system. Common features of non-identity include the characteristic features of the language: analyticity and non-analyticity and a number of other system-wide phonological, grammatical and lexical features. To private ones – certain non-identical phenomena can be attributed, which is identified by the expression of a grammatical categories. In connection with the heterogeneity of their structures, the languages being compared have a number of specific features.

1) One of the differentiating features is the presence of articles in English and their absence in Uzbek.

English: *Give me the book lying on the table.*

Uzbek: *Menga stol ustidagi kitobni ber.*

In this example there is no interference with the mother tongue. However, a student may encounter difficulties of a different order, for example, with the problem of transmitting the combination “article + noun” in Uzbek;

2) Use of case inflections in nouns in Uzbek is not limited, but it is limited in English;

3) Partially non-identical units include the category of person. In Turkic languages, morphological category of person in verbs (or in noun) is highly developed, and in English it almost disappeared, therefore, the habit of forming a category of a person in a native language in a certain way greatly affects students’ speech in English. Under the influence of a native tongue students usually skip personal pronouns before verbs, for example, use *came* instead of *I came*. Another example of the same phenomenon is the lack of a morphological category of possession to a certain person in English nouns, that is why, possessive pronouns – *that, you, his, her, its, our, you, their*, etc. are often omitted by Uzbek students;

4) Interference of the mother tongue occurs with English prepositions. English prepositions and Uzbek case affixes act as interlingual synonymous correspondents. For example, the form of the Uzbek dative – directive case affix

combination *N + ga* can correspond to English *to + N, into + N, towards + N, at + N*, etc. As the result mistakes in choosing preposition can occur. Another typical student mistake in this area is, in particular, the fact that in some cases the English prepositional combination *from + N* does not always correspond to Uzbek *N + dan* case of exit ending. So, students often say *I asked from him* instead of *I asked him*;

5) The relatively free word order in the Uzbek causes students to violate the fixed word order in the English language. For example, altering the word order in English sentence *John taught Mage* can change the meaning of the utterance, as in English the word order has become one of the main grammar signals expressing syntax relationship. The Uzbek syntactic relations are expressed at the same time with the help of case endings and word order, and the case endings play a major role.

6) The presence of vowels of two varieties, narrow and wide, on all three ascents – and the absence of this feature in the Uzbek phonological system is a source of numerous persistent errors by Uzbek students, not only at the first stage of teaching English, but often on the following. So, the difficulties associated with the correct pronunciation of vowels [i:] and [i], [u:] and [ʊ], [ɑ:] and [ʌ], [ɔ:] and [ɒ] are well known, which is directly related to the correct sound design words and their correct perception. Another typological feature of English vocalism – the division into vowels of the ordinary and vowels of the series moved backward (or advanced forward) – also serves as a source of errors in the Uzbek audience, where this symptom is absent.

The following questions require typological development specifically for the methodology: 1) general questions related to the basic structural types and sentences (SVO, SOV), agglutination, and flexion, analytic and syntactic types associated with types and models of sentence; 2) particular issues related to the presence or absence of certain categorical indicators of parts of speech. These in Uzbek include articles, prepositions, modal verbs, words of the category of state,

strictly fixed word order, category of gender in personal pronouns and others; in English, the absence of morphological means of the category of affiliation, morphological means of voice categories, mood, and many others can be included.

Above, we examined more specific descriptive questions. At the same time, there are a number of general questions concerning how the sections of linguistic typology themselves (genetic, structural, areal), and psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic and other issues. The methodology is associated with the structural typology when developing the linguistic foundations of education in general, when applying various methods of structural linguistics in various languages, when determining the general deep structure of a particular category, when considering individual issues of semantic and graphic typology, and many others.

With genetic typology, methodology is associated in teaching languages with a related and unrelated structure.

Methodology has a peculiar communication with areal typology. The simplest example is the development of a regional methodology for teaching foreign languages. For example, for teaching foreign languages in certain areas of Uzbekistan the multilingualism of local residents must be taken into account. In cities such as Tashkent, Bukhara, Samarkand, Nukus the interfering role at the same time play the systems of the Uzbek, Russian, Tajik, Karakalpak languages. However, the regional methodology is still not developed.

