

**O‘ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI
OLIY TA’LIM, FAN VA INNOVATSIYALAR VAZIRLIGI**

SHAHRISABZ DAVLAT PEDAGOGIKA INSTITUTI

XORIJIY TIL NAZARIYASI KAFEDRASI

ALLAYAROVA Z.B., XO‘JAMURODOVA F.R.

QIYOSIY TIPOLOGIYA

DARSLIK

**TOSHKENT
“MAKON SAVDO PRINT” X K -2025**

UO‘K 811.111(091)(075)
KBK 81.432.1-03я73

Allayarova Z.B., Xo‘jamurodova F.R. **Qiyosiy tipologiya** [Darslik.] / – T.:
“MAKON SAVDO PRINT” X K. 2024. 364 b.

Mas’ul muharrir:

N.A.Sadullayeva – filologiya fanlari doktori (DSc), dotsent (O‘zMU)

Taqrizchi:

A.A. Muhammadiyev filologiya fanlari nomzodi, dotsent (ShahDPI)
M.B. Nizomova - filologiya fanlari bo‘yicha falsafa doktori (PhD)
dotsent (QarDU)

Mazkur darslik 60111800 – Xorijiy til va adabiyoti (ingliz tili) ta’lim yo‘nalishi 4 - bosqich talabalariga «Qiyosiy tipologiya» fanidan zaruriy bilimlarni egallashga, tilshunoslikdagi qiyosiy tahlil usullarini o‘rgatishga yo‘naltirilgan. Darslikda ingliz tili va o‘zbek tilining strukturasini qiyosiy tahlil qilish orqali talabalarda lingvistik qiyoslash ko‘nikmalarini shakllantirishga alohida e’tibor qaratilgan. Ingliz tilining fonetik, leksik, grammatik va sintaktik jihatlari o‘zbek hamda boshqa tillar bilan taqqoslanib, ularning o‘ziga xos xususiyatlari tahlil etilgan. Shuningdek, qiyosiy tilshunoslikning nazariy asoslarini bayon qilishi bilan birga, amaliy topshiriqlar va mashqlar orqali mavzularni yanada chuqurroq o‘zlashtirishga yordam beradi. Darslik tilshunoslik bo‘yicha ta’lim olayotgan talabalar, magistrilar va tilshunoslikka qiziqqan mutaxassislar uchun mo‘ljallangan.

Qiyosiy tipologiya fanining darsligi Shahrisabz davlat pedagogika instituti kengashining 2024-yil 30 - avgustdagi 1-sonli qarori bilan tasdiqlangan «Qiyosiy tipologiya» fanining o‘quv dasturi asosida ishlab chiqildi.

UO‘K 811.111(091)(075)
KBK 81.432.1-03я73

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION.....	6
1. Introduction to the course: Comparative typology as a branch of linguistics.....	7
2. Main periods and factors of development and the main parameters modifying subject matter and branches of the linguistic typology.....	13
3. Cooperation of the comparative typology and other theoretical and applied branches of linguistics.....	20
4. Comparative typology of languages and its relations with other branches of Linguistics.....	29
5. Importance of Comparative typology in overcoming native language interference in the process in the process of teaching EFL.....	39
6. Methods of comparative typology and notions of a type of a language and a type in a language.....	49
7. Comparative analysis of the typological categories of word order in Modern English.....	55
8. Comparative analysis of word – building types in comparative languages.....	65
9. Typology of gender linguistics in comparative languages.....	74
10. The relationship between comparative typology and anthropocentric direction of linguistics.....	80
11. Typology of a sentence in English and Native languages....	88
12. The problem of typological categorization. Grammatical categories of Typology.....	94
13. Comparative Typology of Morphological systems branch of linguistics.....	102
14. Historical typology as one of the periodization of the history of the language.....	108
15. Comparative analysis of vowel systems of Modern English.	115
16. Typology categories of Case.....	120
17. The grammatical categories of Modern English.....	126

18. Comparative analysis of the syntactic systems of Modern English.....	135
19. Typology of Super segmental means of Modern English.....	140
20. Typology of simple sentence in the English and native languages.....	145
21. The subject matter of the Linguistic typology.....	155
22. Comparative typology of Phonological systems of Modern English.....	162
23. The problem of typological categorization. Grammatical categories of Typology.....	166
24. Comparative typology of languages and its relations with other branches of Linguistics.....	172
25. Historical typology as one of the periodization of the history of the language.....	177
26. The adjective and its grammatical category of the degrees of Comparison in the English and Uzbek languages.....	184
27. Distinctions and similarities in numerals of the English and Uzbek languages.....	192
28. Typology of simple sentence in the English and Native languages.....	202
29. Distinctions and similarities in Pronouns of the English and Uzbek languages.....	210
30. Typology of gender linguistics in comparative languages....	217
31. Typology of word formation in the English and Native Languages.....	224
32. Typology of simple sentence in the English and Native languages.....	231
33. Comparative analysis of the syntactic systems of Modern English.....	238
34. Typology of Super segmental means of Modern English.....	245

35. Methods of comparative typology and notions of a type of a language and a type in a language.....	250
36. Comparative analysis of vowel systems of Modern English, Uzbek and Russian.....	256
37. Comparative analysis of consonant systems of Modern English, Uzbek and Russian.....	263
38. Comparative analysis of the typological categories of word order in Modern English, Uzbek and Russian.....	269
39. The grammatical categories of Mood English, Uzbek and Russian.....	275
40. The noun and its grammatical categories in the English and Uzbek languages.....	281
41. The verb and its grammatical categories in the English and Uzbek languages.....	289
42. The Typological category of personality and plurality.....	295
43. Comparative analysis of word – building types in comparative languages.....	301
44. Comparative analysis of the typological categories of word order in Modern English.....	307
45. Comparative analysis of English, Uzbek and Russian languages words.....	314
APPENDIX.....	321
ACTIVITIES/EXERCISES.....	323
TESTS.....	343
GLOSSARY.....	356
REFERENCES.....	362

INTRODUCTION

The discipline of Comparative Typology plays a crucial role in linguistic studies, providing an in-depth analysis of the similarities and differences between languages. This textbook, designed for the course "Comparative Typology", offers a comprehensive exploration of the structural aspects of the English language in comparison with other languages. By focusing on phonological, morphological, syntactic, and lexical features, the textbook aims to equip students with a solid understanding of cross-linguistic comparison.

Through theoretical insights and practical exercises, learners will develop the analytical skills necessary for conducting comparative linguistic research. This textbook serves as a valuable resource for students, graduate students, and professionals engaged in the field of linguistics.

KIRISH

Qiyosiy tipologiya fani tilshunoslikda muhim o‘rin tutib, tillar orasidagi o‘xshashlik va farqlarni chuqur o‘rganishga imkon beradi. Ushbu darslik “Qiyosiy tipologiya” fanidan tayyorlanib, ingliz tili va boshqa tillarning strukturaviy jihatlarini qiyosiy tahlil qilishga bag‘ishlangan. Fonologik, morfologik, sintaktik va leksik xususiyatlarga e’tibor qaratilgan holda, o‘quvchilarga tillarni qiyoslash ko‘nikmalarini shakllantirish maqsad qilingan.

Nazariy ma’lumotlar va amaliy mashqlar orqali bu darslik talabalar va mutaxassislariga qiyosiy tilshunoslik bo‘yicha chuqur bilim olishlari uchun manba sifatida xizmat qiladi.

LECTURES

M1. INTRODUCTION TO THE COURSE: COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY AS BRANCH OF LINGUISTICS



Key aspects of the lecture:

Cross-Linguistic Comparison: Comparative typology involves comparing the structural features of languages from different language families to identify similarities and differences.

Typological Universals: It aims to uncover linguistic universals – common features found across languages – and understand the reasons behind their presence or absence.

Typological Parameters: Linguists analyze various aspects of language structure, including phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics, to identify typological patterns.

Language Families and Isolates: Comparative typology explores both languages that belong to language families (e.g., Indo-European, Sino-Tibetan) and those that are isolates (e.g., Basque, Ainu).

Language Contact and Change: It investigates how languages influence each other through contact and how this interaction can lead to typological changes, such as borrowing and convergence.

Geographical Distribution: Comparative typology considers the geographical distribution of linguistic features and explores how environmental and cultural factors may shape language structure.

Methodological Approaches: It employs various methodological approaches, including large-scale typological surveys, case studies, and quantitative analyses, to uncover cross-linguistic patterns.

Implications for Linguistic Theory: Comparative typology contributes to linguistic theory by providing empirical evidence for theoretical claims and challenging existing linguistic frameworks.

Language Diversity and Endangerment: It raises awareness of the rich diversity of languages worldwide and the importance of documenting and preserving endangered languages.

Applied Linguistics: Comparative typology has practical applications in fields such as language teaching, translation, and natural language processing, where knowledge of cross-linguistic variation is crucial.

Typology within linguistics focuses on uncovering overarching patterns across languages, regardless of their shared origins or influences. By identifying common phenomena across a representative range of languages, typology highlights recurring patterns applicable to language as a whole. This analysis can occur at various levels, including sound (phonetic and phonological), words (morphological), sentences (syntactic), and larger linguistic structures (text or discourse).

Within typology, comparative analysis plays a significant role in studying languages by comparing them to establish similarities and differences.

Comparative analysis can be historical, aiming to uncover linguistic relationships and ancestry, as seen in comparative historical linguistics. Alternatively, it can be typological, focusing on similarities and differences without considering linguistic history or ancestry, as in comparative typological linguistics. Both approaches emerged in the 19th century, contributing to genealogical and typological classifications of languages, respectively.

Comparative Typology encompasses two main branches: formal typology and semantic typology.

Formal Typology focuses on the formal aspects of language expression across various levels of linguistic hierarchy. Its primary aim is to identify formal universals. Formal typology involves tasks such as revealing external or formal language features, establishing common principles of scripts (e.g., alphabets, punctuation), determining formal structures of syllables, composite words, word combinations, and sentences.

Semantic Typology is a branch of Comparative Typology that examines the semantic structure of language, related to units of content. Its goal is to identify semantic universals linked to the deep structure of language. Semantic Typology addresses issues such as identifying aims and problems within its scope, defining semantic fields for comparative analysis, grouping words based on semantic signs, defining semantic fields in different languages, creating criteria to define semantic categories, and developing principles for compiling semantic comparative dictionaries.

In Comparative Linguistics, various methods and approaches are employed:

Comparative Method: Aims to establish isomorphic (and allomorphic) features and determine structural language types through contrastive investigation.

Deductive Method: Based on logical calculation, it suggests all possible variants of realization for a certain linguistic feature/phenomenon in one or more contrasted languages.

Inductive Method: Seeks verification by demonstrating that the investigated feature has been proven by linguists, thus making the obtained results possible.

Statistical Method: Used to establish necessary quantitative and qualitative representation of linguistic features or identify the percentage of co-occurrence of features or linguistic units in contrasted languages.

Immediate Constituents (IC) Method: Contrasts linguistic units to investigate their constituent parts in one or more contrasted languages.

Transformational Method: Identifies the nature of a linguistic unit in the source language or determines differences in expression forms among contrasted languages.

Comparative typology classifies languages according to their structure. Although languages may differ in their material (i.e. have no words of the same root, or common morphemes) their structure (i.e. relations between the elements, functions of the elements) may be similar. *e.g. The Russian and Bulgarian languages are kindred languages. Their material is similar. They have many words of the same root. However, structurally they are different. The Russian language has a system of six cases and the Bulgarian language has no category of case. The English, Turkic and Chinese languages are very different materially. Their origin is different. However, in all these languages, an adjective can precede a noun and there is no grammatical agreement between these parts of speech. Therefore, they belong to the same structural type. Another aim of comparative typology is to establish the most general characteristics common for several or all languages. Such characteristics are called language universals.*

The subject of linguistic typology is language with comparison with other language or languages. Comparative linguistics is a relatively young discipline which offers many unexplored problems. It is the study of how languages are structured, how they are used and how they change through time. Typology of languages is a branch linguistics which studies the structural similarities between languages regardless of their history and origin.

Branches of typology.

- phonological – studies sounds and their classification and types
- lexical – (words and their meaning)
- phraseology
- morphological – (structure of a word , category, case, gender)
- general – (types of language, classification)
- special – (modern eng. – middle eng.)

Comparative typology, a subset of General Linguistics, explores languages' systems comparatively to discern common principles and uncover differences and similarities among them. David Crystal, in his book «Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics,» describes comparative typology as a branch of linguistics focused on studying structural similarities between languages independently of their historical backgrounds. Its aim is to establish a satisfactory classification or typology of languages. Unlike historical comparison, typological comparison may lead to groupings that differ from those established by historical methods.