1. Explain the importance of using comparative typology in teaching a foreign language.
2. What is interference?
3. What can be considered as a concrete example of the influence of the native language on a language being learnt?
4. What are the necessary conditions for preventing interference?
5. How many specific features do the languages being compared in connection with the heterogeneity of their structures?

§2. Relationship of comparative typology and translation theory

Main notions of the paragraph:

- 1. Aspects of the contact of typological indicators and problems of translation**
- 2. The identity of the comparison process**
- 3. Interlevel of the corresponding units**
- 4. Indifference to genetic kinship**
- 5. Differentiating signs**
- 6. Differences in terms of content**

According to L.L.Nelyubin comparative typology and linguistic theory of translation are closely related and interact with each other. This connection is due to the fact that the theory of translation and linguistic typology are engaged in comparing and contrasting languages. Translation plays a significant role in comparing systems of two languages, and a full description of the systems of two languages from of linguistic typology viewpoint would substitute translators in their practical activities.

L.L.Nelyubin determines the ratio of comparative typology and translation highlighting certain aspects of the contact of typological indicators and problems of translation¹⁷:

- commonality of content plan units
- identity of the comparison process
- interlevel of relevant funds
- indifference to genetic kinship.

The process of comparing systems of two languages can be built on the basis of either a plan of expression or a plan of content, depending on the nature

¹⁷Нелюбин Л.Л. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков: учебник. – М.: ФЛИНТА: НАУКА, 2012. - 152 с.

or purpose of the matching process. However, the organization of a typological operation based on units of a content plan can be considered more acceptable. The translation process is similar in nature to the process of typological comparison. The translator also searches for equivalent forms of expression of a certain meaning in another language, as translation is a transformation of the source text while maintaining the meaning.

Translation is the process of converting a speech work in one language into a speech work in another language while maintaining an unchanged content plan, i.e. values. In other words, in the translation, as well as in the typological comparison, peculiar linguistic means are revealed that are equivalent to a certain content in the language into which the text is translated.

The identity of the comparison process

Comparative typology and translation operations fall into two stages. A typological operation consists of two stages: (a) abstraction, or typologization, and (b) correspondence or transformation.

The translation process also takes place in stages. The initial stage is the stage of understanding someone else's text, the stage of preparation for translation, i.e. analytical, abstracted process. The second stage is the stage of implementation of the data of the first stage, the synthetic stage.

As for machine translation, it is also carried out in stages: stages of analysis and synthesis, or operations of choice and operations of transformation. The first stage is linguistic, which coincides with the first stage of operations performed in a comparative typology, since typological operations also involve the process of abstraction, or typologization. The second stage of translation operations involves synthesizing the results of the linguistic stage, with further correspondence, or transformation. The results obtained in the process of typological analysis are used in machine translation, because it is impossible to build machine translation without a systematic description of languages.

However, many data obtained as a result of typological operations may be insufficient for machine translation, and vice versa, the results may be redundant for a comparative typology (for example, various codes, formulas, algorithms, programs, etc.).

Interlevel of the corresponding units

The special heterogeneity of systems of unrelated languages requires the identification of means of expression of a particular category at all levels of the linguistic hierarchy.

There can be no question of the completeness of comparing or juxtaposing a particular text of diverse systems without fixing the means of expressing units of all levels.

The theory of translation is built on similar foundations. Translation requires data identified by a typological operation. A special role is played by inter-level typological synonyms or transformational variants of the surface structure. For example, if in a source language a certain category is conveyed using a verbal non-nominalized form, where in another, the relevant norms can be nominalized. If in the source language a certain meaning is expressed by units of the word level, then in the translation language the corresponding confrontations can be correlated with the level of the phrase. For instant, in Russian the verb *принести* (*to bring*) is a word, whereas in Uzbek this verb has a form of phrase: *olib kelmoq*.

Comparative typology and translation theory are also connected theoretically and practically. Communication at the theoretical level is based on the fact that, presenting the scientific aspects of language learning, both comparative typology and translation are engaged in establishing patterns of correspondence between the means of two or more independent languages. At a practical level, a comparative typology is associated with the learning process, and translation is associated with familiarizing the reader with a foreign language text.

Indifference to genetic kinship

Although translation and comparative typology are indifferent to the genetic relationship of the systems of the languages being compared, the genetic proximity of the systems of the languages in question can create favorable conditions for translation.

Translational equivalence is enhanced if typological proximity is accompanied by genetic kinship, for genetically related languages formally typological proximity is accompanied by semantic or material similarity.

For example, typological proximity is accompanied by genetic similarities in closely related Germanic languages. If typological affinity is accompanied by genetic affinity, then the translation does not cause any particular difficulties. It is easier for the translator to translate the text or make dictionary correspondences if he is dealing with systems of closely related languages. It is always easier to translate English texts into Russian rather than into Uzbek for a number of reasons. English and Russian are distant but related languages, they have many similarities in different language levels. For example, since both of these languages belong to the Indo-European family, there is a similarity in word order in their syntactic level. Since Uzbek belongs to the Turkic group of Altai languages family, it has a different formula for word order. This difference causes certain problems in the process of translating English texts into Uzbek.

English	I	read	the book
	subject	verb	object
Russian	я	прочитала	книгу
	subject	verb	object
Uzbek	men	kitobni	o`qib chiqdim
	subject	object	verb

The identifying features considered include the fact that almost identical linguistic methods and techniques are used in comparative typology and translation.

Differentiating signs

Despite the similarity of the operations performed and the presence of other common features, the typological comparison and the theory of translation have a number of differences, namely:

- a) the relative freedom of choice of the translator;
- b) the difference in terms of content.

The freedom of choice in the translation is as follows:

- a) replacing units of one level with units of other levels;
- b) the use of descriptive methods of translation, regardless of one-level correspondence;
- c) the choice of stylistically appropriate or more expressive means from other levels and categories of words;
- d) the use of synonymous forms and constructions;
- e) replacing the text with another text, while maintaining a deep community (for example, proverbs).

When certain information is transcoded from language to language, the translator can go to all levels to select the appropriate units from the expression plan.

This usually happens in two cases:

- 1) when it is impossible to show one-level correspondence;
- 2) when the translator seeks to convey this content using more appropriate stylistic means in this case.

Equivalence can take many forms of expression. So, for example, the minimum matches can be as follows:

Source language	Target language
morpheme	word
word	morpheme
word	word
word	sentence
sentence	word
sentence	sentence

In a comparative typology, freedom of choice is strictly limited or within certain levels.

Differences in terms of content

A comparative typology studies language units in terms of abstraction, and translation in terms of implementation. A comparative typology compares systems of languages, and translation implements units of these systems.

Although the comparative typology is closely related to translation, the latter should not be considered part of the linguistic typology: the comparative typology compares the system with the system, and the translation does it text to text.

1. How many aspects of contact of typological indicators and problems of translation are distinguished by L.L.Nelyubin?
2. How comparative typology and translation can interreact theoretically and practically?
3. Why translating related languages is always easier than translating unrelated languages?
4. What are the differences between typological comparison and the theory of translation?

TESTS ON THE TOPICS

1. According to the relations of elements, languages are classified into...
 - a) Agglutinative, Flexional, Isolating, Polysynthetic
 - b) Flexional, Agglutinative, Polysynthetic, Monosynthetic
 - c) Polysynthetic, Flexional, Non-flexional, Isolating
 - d) Isolating, Non-agglutinative, Polyflexional, Polysynthetic
2. Category of plurality can be expressed in Modern English by
 - a) Morphological means, Syntactic means, Phono-morphological, Lexical
 - b) Morphological means, Phono-morphological
 - c) Syntactic means, Lexical
 - d) Phono-morphological, Lexical
3. Choose the right answer:
 - a) Gender is a lexical-grammatical category. Sex is used to denote biological notions and it is usually used for animate objects
 - b) Gender is a lexical-grammatical category
 - c) Gender is used to denote biological notions
 - d) Sex is usually used for animate objects
4. Choose the variant with grammatical category of gender
 - a) пожилой мужчина
 - b) Very big house

c) Her beautiful face

d) Green tree

5. Primary grammatical categories are...

a) Parts of speech

b) The category of gender

c) Verbal categories

d) Degrees of comparison

6. Secondary grammatical categories are...

a) Categories within every part of speech

b) Noun

c) Verb

d) Article

7. The category of plurality is expressed by morphological means... choose the correct answer

a) boy – boys

b) much milk

c) class – people

d) foot – feet

8. The category of plurality is expressed by phono-morphological means...

a) tooth – teeth

b) Class – people

c) Girl – girls

d) a lot of students

9. The category of plurality is expressed by syntactic means...

a) A lot of English books

b) Goose – geese

c) flower – flowers

d) class – people

10. Traditional grammatical categories consist of:

- a) Grammatical form and grammatical meaning
- b) Grammatical categorization
- c) Analysis and synthesis
- d) Grammatical analysis