Comparative typology of English and Uzbek languages

The word typology consists of two Greek morphemes: a) *typos* means type and b) *logos* means science or word. Typology is a branch of science which is typical to all sciences without any exception. In this respect their typological method is not limited to the sphere of one science. It has a universal rise.

So, typology may be divided into:

1. Non-linguistic and
2. Linguistic typology

Non-linguistic typology is the subject matter of the sciences except linguistics.

Linguistic typology is a new branch of general linguistics which studies the systems of languages comparatively, also finds common laws of languages and establishes differences and similarities between them.

Typological classification of languages.

In linguistics we may come across many terms as to the terminological nature of linguistic typology.

They are:

1. Comparative methods, 2. Comparative – historical method, 3. Comparative (or contrastive) linguistics, 4. Comparative typology, 5. Comparative grammar, 6. Connotation grammar, 7. Descriptive – comparative linguistics and the terms used in Russian and Uzbek are not exact either.

Comparative typology is a branch of general linguistic typology. It deals with a comparison of languages.

Comparative typology compares the systems of two or more concrete languages and creates common typological laws. The comparison of the system of two languages are compared first of all.

E.g. The category of mood in English is considered to be a small system. Having completed the comparison of languages investigators take the third language to compare and so on. Comparative typology is sometimes characterized by some scholars as characterology which deals with the comparison of the systems only.

CT includes:

a) Characterology studies characteristic properties of comparing languages, it is considered to be both theoretical and practical subject.

b) Universal Grammar deals with comparison of language systems. It compares not only grammatical units but also morphologic units too.

I. The Tasks of Typology

1) to classify existing languages of the world;
2) to establish linguistic universals, i.e. linguistic phenomena existing in all languages of the world;

3) to establish dominants, i.e. linguistic phenomena which exist in most of languages of the world;

4) to set up frequent units – which exist in some languages of the world;

Classification of the main essential features of languages, the most important characteristics and regularities are the subject of comparative typology.

The ultimate goals of comparative typology include:

- identifying and categorizing the main shared and divergent features present in the languages under examination;
- deriving isomorphic regularities and allomorphic singularities from these common or contrasting features;
- establishing typical language structures and language types based on the identified isomorphic features;
- creating a scientifically rigorous classification of the world's existing languages using practical data obtained from comparative analysis;
- determining universal features or phenomena that apply to each individual language across the globe.

Answer the questions!



1. How do linguists define and differentiate between comparative typology and other branches of linguistics?
2. What are some common typological parameters used in comparative typology, and how do they help in comparing languages?
3. Can you provide examples of linguistic universals and explain their significance in comparative typology?
4. How does language contact contribute to typological change, and what are some examples of this phenomenon?
5. What methods do linguists use to conduct cross-linguistic comparisons in comparative typology?
6. How does geographical distribution influence language typology, and what are some examples of geographical determinants of language structure?
7. What are some challenges and limitations in conducting comparative typological research?

8. How does comparative typology contribute to our understanding of linguistic diversity and language evolution?

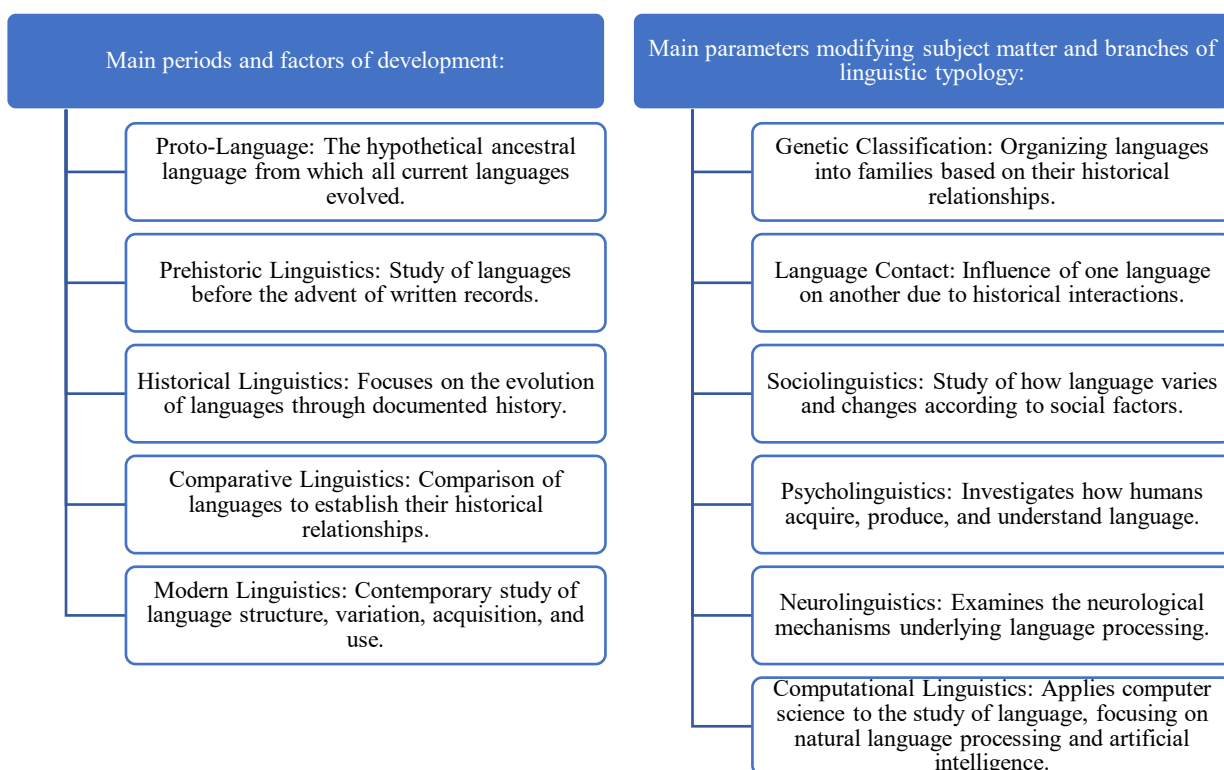
9. What are the implications of comparative typology for language preservation and revitalization efforts?

10. How can findings from comparative typology inform practical applications such as machine translation and natural language processing?

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



Key aspects of the lecture:



Linguistic typology, as an independent field, has undergone distinct periods of development, although categorizing these periods lacks a universally accepted framework. Various modern linguists, including Professor Olkhovikov B.A., have proposed different periodizations.

Professor Buranov's classification, however, is considered most fitting, delineating four main periods:

1. The Evolutional Period: This period began with the emergence of early linguistic works and extended until the Renaissance. Greek philosophers such as Aristotle and Protagoras identified primary and secondary grammatical categories, with grammar books relying heavily on analogical principles.

2. The Language Comparison Period: This era saw significant works such as the «Porr-Royal Grammar» for Indo-European languages and «Devon Lugat-at-Turk» by M. Kashgari for Turkic languages. These works treated language structure as a system and analyzed degrees of linguistic relationship.

3. The Comparative Historical Linguistics Period: This phase saw the emergence of comparative historical linguistics and the development of genealogical and typological classifications of languages.

4. The Scientific Linguistic Typology Period: This period, coinciding with the 20th century, marked the establishment of linguistic typology as an independent discipline. It witnessed the division of typology into various branches such as structural, genetic, and areal typology.

Factors influencing the development of linguistic comparison include:

1. Typological Imitation: The practice of applying methods and models from one language to study another, often resulting in the adaptation of grammatical structures.

2. Appearance of Scientific Works: The publication of scientific works in comparison contributed significantly to language analysis.

3. Study of Unwritten and Less Known Languages: Investigation into these languages, their relationships, and comparison with Indo-European languages spurred typological development.

4. Influence of Translation: Translation, being a fundamental aspect of linguistics, involves comparing language systems, contributing to typological understanding.

5. Influence of Lexicography: The compilation of dictionaries entails comparing systems of related and unrelated languages, aiding in identifying phonetic, grammatical, and lexical peculiarities.

6. Study of Foreign Languages and Interlanguage Contacts: The practical and scientific study of foreign languages necessitated comparison, with linguistic typology facilitating comprehensive language analysis.

Language typology consists of comparing multiple languages on the basis of shared features. These features can be lexical, phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic, etc. There are many types of features that have been identified and studied by linguistic typologists. Examples include the order of the subject, verb, and object in a typical grammatical sentence, the way the language marks things like number, negation, and case, and the degree to which the language utilizes various kinds of phonemes, such as vowels or nasal consonants.

One of the goals of language typologists is to elucidate features that are shared by all languages in the search for universal grammatical attributes that may further understand how the human brain evolved linguistic specialization.

If two languages share a feature that isn't universal to all languages, it could be the result of any one of three possible causes:

1. The shared feature is the result of the languages being genetically related to each other, meaning that they both inherited the feature from a common parent language.

2. The shared feature spreads from language to language through contact. This is called borrowing or diffusion.

3. It is coincidental.

A typological study may have different but interconnected goals:

1. Statement of structural similarities and differences between languages (inventory typology).

2. Interpretation of language systems in terms of compatibility/incompatibility of structural characteristics and preferred

types of structural conformity of both systems as a whole and individual levels of language (implicational typology).

3. Classification of languages into certain types and classes (taxonomic typology, which is considered the main and final goal of typology).

On the basis of analysis of works written by Russian and Foreign typologists such as Greenberg, Bondarko and others the following parameters modifying the subject matter and branches of linguistic typology were suggested.

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

System closeness means the identity or non-identity of structural types of compared languages. There are two terms in linguistics: type of language, type in language. Type of language is used much broader in linguistics than type in language. Every language has its own systemic structural organization. The system of the language consists of elements.

According to the relations of their elements languages are classified into 5 types:

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

The term «type in language» is used mostly within one language.

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

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

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

Quantitative limitation of compared languages may be of the following types:

a) minimal limitation. It means that the limit of compared languages is open. This type is used in investigating language universals;

b) maximal limitation. It means that only two languages may be compared. This type is used in comparative typology; c

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

1. From form to meaning. It is a traditional way used in linguistics. For example: work-working.

2. From meaning to form. This way is quite new in linguistics. For example, we choose the meaning of age and then begin to study how it can be expressed in compared languages: опа-сингил, ака-ука, ёш-кари.

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

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

Cross level approach to comparison is opposed to level isolation and was introduced as a method of linguistic comparison.

It presupposes investigation of all possible means of expression of a chosen categorical notion in the system of compared languages.

For example, the category of plurality can be expressed in Modern English by:

1. Morphological means: boy-boys
2. Phonological means: foot-feet
2. Phono-morphological means: child-children, house-houses
3. Lexical means: die kill (intransitive transitive)
4. Lexic-syntactic means: a lot of students, much milk.

Perfectness of typological operations. Typological operation consists of two stages:

- 1) analysis,
- 2) correspondence.

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

Answer the questions!



1. How does the concept of Proto-Language contribute to our understanding of language evolution?
2. What methods do historical linguists use to reconstruct ancient languages?
3. Can you explain the significance of the comparative method in linguistic research?
4. How does language contact influence the development of languages?
5. What are some examples of linguistic features that can be traced back to language contact?

6. In what ways does sociolinguistics study language variation within different social groups?
7. How does psycholinguistics contribute to our understanding of language acquisition in children?
8. What brain regions are involved in language processing, according to neurolinguistics?
9. How do computational linguists use natural language processing to analyze text data?
10. Can you provide an example of how computational linguistics is applied in real-world applications, such as machine translation?

THEME 3. COOPERATION OF THE COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY AND OTHER THEORETICAL AND APPLIED BRANCHES OF LINGUISTICS



Key aspects of the lecture:

Historical Linguistics:

1. Comparative typology provides data and insights into language change and evolution, aiding historical linguists in reconstructing ancestral languages and tracing language families.

Sociolinguistics:

1. Comparative typology offers a broad perspective on language variation across different cultures and societies, informing sociolinguistic studies on how language reflects and shapes social identity.

Psycholinguistics:

1. Comparative typology helps psycholinguists investigate universal linguistic patterns and cognitive processes underlying language comprehension and production across different languages and language families.

Neurolinguistics:

1. Comparative typology contributes to understanding the neural basis of language by identifying universal linguistic features and variations across languages, informing studies on how language is processed in the brain.

Computational Linguistics:

1. Comparative typology provides linguistic data for developing computational models and algorithms, enhancing the accuracy and efficiency of natural language processing tasks such as machine translation and text analysis.