11. What are the types of languages due to typological classification?

- a) Isolating, polysynthetic, agglutinative, flexional
- b) Diachronic and synchronic
- c) Polysynthetic, isolating, agglutinative, flexional
- d) Isolating, agglutinative

12. What is the type of language that is characterized by the absence of inflections and affixational morphemes expressing word relations?

- a) Isolating
- b) Agglutinative
- c) Flexional
- d) Polysynthetic

13. What language has non –developed morphology?

- a) Chinese
- b) Uzbek
- c) Latin
- d) English

14. What languages does dual number exist in?

- a) Sanscrit, Greek, Old English
- b) Modern English, French, Uzbek
- c) Russian, German, Chinese
- d) English, Chinese, French

15. What are languages given below genetically differently related ones?

- a) English and Russian
- b) Russian and Uzbek
- c) Uzbek and Kazakh

d) Kirgiz and Russian

1. The smallest unit of sound distinguishing meaning is called a ...

a) phoneme

b) Morpheme

c) allophone

d) phone

2. A fricative and an affricate differ in ...

a) pressure phase and friction phase

b) Nothing

c) place of articulation

d) the manner of articulation

3. A voiced and a voiceless sound differ in ...

a) There is no difference

b) faspiration

c) the direction of the air stream

d) vocal chord action

4. In which of these words is the vowel the shortest?

a) bean

b) bead

c) bee

d) beat

5. ... which is mainly concerned with the functioning of phonetic units in the language.

a) segmental phonetics;

b) practical phonetics;

c) suprasegmental phonetics;

d) theoretical phonetics.

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

pitch, stress, and tempo is called ...

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

- a) Labial
- b) Dental and alveolar

c) Sonorant

d) Fricative

12. A special prominence given to one more syllable in a word is:

a) The pause

b) The rhythm

c) The melody

d) The stress

13. Which language has free word stress?

a) Russian and English

b) Czech and Slovak

c) French

d) Kazakh

14. What is a syllable?

a) Morphemic structure of the word

b) One of the speech sounds

c) The shortest segment of speech sounds

d) Segmental structure of the word

15. Find the correct answer where English and Uzbek stress position is correctly shown.

a) words in English have mostly 1st syllable stressed position and Uzbek last

b) syllable stressed position

c) words in Uzbek have mostly 2nd syllable stressed position and English 1st

d) syllable stressed position

e) there is no stable stress position in both languages

f) words in Uzbek and English have free syllable stressed position

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

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

b) The study of the rules governing sentence formation.

c) The study of the rules governing word formation.

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

- a) Syntactic
- b) Lexical and grammatical
- c) Phonetic and phonological
- d) Semantic and formal

3. Syntactic typology studies...

- a) parts of speech
- b) word level
- c) phoneme level
- d) sentence level and phrase level

4. Which of these morphemes can the majority of English nouns have added to them?

- a) –ing
- b) –er
- c) –s
- d) –un

5. In which sentence do the dots replace a noun?

- a) They can ... them
- b) They can ...
- c) He has no ...
- d) They ... him

6. Identify this sentence according to its type: "The old hotel at the end of the street is going to be knocked down at the beginning of next year."

- a) complex
- b) compound
- c) simple
- d) compound-complex

7. What must every correct sentence have a ..?

- a) transition word

- b) subject and predicate
- c) conjunction and verb
- d) dependent and independent clause

8. In Russian nouns can show gender (among other features). What feature(s) can nouns in English show?

- a) Case only
- b) Number only
- c) Case and number
- d) Number and person

9. What is the smallest speech pattern?

- a) Morpheme
- b) Phrase
- c) Phoneme
- d) Seme

10. What is word order in the language?

- a) The agreement of words in a phrase
- b) the arrangement of words in a phrase, clause, or sentence
- c) Subordination of clauses
- d) Structure of a phrase

11. Define the sentence?

- a) It is the smallest speech pattern
- b) It is smallest meaningful unit
- c) It is the basic unit of syntax
- d) It is an important communicative unit

12. Subordinator...

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

13. What language word-combination has extended type according to the structure?

- a) Russian
- b) English
- c) Arabic
- d) Uzbek

14. Independent and dependent are types of word combinations of...

- a) English language
- b) French language
- c) Russian language
- d) Uzbek language

15. What languages are fond of long and colorful phrases?

- a) Russian and Uzbek
- b) Russian and English
- c) English and Uzbek
- d) English and French

1. What does study Lexical typology?

- a) It deals with the meaning of words both lexically and semantically
- b) It deals with the units of lexical levels
- c) It deals with structural meanings of words
- d) It deals with the units of morphological and lexical levels

2. Give definition of the lexical typology...

- a) It is a systematic cross-linguistic study of how languages express meaning by way of signs
- b) It is an independent branch of linguistic typology and concerns to every level of language hierarchy
- c) It is an independent branch of linguistic typology and deals with a comparison of the units of lexical units

d) It is an independent branch of linguistic typology and deals with some problems of grammar

3. From how many branches Lexical typology consists of?

a) 5

b) 4

c) 6

d) 7

4. What kind of dimensions has Lexical-typological research?

a) Synchronic and diachronic

b) Synchronic and panchronic

c) Diachronic and panchronic

d) Synchronic, diachronic and panchronic

5. What language is considered as a single-morphemic structure of a word?

a) Russian

b) English

c) Turkish

d) Uzbek

6. What is word changing type of forming words in every language?

a) It is a type which includes morphemes of case affixes, personal endings and etc.

b) It is a type which includes various types of its content and its form according to

its place in the word such affixes and prefixes

c) It is a type which content can be equal to the word

7. To try- a try, round-round, hand- to hand what kind of type of the way of word forming is it?

a) Word changing

b) Word building

c) Word helping

d) Single-morphemic

8. How many adjective building suffixes exist in order to build adjectives from nouns?

a) 10

b) 9

c) 20

d) 24

9. What is an agglutinative way of forming words?

a) when affixing morphemes are added to root automatically without changing its phoneme structure

b) when with adding affixing morphemes their phoneme structure can be changed

c) when the content can be equal to the word

10. What languages contain a group of adjectives, which characterizes emotional coloring of diminutively pet meanings?

a) Russian and English

b) English and Uzbek

c) Only Uzbek

d) Russian and Uzbek

11. In what languages are root morphemes equal to the word according to its sound content?

a) Inflective

b) Agglutinative

c) Isolating

d) Polysynthetic

12. Kick the bucket, тарвузи қўлтиғидан тушиб кетди. What kind of type of phraseological units are they?

a) Phraseological collocations

b) Phraseological units

c) Phraseological fusions

d) Phraseological idioms

13. What are phraseological collocations?

a) They are the units when one of the words of the phrase has its lexical meaning and connected to another one

b) They are a relation of words where the content of words don't have their lexical meanings

c) They are such kind of phrases where the lexical meaning of a word are expressed with their own

15. To keep an eye, to kill two birds with one stone, ширин сўз, оғир йигит into what type of phraseological units they can be included?

a) Phraseological collocations

b) Phraseological units

c) Phraseological fusions

d) Phraseological idioms

14. How in English the meaning of gender may be expressed?

a) Lexical – semantic means

b) Syntactic means

c) The use of suffixes

d) The use of prefix

Topics for self-study

1. Linguistic typology and its main notions
2. Short history of Linguistic typology
3. The branches of Linguistic typology
4. Comparative typology of English and Uzbek at different language levels
5. Characteristics of Phonological level
6. Characteristics of Morphological level
7. Characteristics of Syntactical level
8. Characteristics of Lexical level
9. Agglutinative languages
10. Isolating languages
11. Inflectional languages
12. Incorporating languages
13. Comparative typology and Teaching foreign languages
14. Comparative typology and Translation study
15. Genealogical classification of world languages

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