Comparative linguistics, also known as contrastive linguistics, aims to compare languages comprehensively across all linguistic levels,

including phonological, morphological, syntactic, and semantic aspects. In this comparison, one of the languages is often designated as the reference language, which is typically the researcher's native language and serves as a point of comparison. The other language, known as the target language, is compared to the reference language to highlight similarities and differences. T

his comparison can also be conducted in the reverse direction, from the target language to the reference language. Sometimes, researchers create hypothetical intermediary languages to serve as reference points. In such models, common features shared by two languages are identified, and each language's correspondence to these features is outlined. This approach serves as an initial approximation towards understanding universal human language patterns.

At present, cognitive research plays an essential role in modern linguistic science, providing explanatory insights beyond traditional descriptive approaches. While traditional linguistics, exemplified by contrastive linguistics, primarily focuses on observation, description, and classification, cognitive linguistics delves into explanation.

Contrastive linguistics combines comparative and typological analyses of languages, employing a synchronous-comparative method to describe and analyze multiple language systems and subsystems concurrently. Its objective is to pinpoint significant differences and distinguishing features amid underlying similarities.

Establishing a common terminological framework is crucial due to the lack of terminological consistency in theoretical works with a contrastive focus. Typological research aims to identify shared characteristics found across all languages. Here, «typology» refers to the study of language types achieved through comparisons of individual levels, sublevels, microsystems, as well as entire language systems and groups.

Comparison in linguistics involves intralingual and interlingual methods. Scholars within this domain are interested in universal linguistic phenomena, reflecting patterns inherent in all languages.

These common patterns, known as language universals, are explored by experts like B.A. Uspensky, who focused on descriptive or absolute universals, particularly those characterizing languages synchronously.

The aim of typology as a scientific approach is to identify and categorize the distinguishing features of the subject of study, and to organize these features, along with the subject itself, based on the collective set of chosen characteristics. A group of objects sharing certain features, identified through the totality of these characteristics, is termed a «type.» The concept of «type» is universal across various disciplines, including linguistic typology. In linguistic typology, a type typically refers to a collection of specific linguistic properties or a group of languages exhibiting these properties. Narrowly speaking, a type denotes a particular linguistic expression or element, representing a form of a universal or general linguistic phenomenon.

This can include various aspects such as types of sound articulation, sentence structures, syntactic connections, and morphological expressions. Each linguistic function can manifest in diverse ways, leading to the formation of distinct types. Broadly speaking, a type encompasses generalized features of an entire language. In contemporary typology, the emphasis shifts from classifying individual languages to categorizing types, which serves as a broader objective of linguistic typology aimed at characterizing languages.

Scientists have not only conducted comparative and historical observations in linguistics but have also formulated the fundamental concept of linguistic «kinship» or relationship, paving the way for historical-comparative and typological investigations in the field. This conceptual framework has been further developed by prominent figures of the 19th and 20th centuries, including F.F. Fortunatov, A.A. Potebnya, H.O. Schelecher, A. Buslayev, Ferdinand de Saussure, Antoine Meillet, and others.

Typological investigations have been significantly advanced by scholars such as E.D. Polyvanov, I.I. Meschaninov, Boduen-de-Courtenay, A.A. Peshkovski, L.V. Sherba, L.R. Zinder, O.I. Musayev, among others.

These researchers have played pivotal roles in elucidating linguistic typology, exploring the structural and functional similarities and differences among languages.

The typological study of sentence structures owes much to the pioneering work of academician I.I. Meschaninov. Meschaninov was among the first scholars to investigate the typology of sentences across languages with diverse morphological structures. Through extensive research, he proposed a new typological classification of languages based on sentence types. According to Meschaninov, languages can be categorized into two groups: those with nominative construction and those with ergative construction.

In the first group, Meschaninov included languages exhibiting nominative constructions, encompassing agglutinative, fleective, and amorphous languages. This group comprises Turkic, Indo-European, and Chinese languages. In contrast, the second group comprises languages with ergative constructions, notably Caucasian languages such as Kabardin, Dargin, Avar, Lezgin, Chechen, and Chukchi.

Another scholar who contributed to the typological study of sentence structures, particularly in the context of morphological diversity, is V. Skalichka, of Czech nationality. Skalichka further developed Meschaninov's classification, emphasizing variations in word order across fleective languages. However, it's important to note that while Skalichka suggested that word order in fleective languages is generally free, this assertion doesn't hold true for all fleective languages. For instance, Persian, despite being a fleective language, typically maintains a fixed word order.

J. Greenberg conducted extensive research on sentence typology across various languages, resulting in his own classification system.

Greenberg categorized languages into three groups based on sentence structure:

1. Predicate + Subject + Object (PSO)
2. Subject + Predicate + Object (SPO)
3. Subject + Object + Predicate (SOP)

Some typological investigations focus on identifying similarities in features between unrelated languages, without considering historical connections. These studies, known as contrastive structure studies, contribute to language teaching and learning, as well as to future advancements in machine translation.

Comparative typology is a branch of linguistics that systematically compares languages to categorize their structures and identify universal patterns. Here is a detailed scientific overview of the field:

Core Areas of Comparative Typology

1. Phonological Typology:

- Studies the sound systems of languages.
- Focuses on phonemes, tone, stress, and intonation.
- Examples include vowel harmony, consonant clusters, and tonal languages.

2. Morphological Typology:

- Examines the formation and structure of words.
- Classifies languages based on their morphological complexity (e.g., isolating, agglutinative, fusional, and polysynthetic languages).
- Looks at affixation, compounding, and the use of inflection.

3. Syntactic Typology:

- Analyzes sentence structure and word order.
- Investigates patterns like Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) and Subject-Object-Verb (SOV).
- Studies grammatical relations, such as the marking of subjects and objects.

4. Semantic Typology:

- Explores how languages encode meanings and concepts.
- Focuses on grammatical categories like tense, aspect, mood, and modality.
- Examines the lexicalization of concepts, such as kinship terms and color terminology.

5. Pragmatic Typology:

- Studies language use in context, including speech acts, politeness strategies, and discourse markers.

- Analyzes how contextual factors influence linguistic choices.

Typological Universals

1. Absolute Universals:

- Features or rules present in all known languages.
- Examples: all languages have pronouns, all languages have a way to form questions.

2. Statistical Universals:

- Features that appear in most, but not all, languages.
- Examples: most languages have nasal consonants, most languages have a basic word order for sentences.

3. Implicational Universals:

- Conditional patterns where the presence of one feature implies the presence of another.
- Examples: If a language has voiced stops, it also has voiceless stops; if a language uses case markers, it is likely to have a relatively free word order.

Methodological Approaches

1. Cross-Linguistic Comparison:

- Systematic comparison of specific linguistic features across multiple languages.
- Aims to identify patterns and generalizations.

2. Historical Linguistics:

- Studies languages with a common ancestor to trace their evolution and divergence.
- Utilizes methods like the comparative method to reconstruct proto-languages.

3. Language Sampling:

- Selecting a representative sample of languages to ensure broad typological coverage.

- Aims to avoid biases that could arise from focusing on a limited set of languages.

Linguistics, the scientific study of language, is divided into various branches that can be broadly categorized into theoretical and applied branches. Each branch focuses on different aspects of language, contributing to both our understanding and practical applications of linguistic knowledge.

Theoretical Branches of Linguistics

Phonetics – the study of the physical sounds of human speech (articulatory phonetics (how sounds are produced), acoustic phonetics (sound waves), and auditory phonetics (how sounds are perceived))

Phonology – the study of the abstract, cognitive aspects of sounds in language (phonemes (sound units), syllable structure, stress patterns, and intonation)

Morphology – the study of the structure and formation of words (morphemes (smallest meaning-bearing units), word formation processes (e.g., affixation, compounding), and morphological typology).

Syntax – the study of sentence structure and the rules governing the combination of words (phrase structure, grammatical categories, and sentence types).

Semantics – (the study of meaning in language (lexical semantics (word meanings), compositional semantics (how meanings combine in sentences), and semantic relations (e.g., synonymy, antonymy)).

Pragmatics – (the study of how context influences the interpretation of meaning (speech acts, implicature, deixis, and conversational maxims))

Sociolinguistics – the study of the relationship between language and society (language variation, language and identity, sociolinguistic patterns, and language change)

Psycholinguistics – the study of how language is processed in the brain (language acquisition, language comprehension, language production, and neurolinguistics)

Historical Linguistics – the study of language change over time (language families, language reconstruction, and diachronic changes).

Typology – the study of systematic classification of languages based on their common structural features (phonological, morphological, and syntactic typology).

Applied Branches of Linguistics

Language Education (the application of linguistic principles to teaching and learning languages. Key Areas: Curriculum development, language assessment, teaching methodologies, and second language acquisition)

Computational Linguistics (the application of computational techniques to the processing and analysis of language. Key Areas: Natural language processing (NLP), machine translation, speech recognition, and text mining)

Forensic Linguistics (the application of linguistic knowledge to legal contexts. Key Areas: Authorship attribution, legal language, voice identification, and linguistic evidence)

Clinical Linguistics (the application of linguistic theory to the assessment and treatment of language disorders. Key Areas: Aphasia, language development disorders, speech therapy, and communication disorders)

Language Policy and Planning (the development and implementation of policies related to language use. Key Areas: Language standardization, language revitalization, bilingual education, and language rights)

Translation and Interpretation (the application of linguistic skills to translating written texts and interpreting spoken language. Key Areas: Translation theory, interpretation techniques, and cross-cultural communication)

Lexicography (the practice of compiling dictionaries. Key Areas: Dictionary design, corpus linguistics, and word sense disambiguation)

Language Technology (the development of technologies that process natural language. Key Areas: Speech synthesis, automated text analysis, and language-based AI systems)

Each branch of linguistics, whether theoretical or applied, contributes to a deeper understanding of language and its various functions in human life. Theoretical linguistics provides the foundational knowledge that informs the practical applications found in applied linguistics.

Answer the questions!



1. How does comparative typology contribute to the reconstruction of ancestral languages in historical linguistics?
2. Can you provide examples of how comparative typology informs sociolinguistic studies on language variation?
3. In what ways does comparative typology help psycholinguists investigate universal linguistic patterns?
4. How does comparative typology aid neurolinguists in understanding the neural basis of language processing?
5. What role does comparative typology play in the development of computational models for natural language processing?
6. How do historical linguistics and sociolinguistics benefit from collaborating with comparative typology?
7. Can you explain how comparative typology helps identify linguistic universals across different language families?
8. In what ways does comparative typology contribute to the study of language evolution?
9. How does cooperation between comparative typology and psycholinguistics enhance our understanding of language acquisition?

THEME 4. COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY OF LANGUAGES AND ITS RELATIONS WITH OTHER BRANCHES OF LINGUISTICS



Key aspects of the lecture:

Language Families:	Typological Universals:	Language Contact:	Psycholinguistics:	Neurolinguistics:	Sociolinguistics:	Computational Linguistics:
Comparative typology helps establish genetic relationships between languages, contributing to the field of historical linguistics by identifying language families and reconstructing proto-languages.	By comparing linguistic structures across languages, comparative typology identifies typological universals—common patterns or tendencies found in the world's languages. This information is valuable for understanding the nature of human language.	Comparative typology examines how languages influence each other through contact, contributing to the study of language contact and borrowing in sociolinguistics.	Comparative typology provides data for studying language processing and comprehension, helping psycholinguists understand how humans perceive and produce language structures.	Comparative typology contributes to the study of the neural basis of language by identifying cross-linguistic variations in linguistic structures and their neural correlates.	Comparative typology informs sociolinguistic research on language variation and change by comparing linguistic features across different social groups and communities.	Comparative typology provides linguistic data for developing computational models and algorithms, improving the accuracy and efficiency of natural language processing tasks.

“Language, like any system, language has two sides. It consists, on the one hand, of elements - phonemes, morphemes, words, expressed in sounds, and on the other hand, it has a structure,” – V.D. Arakin.

A purposeful comparative description of languages was developed, first of all, to optimize the teaching of foreign languages, which was previously carried out using the same methodology as teaching the native language. When describing any language, ancient Greek or Latin were used as original standards, which was considered the key to uniformity and scientific character.

Another prerequisite for the emergence of comparative linguistics was linguistic typology, which at first appeared in the form of a morphological classification of languages and, according to the plans of its creators - the

German romantics of the early 19th century, should have - show the originality of individual languages as a manifestation of the “spirit” of the peoples – their speakers. The typology paid main attention to the grammatical structure (morphology) of languages, and not to their vocabulary.

At the same time, typology in the narrow (proper) sense of the word proceeds from the idea of the unity of all languages of the world as means of transmitting information in human society, regardless of their family ties with each other, and in accordance with this, considers every individual language as the implementation of the so-called “world language”, which is a necessary attribute of humanity. Naturally, such an approach to languages presupposes their comparative description in order to identify fundamental similarities and thus directly connects with the establishment of the unique structure of individual languages, as is presented in private linguistics.

“The structure of a language should be understood as its internal organization, the pattern of connections and relationships of the countless number of its elements, named above and ensuring its functioning in the form of an act of communication,” – V.D. Arakin.

“The grouping of basic, essential characteristics, features and the derivation of general patterns observed in a number of languages is dealt with by a special branch of linguistics - linguistic typology, which can also be defined as the study of types of languages and types of linguistic structure,” – V.D. Arakin.

Depending on the goals and objectives that linguistic typology is designed to solve, as well as on the object that this science studies, typology is conventionally divided into general typology and particular typology.

General typology deals with the study of general problems associated with identifying the sum of similar and different features that characterize the systems of individual languages of the world. Common properties, common changes, common processes in languages belonging to very different genetic groups are explored by general typology.

Particular typology deals with the study of problems of a more limited nature. This may be a study of the typological characteristics of one language or a limited group of languages. Moreover, in contrast to comparative historical linguistics, which studies only genetically related languages, such as Slavic and Germanic languages, typology, both general and specific, studies the typological characteristics and properties of not so much related languages as unrelated languages.

Depending on the more specific and specific tasks and objects being studied, private typology includes historical, or diachronic, typology, which is faced with the task of studying historical changes in the typology (states) of individual languages, the typology of the structure of individual languages and groups of languages; for example, the transition of languages from a synthetic type to an analytical one or a change in the structure of grammatical categories that characterize a given part of speech in the ancient, middle or modern period of the history of the language.

Typological studies can be carried out both in the field of individual subsystems and individual levels of languages, for example in the field of phonological systems, in the field of morphological systems, in the field of both lexical systems in general and the typology of words. The works of this cycle will form the so-called level or acnematic typology, or typology of subsystems.

The tasks of areal typology include the study of general typological characteristics and patterns of languages located in a particular territory or area, for example: establishing the typological characteristics of languages.

Comparative typology is a classification with the identification of types and comparison by detecting similarities and differences. Comparative typology is a branch of linguistics that studies languages in comparison with each other in order to identify similarities and differences. Comparative typology includes:

- 1) comparison of related languages and unrelated languages;
- 2) typologization of the specifics of the language against the background of the general features of the language.

The scope of the concept of typology allows for the following interpretations:

- 1) the study of types of languages that are studied through comparison;
- 2) the process of identifying common features of languages;
- 3) characteristics of the structure of a particular language;
- 4) the principle of organizing linguistic material.

Objectives of language typology:

- identification of common or isomorphic features of the languages of the world, i.e., general patterns and facts characteristic of different languages, as well as the establishment of linguistic universals and possibilities for implementation in specific languages;
- establishing differences between languages or their allomorphy;
- creation of a typological classification of languages based on identified isomorphic and allomorphic criteria.

A language type is a stable set of leading features of a language that are in certain relationships with each other, and the presence or absence of any one feature determines the presence or absence of other features. Identification of the leading features of a language serves as the basis for classifying it as one or another type. For example, English and Tatar languages, unlike Russian, have a strict word order in a sentence. In English, this is a subject followed by a predicate. In the Tatar language, this is the final position of the predicate in a sentence.

There are no pure language types. Features of different types coexist in the structure of each language. For example, English can be characterized as inflectional due to the presence of the endings *Hesmokes*, as isolating due to the fixed order of words in a sentence.

Morphological classifications of language types

The variety of structures of the different languages encountered by Europeans in the 16th–18th centuries. in connection with the development of navigation and trade, it could not help but attract the attention of scientists.

This interest especially increased after the end of the 18th - beginning of the 19th centuries. Europeans became acquainted with the language of ancient India, Sanskrit, the language of the sacred books of the ancient Indians. In contrast to many modern European languages, Sanskrit had a richly developed inflectional system, division of nouns into stems, and a complex phonological system.

The German scientist Friedrich Schlegel (1772–1829), who was keenly 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 identified two groups:

- 1) affixing languages, where he included the Turkic, Polynesian languages, as well as Chinese,
- 2) inflectional languages, which included Semitic, Georgian and French languages.

His brother August Schlegel (1787–1845) first introduced the concepts analyticism and synthetism. In his classification scheme, three classes of languages were distinguished:

- 1) languages without grammatical structure,
- 2) affixing languages
- 3) languages are inflected.

But the true founder of the typology of languages as a special branch of linguistics should be considered the German linguist Wilhelm Humboldt (1767-1835). W. Humboldt is the author of the modern typology of languages.

He identified four types of languages:

- 1) insulating,
- 2) agglutinating,
- 3) inflectional,
- 4) incorporating.

W. Humboldt first expressed the idea that the comparison of types of languages can be considered as “the spiritual progress of mankind”. He mistakenly believed that different typologies of languages reflect different cultural levels of development of peoples.

In his opinion, inflectional languages, in which the unity of the word is ensured by external and internal inflection, have a “strictly regular” form. Therefore, he declared them the pinnacle of linguistic creativity. He considered languages of other types to be at lower stages of development.

In his search for a type of language, the famous German linguist Franz Bopp (1791-1867), who was the first to use the comparative method in the study of languages, paid attention to the syllabic composition of the roots of words. He identified monosyllabic languages, in which word roots consist of one syllable, and languages in which word roots can be combined with other roots and with different morphemes.

A representative of the so-called biological trend in linguistics, August Schleicher (1821–1868), proposed his own classification of languages. According to his biological concept, which presupposes development from simple forms to more complex ones, A. Schleicher believed that three types of languages reflect three stages of language development, i.e. the same thing that happens in living nature: crystal - plant - animal. He was the first to use symbols to indicate the components of a word's structure.

The representative of the so-called multilateral, or graded, typology was the American linguist E. Sapir (1884-1939). Important in his concept was the conclusion that the same changes are observed in languages territorially distant from each other, that is, these languages develop in the same direction, gradually acquiring typologically similar features and forming certain models or types.

He created a new typological classification of languages in accordance with four criteria:

- 1) the degree of cohesion of the root and affixes;
- 2) the degree of synthesis, i.e., combining elements into words;
- 3) the presence in the language of purely relational and mixed relational relations;
- 4) the nature of the processes by which morphemes are added: isolation, agglutination and fusion.

Syntactic classifications

A great contribution to the theory of typology was made by the works of Academician I.I. Meshchaninov (1883-1967). He developed a syntactic typology of languages, which consists of three types:

1. Passive languages – Chukchi and some North American Indian languages. As typological characteristics of this structure, he put forward incorporation, that is, a syntactic structure when neither the subject nor the object have any grammatical design, uniting into one complex subordinate to the leading word.

2. Ergative languages, which are characterized by ergative construction. Its peculiarity is that the predicate verb has a double syntactic connection with the subject - the verb not only agrees with the subject, but at the same time controls it, which finds its grammatical expression in the statement of the subject in a special, so-called ergative case, or the case of the actor, if the verb is transitive, and in the absolute case if the verb is intransitive.

3. Languages of the nominative system, for which the main characteristic is the use of the nominative case of the subject, regardless of whether the verb-predicate is transitive or intransitive. He classified Indo-European, Turkic, Mongolian, Finno-Ugric and many other languages as languages of the nominative system. According to this classification, Russian and English belong to the languages of the same system - nominative.

Phonetic and lexical classifications

The phonological level reflects similarities and differences in the material (sound) organization of compared languages.

Mapping units within this subsystem:

- segmental linguistic units (material units that directly form speech chains) – phoneme and syllable;
- suprasegmental (not having their own material form and implemented simultaneously with segmental units in the sound chain) - verbal stress, intonation.

Accordingly, phonetic-phonological and prosodic typologies are distinguished. The relationship between vowel and consonant phonemes serves as the basis for the typological distinction of vocalic and consonantal languages.

According to this and a number of related criteria, the English language belongs to the vocal type languages, and the Russian language belongs to the consonantal type languages. The vocalism of the Russian language is close to the “vocalic minimum”, and in the English language vowel phonemes are differentiated not only by row, rise and labialization, but also by stability of articulation, longitude and even such unique features as tension and truncation.

The vocal nature of the English language, according to some researchers, is explained in terms of its convergence with languages of an isolating type. A number of features also distinguish the consonantism systems of the Russian and English languages, the most significant of which are the presence of hardness/softness correlations in the Russian language, as well as historical and positional alternations of consonant phonemes.

On this basis, the following are distinguished:

- consonantal languages with a significant predominance of consonants
 - Abkhazian, Adyghe;
- consonantal languages with a moderate predominance of consonants (no more than 10 times) – Russian, Italian, Armenian;
- consonantal-vocalic languages (with uniform division of phonemes for vowels and consonants) – English, Romanian;
- vocal languages – French, Finnish.

This classification quite clearly characterizes the sound structure of languages, but it does not take into account the composition of phonemes and cannot be the only phonological classification.

In prosodic typology, word prosody (stress) and sentence prosody (intonation) are distinguished.

According to the prosody of a word, languages are differentiated on the basis of four variables (criteria): 1) the nature of stress (type of stress in the narrow sense of the term); 2) place of stress in the word; 3) quality of stress; 4) stress functions.

The type of stress in each language is determined by the predominant articulatory-acoustic features - melodic, dynamic or quantitative. The leading feature in both English and Russian languages is a power, dynamic feature. The discrepancies between them are revealed in accompanying features: the second most important in the Russian language is the quantitative/qualitative component, in the English language the melodic component, which is associated with the importance of vowel length in the systemic phonology of the English language.

Languages are distinguished based on the placement of stress on a particular syllable:

- with free accent (Russian, German, Italian, Bulgarian, Serbian, Greek, Swedish, Danish, Norwegian, Mordovian, Lithuanian, Abkhazian);
- with fixed accent.

Among languages with a fixed accent, the following languages stand out:

- with emphasis on the first syllable: Irish, Icelandic, Finnish, Estonian, Hungarian, Latvian, Czech, Slovak;
- with emphasis on the second syllable: Lezgin;
- with emphasis on the penultimate syllable: Spanish, Polish, Swahili, Mountain Mari;
- with emphasis on the last syllable: French, Armenian, Turkish, Persian, Udmurt, Nanai.

Lexical typology is a relatively new area of research that emerged in the 50s. XX century for the development of its method in Slavic studies, the works of B.L. Isachenko (1958), N.I. Tolstoy (1969), A.E. Suprun (1983) are especially important. The subject of lexical typology is the typological similarities and differences of lexical systems in different languages.

There are a number of features that distinguish lexical typology from the typology of phonetic-phonological and grammatical levels of language.

Firstly, typologically significant differences in the vocabulary of different languages are largely determined by the typology of their grammar and, partly, phonetics. Therefore, some deep typological differences in vocabulary are, as it were, secondary, derivative in nature (for example, differences between languages in the degree of morphemic complexity of a word; differences in the nature of the distribution of vocabulary among parts of speech; differences in the composition of the subsystem of function words, etc.).

Secondly, in comparison with phonology and grammar, vocabulary is a weaker and fuzzier, more probabilistic system, much less structured. Therefore, in contrast to phonetic-phonological and grammatical typology, in lexical typology there are no and, apparently, impossible classifications of languages.

Thirdly, the degree of knowledge of the lexical level of languages is much less than the knowledge of phonology and grammar. Due to the more complex, cumbersome and less clear organization of the lexical level of language (compared to phonology and grammar), the high labor intensity of the dictionary description of vocabulary, and even more so the creation of comparable descriptions of vocabulary in different languages, the lack of empirical data is especially noticeable in lexical typology.

Answer the questions!



1. How does comparative typology contribute to the field of historical linguistics?
2. Can you provide examples of typological universals identified through comparative typology?
3. How does comparative typology study the influence of language contact on linguistic structures?
4. In what ways does comparative typology aid psycholinguists in studying language processing?

5. What role does comparative typology play in the study of the neural basis of language in neurolinguistics?
6. How does comparative typology inform sociolinguistic research on language variation and change?
7. What linguistic data does comparative typology provide for computational linguistics?
8. How does comparative typology help identify genetic relationships between languages?
9. Can you explain how comparative typology contributes to understanding language evolution?
10. What are some practical applications of integrating insights from comparative typology with other branches of linguistics?

THEME 5. IMPORTANCE OF COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY IN OVERCOMING NATIVE LANGUAGE INTERFERENCE IN THE PROCESS IN THE PROCESS OF TEACHING EFL

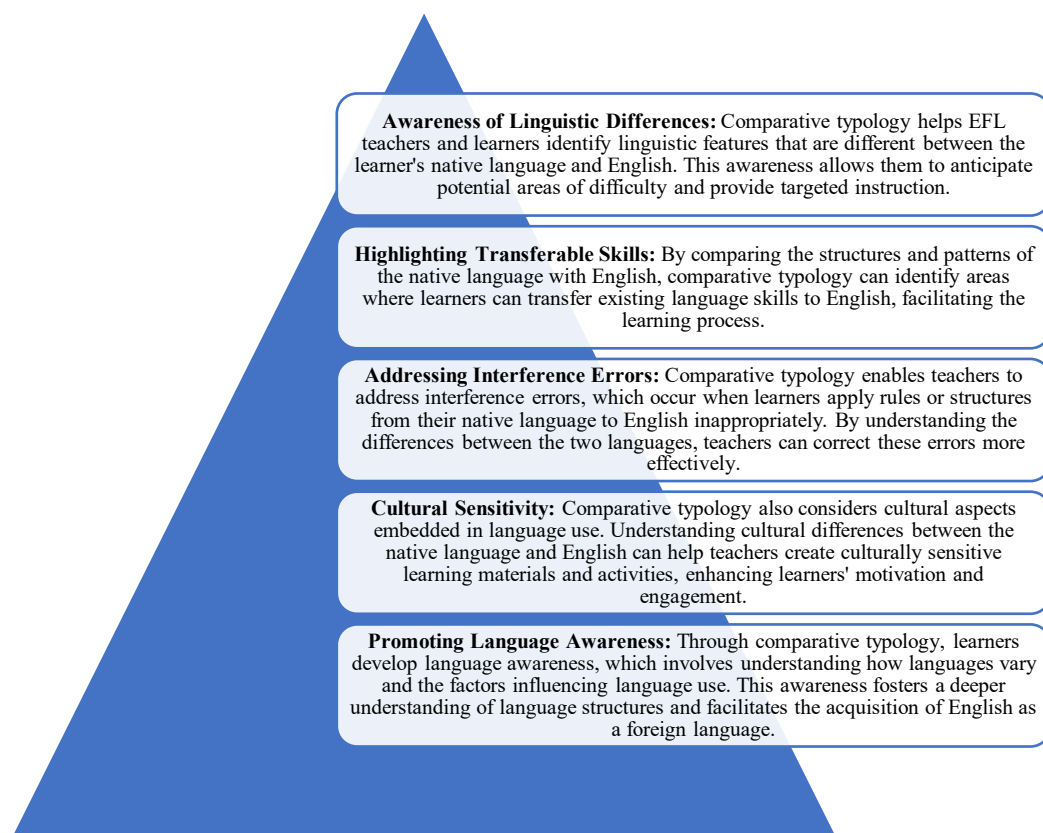


Key aspects of the lecture:

The term «interference» was first used in the exact sciences to describe interaction and mutual influence, with outcomes that could be either positive or negative. In linguistics, the term was introduced by the scientists of the Prague Linguistic Circle to refer to the process of deviation from the norms of contacting languages. U. Weinreich defined interference as deviations from the norms of any language that occur due to proficiency in two or more languages, stemming from language contact.

E. Haugen described interference as deviations from language norms in the speech of bilingual speakers due to familiarity with other languages. A. Klimov viewed interference as the result of the superposition of two systems during speech. N.B. Mechkovskaya used the term «interference» to refer to errors in foreign language speech caused by the influence of the native language system.

V.A. Vinogradov defined interference as the interaction of linguistic systems under bilingualism, formed either through linguistic contact or individual learning of a non-native language, and described deviations from the norms of the non-native language due to the native language as expressions of interference.



Interference occurs when an individual regularly uses different languages and equates units of one language with those of another due to similarities in form, distribution, or both. The depth and extent of interference can vary based on subjective and objective factors.

Generally, the smaller the typological distance between the mother tongue and the target language, the higher the degree of similarity and the greater the likelihood of interference. Conversely, when languages are not genetically related, there are fewer instances of automatic transfer, leading to fewer mistakes by learners. However, exceptions to this general trend do exist.

Interlingual interference has been defined across various fields such as comparative linguistics, psychology, and language teaching methodology. R. Lado, for example, used the term «transfer» instead of «interference» and argued that the grammatical structures of a native language might be transferred to a foreign language. When comparing definitions of interlingual interference, some researchers view it as resulting in deviations from the norms in at least one of the contacting languages, while others see it as the transfer of speech habits. The first definition is linguistic, focusing on language as an abstract system, while the second is psychological, emphasizing language as a form of speech activity. U. Yusupov acknowledges that both definitions are accurate but suggests they need further refinement.

The issue of interlingual interference and transfer in foreign language teaching has been extensively researched by numerous local, Russian, and Western linguists, including U. Yusupov, J. Jalolov, L. Vigotsky, V. Kostomarov, A. Leontyev, L. Scherba, and E. Howgen. The influence of the native language on a learned foreign language is a fundamental aspect of cognition. This influence does not always manifest explicitly or systematically but often acts as a catalyst for negative effects through the unconscious, spontaneous transfer of language habits.

This leads to abnormalities in the foreign language, known as interference, which can occur at all levels of the language system, with grammatical interference causing the most mistakes. The complexity and differing grammatical features of interacting language systems hinder speech production in the foreign language. The type and intensity of interference are influenced by various factors, including the specific conditions of language contact, language structures, and the age of the learners.

Learning a foreign language does not occur through the simple memorization of grammar elements. Instead, it involves correcting and adjusting existing language competence. Students often rely on their native language knowledge, using familiar grammar categories to interpret the new language.

As noted by E.A. Vertogradskaya, each unit of a foreign language fits into pre-existing conceptual «cells» in the learner's mind due to the universal nature of sign systems across different languages.

Each language's grammar system is unique, and the native language's linguistic structure, formed early in life, remains stable and influences the learning of foreign language elements. Predicting interference involves understanding the regular relationships and correspondences between languages. Grammar interference has two main aspects: the interaction of language systems and the disruption of individual grammar models. Interference is common in foreign language teaching, and teachers should understand how linguistic systems are actualized in students' minds.

To overcome the interfering effects of the native language, it is essential to have a deep awareness of the features of both the native and learned languages through comparative analysis.

This involves examining:

- Expression: How different language elements convey grammar meanings.
- Content: The absence of certain grammar categories or forms in one language due to semantic differences.
- Functioning: The varied use of units with identical meanings across languages.

Grammar interference often stems from differences in expression, where identical meanings in both languages are conveyed through different means. These semantic and functional differences lead to deviations from the norms of the foreign language, such as word order, verb forms, and time sequences.

Common mistakes made by students in English are frequently due to typological differences between the grammatical and lexical structures of their native and learned languages. A comparative analysis method is highly effective in preventing such mistakes, especially since philology students can more easily assimilate comparative language material.

Additionally, students often make mistakes with semantically similar words that have different structural features in the vocabulary of the first and second years of study.

In foreign language teaching, it is well known that teachers should not interrupt students to correct mistakes during speaking activities, as this can lead to demotivation.

However, in written work, such as letters, essays, or reports, teachers cannot ignore these mistakes, even though they understand the students' intended messages.

The difficulty of mastering foreign language vocabulary is evident in the differences in forms, meanings, and usage between the learned language and the native language, such as Uzbek. Some methodologists define vocabulary difficulty based on forms and meanings, while others focus on usage in speech. We propose a typology of vocabulary mistakes based on two types of interference: intralingual and interlingual.

Intralingual vocabulary mistakes arise within the learned language and are caused by:

1. Discrepancies due to analogy with already learned phenomena of a foreign language: This includes the misuse of words with similar meanings, such as confusing adjectives and adverbs, and the incorrect use of prepositions following motion verbs.

2. Different meanings and usage of synonyms: Learners may struggle with understanding and appropriately using synonyms that have nuanced differences in meaning.

3. Differences in vocabulary and grammar word combinations: Certain word combinations and collocations in the foreign language may differ from those in the native language, leading to errors.

4. Different usage of transitive and intransitive verbs: Misunderstanding which verbs are transitive or intransitive in the foreign language can result in incorrect usage.

By recognizing these common sources of intralingual interference, educators can better address and mitigate these challenges in foreign language instruction.

Intralingual interferences in vocabulary	1. Mistakes caused by discrepancies due to the analogy with already learned phenomena of a foreign language	
	again- also	She again likes watching comedy.
	else-also	I ate a hamburger. I else ate a banana.
	hard-hardly	We usually revise hard before our exams.
	to-for	to run to the station- to start for the station
	2. Mistakes caused by different meanings of synonyms and their usage	
	high-tall	
	3. Mistakes caused by differences in vocabulary and grammar word combinations	
	quite – at all	
	4. Mistakes caused by different usage of transitive and intransitive verbs	
	raise-rise	

Although in the Uzbek language adjective and adverb have the same form, students know that the adverb in English is formed by the suffix –ly, but some English adverbs in form coincide with adjectives, and when suffix –ly is added their meaning change. The mistakes caused by interlingual interference require a special attention that appears in the result of counteraction of rather old and more stable native language skills and it's harder to overcome it than intralingual.

The first and the biggest group of mistakes are caused by counteractions in semantic volume and compatibility of some Uzbek and English words. In this situation we can note the students' mistakes in using prepositions. The reason is obvious, there is no —preposition in the Uzbek language and the students do not find attachment to their native language. The mistakes connected with preposition appear because of:

1	differences in the usage of prepositions	
	In the Uzbek context	In English
	speak with somebody on the street write with ink	speak to somebody in the street write in ink
2	existence of the preposition in Uzbek and absence in English	
	In the Uzbek context	In English
	I asked from him	I asked him
3	absence of preposition in Uzbek and existence in English	
	In the Uzbek context	In English
	example a cup tea home	for example a cup of tea at home

There are also some other very common mistakes observed by English teachers among Uzbek students, such as:

1) omitting of the subject in the subordinate clause if it coincides with the subject of the main sentence or omission of the subject in incomplete answers;

2) skipping the verb – to be;

3) using double negatives;

4) confusing the adverb with adjective in compound nominal predicate;

5) confusing the place of the predicate (simple, nominal compound and verb compound);

6) confusing the place of object and case in the sentences;

7) confusing the word order in subordinate clauses;

8) misusing agreement of a subject expressed by two nouns with a predicate;

9) misusing agreement of the subject expressed by collective nouns with the predicate;

10) misusing syntactical agreement in mismatch of singular and plural forms in interacting language systems.

Non-personal verb forms require special attention, even though they are covered in grammar classes, as they are part of speech patterns studied in the third year. The gerund is particularly challenging for students because there is no equivalent grammatical structure in Uzbek. Another significant issue, highlighted by U.K. Yusupov, is the phenomenon of silent interlingual interference, which often manifests as silence. For example, Uzbek students might struggle with English impersonal complex sentences like «The more you read, the more you know,» as well as certain types of interrogative and interjectional sentences.

Additionally, English sentences such as «It's raining» or «It's windy» are difficult for Uzbek students to grasp because, in Uzbek, rain is used as the subject, leading them to say «The rain is falling.» The structural differences between the two languages can be so profound that an Uzbek student, lacking sufficient skill in constructing this type of English

sentence, cannot proceed correctly in English after identifying the subject. The speaker attempts to apply Uzbek language skills to English, but these fundamental differences make this transfer unfeasible.

The examples provided illustrate instances of interlanguage morphological and syntactic interference that arise due to discrepancies in the grammatical structures of English and Uzbek. Typical or persistent speech mistakes made by students in English are often a result of these typological differences in grammatical and lexical structures between their native and target languages. Therefore, using a comparative analysis method is highly effective in preventing such mistakes.

Introducing students to a wide range of typical word combinations helps them develop a better understanding of words and become familiar with new grammatical phenomena, their meanings, and their usage in different contexts. This exposure facilitates the language acquisition process.

When developing exercises to prevent interference, it is crucial to identify and highlight the discrepancies in form and function of similar linguistic phenomena between the native and target languages. Demonstrating these discrepancies helps students recognize the differences in the language systems. Exercises like «Spot the mistakes» are particularly useful for correcting and improving sentences.

It is important to cultivate students' ability to notice and correct their own mistakes. Initially, this can involve correcting a specific category of mistakes. For example, students might be asked to ensure that they have used active vocabulary correctly or chosen the appropriate construction from the perspective of the target language.

Interlingual interference can vary in intensity. Weak interference tends to disappear quickly after practicing certain tasks, while strong interference persists longer and requires more time and activities to overcome. With the global spread and development of English, it is used as both a second language and, for some, a first language, enjoying high prestige in many countries. In Uzbekistan, the role and status of English have reached unprecedented heights, as evidenced by its position as a key

subject in the medium of instruction and curriculum (Academic Leadership, Online Journal, ISSN: 1533-7812, Vol-21-Issue-05-May-2020, p. 123).

As the number of English learners in Uzbekistan increases, various teaching methods have been implemented to test and improve the effectiveness of the teaching process. Therefore, future teachers of English as a foreign language should not only be fluent in English and understand its structure deeply and accurately from a linguistic perspective. They must also be aware of the aspects of English that both align with and differ from the native language of their students. Additionally, they should understand the potential for interlingual interference, recognize its results, and know effective strategies for overcoming it.

Interlanguage interference is the influence of the native language system on the foreign language being learned. Even students with a good command of a foreign language often make mistakes due to interlanguage interference, which initially occurs when the native language impacts the foreign language. With prolonged immersion, the learned language can start to influence the native language as well. It is rare for someone learning a foreign language to avoid linguistic interference, which arises from the influence of one language on another. This issue typically becomes prominent at an advanced stage of learning. Interference can occur in both oral and written speech and can manifest at all linguistic levels.

Interference, like positive transfer, can affect all levels of a language: phonetic, grammatical, lexical, and spelling, significantly impacting the development of speech activity in a new language. The types of interference are categorized based on several criteria. One distinction is between communicatively relevant interference, which disrupts mutual understanding between interlocutors, and communicatively irrelevant interference, which does not hinder mutual understanding.

Interference can also be synchronous or dynamic. Synchronous interference is consistent and remains with the learner, such as an accent.

Dynamic interference occurs earlier and reflects the student's ongoing progress in language acquisition, and it can be overcome.

Based on the specifics of speech activity, we can distinguish between productive interference (the generation of speech) and receptive interference (understanding). Productive interference, evident in speaking and writing, is more easily observed and pronounced compared to receptive interference, which affects listening and reading comprehension.

Successful foreign language learning requires researchers to analyze the phenomenon of language interference and teachers to understand its causes and develop strategies to address it.

Interference can also arise from differences in typical grammatical patterns between languages. Norms from the native language are often transferred to the foreign language, leading to errors. Lexical interference occurs when there is a mismatch in the meanings of words across languages. Interference is observed during the acquisition of linguistic forms at various levels (sounds, words, sentences), and its degree depends on the similarity of these forms. When linguistic forms are similar, interference is more easily overcome. Even with complete divergence of linguistic forms, interference can be managed effectively.

However, the greatest challenges in overcoming interference occur when linguistic phenomena are partially similar. In such cases, oppositions in one language are replaced by corresponding oppositions in another language. This is particularly true at the syntactic level, where interference affects sentence construction. Overcoming interference is especially difficult when mastering the rules for word order in sentences of a foreign language.

Answer the questions!



1. How does comparative typology help EFL teachers anticipate potential areas of difficulty for learners?
2. Can you explain how comparative typology identifies transferable language skills for EFL learners?

3. What are interference errors in EFL learning, and how does comparative typology address them?
4. How does comparative typology contribute to creating culturally sensitive learning materials for EFL instruction?
5. In what ways does comparative typology promote language awareness among EFL learners?
6. How can comparative typology assist EFL teachers in understanding the cultural differences that influence language use?
7. What strategies can EFL teachers employ to leverage comparative typology in addressing language interference?
8. Can you provide examples of linguistic features where native language interference commonly occurs in EFL learning, as identified through comparative typology?
9. How does comparative typology help EFL learners develop a deeper understanding of language structures?
10. What are the practical implications of integrating comparative typology into EFL instruction for enhancing learners' language proficiency and cultural competence?

THEME 6. METHODS OF COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY AND NOTIONS OF A TYPE OF A LANGUAGE AND A TYPE IN A LANGUAGE



Key aspects of the lecture:

Consideration of the specifics of comparative linguistics and its foundations leads to the idea that the main areas of its application are linguodidactics and translation. Within the framework of linguodidactics, comparison of languages, especially native and foreign, makes it possible to predict students' mistakes, develop a typology of these errors and outline ways to prevent them through optimizing the introduction and consolidation of material.

Methods of Comparative Typology:



- ☐ **Cross-Linguistic Comparison:** Comparative typology involves comparing linguistic features across different languages to identify similarities and differences. This comparative method allows linguists to categorize languages based on shared traits and structural patterns.
- ☐ **Typological Universals:** By analyzing a wide range of languages, comparative typology aims to identify typological universals, which are linguistic features or patterns that are found across languages, regardless of genetic relationship. This method helps reveal fundamental aspects of human language.
- ☐ **Language Sampling:** Comparative typology relies on the systematic sampling of languages from various language families and geographic regions to ensure a representative analysis of global linguistic diversity.
- ☐ **Quantitative Analysis:** Some approaches in comparative typology involve quantitative analysis, using statistical methods to measure the frequency and distribution of linguistic features across languages.
- ☐ **Historical Reconstruction:** Comparative typology often integrates historical linguistics, allowing researchers to reconstruct linguistic structures and trace their evolutionary trajectories through the comparative method.

Notions of a Type of Language and a Type in a Language:



- ☐ **Type of Language:** This notion refers to the classification of languages based on shared structural features or typological characteristics. For example, languages may be classified as isolating, agglutinative, or synthetic based on their morphological typology.
- ☐ **Type in a Language:** Within a specific language, the notion of a type refers to a particular grammatical or structural pattern that is characteristic of that language. For instance, English is often described as an SVO (Subject-Verb-Object) type language due to its word order pattern.
- ☐ **Typological Profile:** Each language has its own typological profile, which encompasses its unique combination of linguistic features such as word order, morphology, and syntax. Understanding the typological profile of a language is essential for comparative typology.
- ☐ **Functional Typology:** This notion considers the functional motivations behind linguistic structures and how they are used in communication. Functional typology examines how languages express meaning and convey information through different grammatical strategies.
- ☐ **Typological Variation:** Languages exhibit typological variation, meaning that they may differ in their typological features and patterns. Comparative typology seeks to document and explain this variation across languages.

For the pedagogical process of teaching a foreign language, the identification of typologically important structural differences between a foreign language and the students' native language, with which they constantly compare the foreign language they are learning and from which they constantly build, is of primary importance. Because, as numerous observations and experimental studies show, students' native language always causes the difficulties and persistent mistakes that students make in the process of learning a foreign language. In this case, we will not be dealing with establishing the typology of the language as a whole, but with determining the typological characteristics of the language being studied relative to the native one.

In the field of translation activities, comparison of languages helps to optimize the choice of translation transformations, interpreted as recoding of information. The study of a comparative linguistic course turns out to be nothing more than the final stage of linguistic and theoretical training of a linguist teacher.

Methods for typological comparison of languages. The concept of standard language and metalanguage

The comparative historical method was developed in Indo-European languages. It focuses on material similarity (phonetic and grammatical matches in the roots and affixes of words), i.e., on external matches of word forms in different languages. Depending on the regularity of correspondence, families, groups and subgroups of languages are distinguished.

The method of typological analysis refers to comparative methods and allows one to compare related and unrelated languages. The main principle is to compare various elements of the structure of the languages being compared on the basis of their functional commonality: -л and -ed - as means of expressing the past tense in Russian and English; means of word formation, etc.

The comparative method includes the following techniques as:

- 1) establishing the basis for comparison;
- 2) comparative interpretation: facts and phenomena of language are studied using a descriptive and then a contrastive method;
- 3) typological characteristics: determining the place of a given phenomenon in the general system of structural characteristics of a given language or a given language type.

A standard language is an ideal language system, specially designed in such a way that the universal properties of languages are maximally represented in it. The goals of creating a standard language are to uniformly compare all existing languages and obtain uniform results, as well as to comprehensively study languages with a comparison of all levels of the language system. There are different versions of the standard language.

The questionnaire standard language contains a list of all objects of a real language and their features and allows you to characterize the language by indicating which features and in what combinations are inherent in a particular real language.

An example of a questionnaire-type standard language is the dichotomous phonology of R. Jakobson, M. Halle and G. Fant, according to which each phoneme of any language is described in relation to 12 paired distinctive features.

A reduction standard language assumes that the features of objects are ordered in such a way that a description of any object is achieved by successively clarifying its characteristics through the introduction of more and more specific features. First, important nuclear features are put forward, and then, by adding additional features, specific phenomena of specific languages are described. An example of a reduction language-standard is N. Chomsky's description of the type of transformational grammar, in which the basic elements of the syntactic structure are taken as a basis. For example, the phrase Tom goes by car can be represented as

N → NP → SENTENCE.

The simplest version of a standard language is a description of one language through the categories of another language. In this case, one language turns out to be the measurer, and the other the measured one. However, the disadvantage of this method is that the comparison results are not absolute.

Metalinguage is a "second-order" language, in relation to which natural human language acts as a "language-object," i.e., as a subject of linguistic research. A metalinguage, to a large extent, is built on the basis of the same units as the object language. Being a language for describing a natural language, a metalinguage simultaneously acts as a part of it. The creation of a metalinguistic system involves an inventory of terms (concepts and nomenclatures) and represents the final stage of linguistic research. Metalinguage is a complex phenomenon based on systemic relationships between terms.

The systemic-structural study of languages consists of identifying iso- and allomorhism of languages, establishing linguistic types and distributing languages into types in accordance with the specifics of their internal structure and direction. Characterology determines the essential features of a language at a given point in time.

Universology indicates the isomorphism of the languages of the world and the patterns common to all or the absolute majority of languages.

Linguistic universals are one of the most important concepts of typology, properties inherent in all or the vast majority of natural languages. B.A. Serebrennikov gives the following definition of linguistic universals: “A linguistic universal is a uniform, isomorphic way of expressing the intrasystem relations of linguistic elements, or a process of the same nature that gives the same results, manifested with a fairly high degree of frequency in various languages of the world”. Any language has features that are characteristic of other languages, so they have a general, universal character.

The possibility of identifying universals is determined by the following factors:

- 1) general patterns of functioning of language as a means of communication;
- 2) the articulatory base of the human vocal apparatus;
- 3) the relationship between language and thinking, language and the surrounding reality.

Language universals:

- 1) division of sounds into vowels and consonants;
- 2) the presence of pronominal elements (1st and 2nd person pronouns);
- 3) differentiation and contrast between name and verb; 4) the presence of meaningful, semantically complete, service units of the language;
- 5) the presence of proper names;
- 6) the phenomenon of semantic ambiguity (multiple meanings).

Typology of universals:

1. By the nature of the statement, absolute universals (characteristic of all known languages, for example: every natural language has vowels and consonants) and statistical universals (trends) are contrasted.

2. According to the method of establishment, deductive universals are contrasted, which claim that this or that phenomenon must take place in all languages of the world (in any human language there are paradigms,

oppositions, sentences, etc.), and inductive universals - generalizations of the facts of individual languages, allowing exceptions that require verification (in most languages, pronouns exist and distinguish two numbers). Inductive universals in their structure are divided into elementary ones, which describe a certain property independently of other properties (all languages have conjunctions), and implicational ones, which establish a relationship between two universal properties of a language and have a logical structure, i.e. if a language has A, t .e. and B.

3. Synchronic universals are descriptive in nature and determine the typology of language in synchronic terms. Diachronic universals record historical changes common to a number of languages.

4. Depending on the level of language, phonetic, lexical and grammatical universals are distinguished.

Answer the questions!



1. How does cross-linguistic comparison contribute to the field of comparative typology?

2. Can you explain the concept of typological universals and how they are identified in comparative typology?

3. What is the significance of systematic language sampling in comparative typology research?

4. How do linguists use quantitative analysis in comparative typology studies?

5. In what ways does historical reconstruction enhance our understanding of language typology through comparative methods?

6. What distinguishes the notion of a «type of language» from a «type in a language» in linguistic classification?

7. Can you provide examples of different types of languages based on their morphological typology?

8. How does understanding the typological profile of a language contribute to comparative typology research?

9. What role does functional typology play in explaining typological variation across languages?

10. How does comparative typology contribute to our understanding of linguistic diversity and universality?

THEME 7. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE TYPOLOGICAL CATEGORIES OF WORD ORDER IN MODERN ENGLISH



Key aspects of the lecture:

Basic Word Order: Modern English typically exhibits a Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) word order pattern in declarative sentences, such as «The cat (Subject) chased (Verb) the mouse (Object).»

Variation in Word Order: While SVO is the most common word order in English, there are instances of variation, particularly in questions and sentences with emphasis. For example, «Did the cat chase the mouse?» (Subject-Verb-Object) and «The mouse, the cat chased.» (Object-Verb-Subject).

Word Order and Information Structure: English word order often reflects information structure, with new or emphasized information placed towards the end of the sentence for emphasis. This flexibility allows English speakers to manipulate word order for communicative purposes.

Syntactic Typology: Modern English is classified as an SVO language in terms of its basic word order typology. However, it shares certain typological features with other languages, such as Germanic languages like German and Dutch, which also exhibit SVO word order.

Comparison with Other Language Families: Comparative analysis involves comparing the word order patterns of Modern English with other language families and typological categories. For example, English differs from languages such as Japanese (SOV) and Latin (SOV/SVO) in terms of word order.

Functional Considerations: Comparative analysis also considers the functional motivations behind word order patterns in Modern English, such as thematic roles, discourse structure, and pragmatic factors.

Diachronic Perspective: Understanding the historical development of word order patterns in Modern English provides insights into how and why certain word order patterns have evolved over time and how they compare to earlier stages of the language.

Corpus Linguistics: Corpus-based studies allow researchers to analyze large collections of authentic language data to identify patterns and tendencies in word order usage across different contexts and registers in Modern English.

In linguistics, word order typology investigates the arrangement of syntactic constituents in a language and how different languages employ various orders. Some languages have relatively rigid word orders, using the sequence of constituents to convey crucial grammatical information.

The study of word order typology has a rich history, with contributions from scholars such as Greenberg (1960), Vennemann (1973), Steele (1975), Keenan (1978), Lehmann (1978), Comrie (1981), Hawkins (1980, 1983), Croft (1990), and others.

The term «typology» has various uses, both within and outside of linguistics. Generally, it is synonymous with «taxonomy» or «classification,» involving categorizing the phenomenon under study into types, particularly structural types. This definition is common outside of linguistics, such as in biology.

In linguistics, the broadest definition of «typology» refers to classifying structural types across languages. Each language is assigned to a single type, and a typology of languages categorizes them into these types. This is known as typological classification, highlighting the cross-linguistic comparison inherent in the term.

A more specific definition of «typology» is the study of linguistic patterns that are found cross-linguistically, particularly those that can only be identified through such comparisons. An example is implicational universals, like «if the demonstrative follows the head noun, then the relative clause also follows the head noun.» These patterns cannot be deduced by studying a single language like English but require comparative analysis across languages.

The traditional understanding of word order typology focuses on describing syntax as sentence grammar, which involves the arrangement of words in a sentence. While word order typology has played a significant role in recent developments in language typology, the term itself may be somewhat misleading. Rather than focusing solely on the order of words, the field is more concerned with the order of constituents. Thus, it would be more accurate to refer to it as constituent order typology, a term originating from Greenberg's concept of «the order of meaningful elements.»

When we say that a language has a subject-verb-object basic word order, it doesn't matter whether the constituents consist of one or more words. This characterization applies equally to sentences like «John hit Mary» and «The rogue elephant with the missing tusk attacked the hunter who had just noticed that his rifle was unloaded.»

Additionally, constituent order typology is concerned not only with the order of constituents containing one or more words but also with the

order of morphemes that are less than a word. For example, it examines the relative order of affixes and stems within words.

The constituent order of a clause, including the relative order of subject, object, and verb, the order of modifiers (adjectives, numerals, demonstratives, possessives, and adjuncts) in a noun phrase, and the order of adverbials, are key aspects of word order typology. Word order parameters have been employed in typological studies to investigate the constituent order of a clause, the order of modifiers in a noun phrase, and the order of adverbials.

One of the most important word order typological parameters is the order of constituents in a clause. Originally, these parameters characterized the relative order of subject, verb, and object, resulting in six logically possible types: SOV, VSO, VOS, OVS, OSV, SVO.

SOV (Subject-Object-Verb) is the word order used by a significant number of languages, including Korean, Mongolian, Turkish, Indo-Aryan languages, and Dravidian languages. Examples of SOV languages include Persian, Latin, and Quechua, although they may exhibit variations from the typical patterns seen in other SOV languages. In SOV languages, a sentence like «She bread ate» would be grammatically correct.

SVO (Subject-Verb-Object) languages include English, Romance languages, Bulgarian, Macedonian, Serbo-Croatian, Chinese, and Swahili, among others. In SVO languages, the correct sentence structure would be «She ate bread.»

VSO (Verb-Subject-Object) languages include Classical Arabic, Insular Celtic languages, and Hawaiian. In these languages, a sentence like «Ate she bread» would be grammatically correct.

VOS (Verb-Object-Subject) languages include Fijian and Malagasy. In these languages, «Ate bread she» is grammatically correct.

OVS (Object-Verb-Subject) languages include Hixkaryana, where «Bread ate she» would be the correct sentence structure.

OSV (Object-Subject-Verb) languages include Xavante and Warao. In these languages, «Bread she ate» is grammatically correct.

Some languages exhibit more complex patterns. For example, German, Dutch, Afrikaans, and Frisian have SOV order in subordinate clauses but use V2 word order in main clauses, with SVO being the most common unmarked word order.

French typically uses SVO word order, but when the object is a clitic pronoun, the order switches to SOV.

The syntactic level is one of the components of the structural organization of language, the constitutive units of which are the phrase and the sentence. Syntax studies abstract models of the structure of these units and their typical meanings fixed in the language system.

A phrase is a combination of two or more significant words combined on the basis of a certain syntactic connection. The phrase serves as a means of nomination, denoting an object, phenomenon, process, quality, called the core component and specified, specified by the dependent component (“green lampshade”, “read a book”, “walk merrily”, “very close”). A phrase as a naming unit is qualitatively different from a sentence as a reporting unit: a phrase is devoid of the main features of a sentence - syntactic categories of modality, tense, person, intonation of the message. At the same time, the phrase is closely related to the sentence, since it functions as part of a sentence, revealing here different possibilities and different rules for its use. In a sentence, a phrase can appear unchanged or undergo various types of lexical and formal changes.

A sentence is the central unit of the syntactic level of language and expresses a judgment about an object, action or process, and can also encourage action (Bring some water!) or contain a question (Did you go to school?). The main properties of a sentence are communicativeness and predicativity, which determine the situational relevance of the utterance.

The phrase is described according to such parameters as 1) the nature of the semantic relationships between the components; 2) ways of expressing a syntactic connection 3) the position of the dependent word in relation to the main word of the phrase.

Type of semantic relationships between the components of the phrase:

- predicative: lie sick;
- attributive: big house;
- object: read a book;
- adverbial: to speak beautifully. Ways to express syntactic

relationships:

1. Agreement – repetition of the grammatical meanings of one word in another: a new book. An isomorphic feature of the English and Russian languages is the presence of two types of agreement - grammatical and logical: The doctor came on time vs. The doctor came on time Our family is large vs. Our family are early risers. Cases of logical agreement do not coincide in the compared languages: a typical case of agreement in English is associated with the use of collective nouns like family, committee, crew; In the Russian language, logical agreement involves mainly nouns of the general gender, such as doctor, doctor, bully, crybaby, etc. In general, formal agreement predominates in both languages. In English, the only case within phrases is represented by combinations with the prepositive adjunct this and that: this girl – these girls, that boy – those boys.

2. Control – a subordinate relationship, in which the main component of the phrase requires the statement of the dependent component in a certain grammatical form, in other words, it requires the appearance in another word of certain grammes that do not repeat the grammes of the first word: engine noise, achieve results. We can talk about control as a syntactic type of communication that has a morphological expression only in relation to the Russian language, because in modern English, only two cases of control have been preserved, causing a change in the grammatical form of the controlled word, represented by: nominal attributive phrases like Jack's hat, in which the prepositive definition is expressed by an animate noun; verbal-nominal combinations like asked him, where the verb object is expressed by a personal pronoun in the form of the objective case.

3. Adjoinment – a type of syntactic connection in which the dependence of one element on another is expressed only positionally, that is, without the use of function words or morphological changes: read quickly, argue loudly, red rose. Adjacency is characteristic of both compared languages, although the scope of adjacency in English is much wider than in Russian, since English is an analytical language.

A sentence is one of the main grammatical categories of syntax, contrasted in its system with a word (and word form) and a phrase in forms, meanings and functions (purposes). In a broad sense, this is any □ from a detailed syntactic structure to a single word or word form □ utterance (phrase), which is a message about something and is intended for auditory (in pronunciation) or visual (in writing) perception.

Offer may be simple or complex. In a narrow, strictly grammatical, sense, a simple sentence is a unit of message that, being formed according to a grammatical model specially designed for this purpose, has the meaning of predicativity (i.e., a category that, with a whole complex of formal syntactic means, correlates the message with one or another specific or an indefinite time plan of reality) and its own semantic structure, reveals them in the system of formal changes and has a specific communicative task, expressed by intonation and word order. The main characteristics of a simple sentence are: its syntactic structure, formed by certain word forms in their relation to each other; its semantic structure; word order and intonation; members of the sentence as components of the predicative basis or its distributors.

Depending on the purpose of the message, suggestions may be narrative, interrogative or incentive. With a paradigmatic approach to a sentence as a unit that has a change in form, a more detailed classification of sentences according to the purpose of the statement is possible, also covering sentences with the meanings of subjunctiveness, conditionality, desirability, and obligation. A simple sentence as an elementary syntactic construction consists of two or more constituent components, united with each other by a specific syntactic relation (predicative) that exists only in the sentence. The offer may be extended.

An elementary abstract pattern, according to which a simple unextended sentence is built, constitutes its predicative basis (structural diagram), structural pattern. These samples are classified on different grounds: one-component and two-component, free and limited in terms of lexical composition, with or without paradigmatic characteristics, non-phraseologized and phraseologized.

Each language has its own system of such structural patterns. Individual patterns in different languages may be the same, but the systems as a whole are always different. For example, Indo-European languages are characterized by two-component structural patterns containing a predicate, that is, a verb in the personal form, and a subject. The predicate always denotes a predicative feature occurring in time (action, state, property, quality), and the subject – the subject, i.e. the bearer or producer of this feature.

A sentence combines in one grammatical form several meanings of different levels of abstraction. Firstly, the structural pattern of the sentence itself has an abstract meaning - predicativeness. In addition to the meaning of predicativity and semantic structure, the sentence also has a functional meaning associated with the distribution of the communicative load between its members; this meaning is expressed by the actual division of the sentence and intonation. Research from the 60s to the 80s. 20th century showed that a sentence as a grammatical unit cannot be studied in isolation from its lexical content.

Lexical restrictions are imposed on almost all grammatical patterns of a sentence and on many rules of its functioning (these restrictions are especially obvious in ergative and active languages). The proposal has great pragmatic potential. Language provides the speaker (writer) with various opportunities to express in a sentence his attitude to the subject of speech (including its author), to the situation being reported (including the communication situation itself), and to the addressee.

A sentence as an informative unit has great structural and communicative capabilities. It carries a message, as a rule, not in isolation, but surrounded by other communicating units (sentences, statements) and

is connected with them by meaningful and often syntactic relationships. Entering the text as its structuring component, the sentence, together with other units, organizes a superphrasal unity and relates its parts to each other.

Sentence members are grammatically significant parts into which a sentence is divided during syntactic analysis. They can consist of either individual words or phrases. There are two main members of a sentence: the subject and the predicate, which are in a predicative relationship and play the most important role. The secondary members of the sentence include the addition, circumstance, and definition.

In different languages, all members of a sentence can receive different forms and have different structures. Depending on the relationship between the subject and the predicate, I.I. Meshchaninov divided all languages into languages of nominative, ergative and passive structure. Russian and English are nominative languages.

In nominative languages, the subject is always in the nominative case and agrees with the predicate in number. English is more nominative. In the Russian language, cases are possible when the bearer of an action takes a) the form of the dative case: I like (I want, etc.); I'm cold, etc.; b) instrumental case form: He was hit by a car. Thus, the members of the sentence also have their own typology. The main criterion for the typology of sentence members is their structure: a) one-component; b) two-component.

The subject is the main member of a two-part sentence, grammatically independent, denotes an object whose attribute is expressed by a predicate ("Modern Russian language" by N.S. Valgina). The subject and all minor members of the sentence related to the subject form the composition of the subject.

I. One-component subjects are expressed by one significant word. The agreement of the predicate with the subject expressed is obligatory:

- noun and pronoun (necessary agreement with a predicate in both languages);

- substantivized adjective (wounded (s) – the wounded) – agreement is carried out in different ways: singular and plural in Russian and only plural in English.

Agreement of the predicate is not necessary with the subject expressed:

- participle,
- numeral,
- infinitive of the verb,
- gerund (English).

II. Two-component subject:

- a) there is/are...n (there is a table);
- b) formal it + inf (it is important to understand...).

One of the most important areas of languages study and analysis is through examining and investigating word order patterns and/or types that exist in simple sentence structures. Consequently, in linguistics word order is referred to as the study of the order of the syntactic constituents of a language. To simply put it, word order is the order of subject (S), verb (V) and object (O) in a sentence. The primary word orders that are of interest are the constituent order of a clause — the relative order of subject, object, and verb; the order of modifiers in a noun phrase; and the order of adverbials. For example, in English the word order of a typical sentence is Subject-Verb-Object (SVO). To English speakers this seems obviously the only logical arrangement.

A basic simple sentence in English is one which contains a subject (NP) and an intransitive verb, that is (S= NP+VP), (Ahmed, 2008) and (Patzold, 1985) (as cited in Saleh Alduais, 2012).

For example: The lesson started.

S= (The lesson started.)

S= (NP+VP)

NP= (Det+ N)

Det= (the)

N= (lesson)

VP= (In. V)

VP= (started)

Other patterns of the simple sentence in English could be as the follows:

(NP+ VP+ Comp):

A comp can be (DO), (IO), (DO+IO), (DO+SA), (DO+PC);

Or it can be:

(NP+ VP+ Comp);

The (VP) here will be (a copula) and the (NP) will be (SA);

Or the (VP) is (a non-transitive verb) and the (NP) is (a PC).

In the English language the (NP) is the basic element of the simple sentence and cannot be changed unless the form of the sentence is changes to a question, imperative, etc. additionally, what comes after the NP is put obligatory, it is the VP; without VP, the sentence cannot exist. Finally, what follows the (VP) is greatly dependent on the type of the verb used whether auxiliary or lexical, and if it is lexical it can be a non-complement verb (intransitive) or a complement verb (non-transitive, transitive), etc.

Answer the questions!



1. What is the typical word order pattern in Modern English declarative sentences, and how is it represented?
2. Can you provide examples of variation in word order in Modern English, particularly in questions and sentences with emphasis?
3. How does word order in Modern English reflect information structure, and what role does it play in communication?
4. In terms of syntactic typology, how is Modern English classified, and what are some languages it shares typological features with?
5. How does the word order of Modern English compare to languages from different language families, such as Japanese and Latin?
6. What functional considerations influence word order patterns in Modern English, beyond strict syntactic rules?
7. What insights can be gained from examining the historical development of word order patterns in Modern English?

8. How do corpus linguistics studies contribute to our understanding of word order usage in Modern English?

9. Can you explain the concept of thematic roles and how they relate to word order in Modern English?

10. What are the main factors that influence word order variation in Modern English across different discourse contexts and registers?

THEME 8. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF WORD – BUILDING TYPES IN COMPARATIVE LANGUAGES



Key aspects of the lecture:

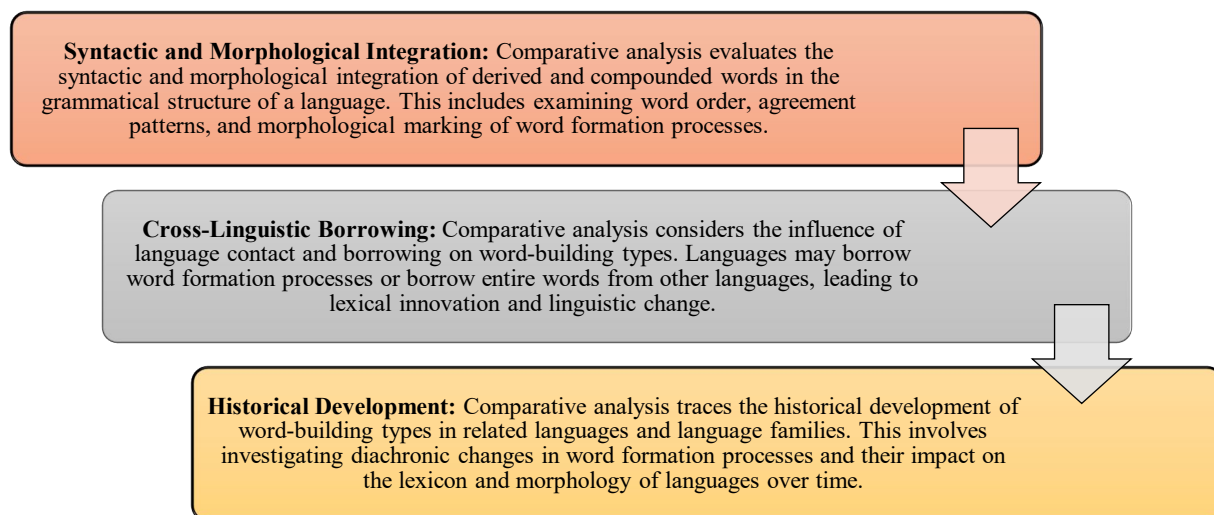
Word Formation Processes: Comparative analysis examines the various processes through which words are formed in different languages. These processes include derivation (adding affixes), compounding (combining two or more words), conversion (changing the grammatical category without affixation), and blending (combining parts of two words).

Typological Variation: Different languages exhibit varying degrees of productivity and preference for particular word formation processes. Comparative analysis identifies typological variation in word-building types across languages, such as the prevalence of compounding in Germanic languages or the extensive use of derivation in Romance languages.

Morphological Typology: Languages can be classified into different morphological types based on their word-building strategies. Comparative analysis categorizes languages as isolating (minimal morphology), agglutinative (linear concatenation of affixes), fusional (multiple meanings expressed by single affixes), or polysynthetic (incorporation of multiple morphemes into a single word).

Productivity and Creativity: Comparative analysis assesses the productivity and creativity of word-building processes in different languages. Productivity refers to the extent to which a word formation process can create new words, while creativity refers to the ability to form novel or innovative words through word-building processes.

Semantic Transparency: Comparative analysis examines the degree of semantic transparency in word formation processes across languages. Semantic transparency refers to the extent to which the meaning of a derived or compounded word can be understood based on its constituent parts.



The word is a two-sided symbolic unit, acting in the unity of the plane of expression and the plane of content.

Two directions of typological comparison of lexical systems of languages:

1) structural - the study of the morphemic composition of a word, means of word formation that exist in various languages;

2) semantic - the study of differences in the motivation of words, in the semantic structure of words, in the systematic organization of vocabulary.

The structure of a word is made up of two types of morphemes: root and affixal. Affixal morphemes: inflectional and derivational. It is important for the typology of lexical systems: identification of the predominant type of morphological structure of the word; establishing a typology of word formation related to the morphological structure of the word. In terms of the type of morphological structure, the English and Russian languages differ significantly. In English, most significant words are monomorpheme formations. The root morpheme simultaneously acts as a generating base and as an independent word: free (base) – freedom (derived word), picture (base) – picturesque (derivative).

The stem is the nuclear part of the word with which its real lexical meaning is associated and which remains after subtracting inflectional morphemes (endings) from it; an infinite secondary unit of the morphological level, necessary when analyzing the structure of a word and

determining the degree of its morphemic complexity. The stem differs from formants in its pronounced non-functional character; from the root - in that it expresses categorical attribution to one of the full-valued parts of speech, for which it is often formalized by a special fundamental element (thematic vowel or consonant, etc.); from a word - in that it has neither completeness nor formality of the latter and always exists only as part of a derivative or word form.

Depending on the number of components, the bases are divided into simple, having only one component - the root, and complex, non-simple, having more than one component. Depending on the nature of the components, complex bases are either affix-decomposable, or root-decomposable, or affix-and root-decomposable.

It is often pointed out that the last element of the stem carries information about word-forming and formative morphemes that may (or may not) follow it: for example, according to A.A. Reformatsky, a suffix like -stv- “pulls” with it a certain set of inflections in the Russian language. From the point of view of word formation, the simplicity or complexity of the stem is the factor that promotes or, on the contrary, hinders the implementation of one or another word formation process: thus, the typical ability for conversion in the English language is demonstrated only by words with a simple morphological composition. In a number of languages, the processes of morphological derivation begin with the creation of a base (base) of derivation; compare the design of bases in different types of conjugation and declension of Indo-European languages, as well as the design of the first component of a compound word in classical languages.

The concept of a stem is important for describing large and small paradigms, since more than one stem can be involved in the declension or conjugation of a word, which, to a certain extent, determines the formal complexity of the paradigm; compare the stems *делал/делали* – in the conjugation of the verb “*delat*” in Russian.

The concept of a stem is also closely related to the concept of a lexeme, and in a number of languages it is used as the basic unit of their lexicographic description (i.e., as a unit of vocabulary).

There are two ways to replenish the vocabulary of a language: affixal (word formation itself); affixless (semantic). The predominance of one or another method of replenishing the vocabulary in a language is determined by the type of morphological structure of the word. For languages with a single-morpheme word structure (English), a productive method is affix-free word formation. For languages with a two-morphemic word structure (Russian), a productive method is affixal methods of word formation. The predominance of one or another method of replenishing the vocabulary also depends on the structure of the language as a whole. For analytical languages, the semantic way of replenishing the vocabulary is a compensation for the poor development of derivational morphemes.

Compounding is the process of combining two words to create a new word (commonly a noun, verb, or adjective in both languages). Also called composition, it is from the Latin for «put together».

A.I. Smirnitsky considers compound words as a single unit of form and describes them as a linguistic unit that cannot be divided into parts, no element can be added between its components, and the position cannot be changed. Similar definitions are given in most works related to the topic.

Compounds are written sometimes as one word (sunglasses-ko'zoynak), sometimes as two hyphenated words (life-threatening, hyphenation is not typical of compound words in Uzbek), and sometimes as two separate words (football stadium-futbol maydoni). Compounding is the most common type of word-formation in English. This type of word formation is also one of the most productive ways of the Uzbek language.

According to basic spelling rules of the Uzbek language following compounds are written as one word:

1. Compounds (especially adjective and noun compounds) which are formed with the help of such words: *Xona, nota, poya, bop, xush, ham, baxsh, kam, umum, rang, mijoz, sifat, talab*

For example: *qabulxona, tabriknoma, taklifnoma, bedapoya, ommabop, xushxabar, hamsuhbat, orombaxsh, kamquvvat, bug'doyrang, umumxalq, sovuqmijoz, devsifat, suvtalab*

2. Noun compounds and adjective compounds which end -ar
(negative form - mas)

For example: *o'rinbosar, otboqar, cho'lquvar, ishyoqmas, qushqo'nmas*

3. A compound noun and a compound adjective denoting an object by comparing it with something else.

For example: *karnaygul, qo'ziqorin, otquloq, oybolta, devqomat, sheryurak, bodomqovoq, qirg'iyko'z*

4. Compound nouns are used to describe something based on its color, taste, something in it, and so on.

For example: *olaqarg'a, qizilishton, achchiqtosh, mingoyoq*

5. Compound nouns are used to indicate that an item is intended for a purpose For example: *kirsovun, qiymataxta, tokqaychi, oshrayhon, molqo'ra, nosqovoq, ko'zoynak*

6. Compound nouns are indicated the location of the object. For example: *tog'olcha, cho'lyalpiz, suvilon, qashqargul*

7. Compound nouns which are names of Rituals, legends, etc.

For example: *kiryuvdi, kelintushdi, qoryog'di, Urto'qmoq, Ochildasturxon*

8. The second part are formed by common noun or the word «obod»

For example: *Yangiyo'l, To'rtko'l, Mirzacho'l, Sirdaryo, Kosonsoy, Yangiobod, Xalqobod*

9. Compound words borrowed from Russian or translated word by word

For example: *kinoteatr, radiostansiya, fotoapparat, elektrotexnika; teleko'rsatuv, yarimavtomat, bayramoldi, suvosti*

Based on basic spelling rules of the uzbek language following compounds are written as two separated words:

1. when the second part of the compound nouns are proper noun

for example: *O'rta Osiyo, Ko'hna Urganch, O'rta Chirchiq*

2. Parts of a compound verb are written separately

For example: sarf qil, ta'sir et, tamom bo'l, sotib ol, olib kel , olib chiq, miq etma.

O.D. Meshkov describes compound words in English as follows: it is formed by the union of two or more bases, and it manifests itself in speech as an indivisible lexical unit». He divides compound words into the following two groups according to the sign of motivation:

1) Structurally motivated compound words - derive from the sum of the meanings of the components of the common meaning.

For example: footwear

2) Structurally unmotivated compound words - do not arise from the sum of the meanings of the components of the common meaning.

For example: ladybird

But an uzbek linguist A. Hodzhiev denies the phenomenon of word formation by combining two words (composition). All Uzbek works, articles, theses on wordformation mention the «compositional method» of word-formation and describe it as a productive method of word-formation. However, the scientist notes that if the Uzbek language approaches the phenomenon directly from its own materials, it becomes clear that there is no compositional word formation in this language.

In Uzbek, two independent words are connected in a certain grammatical form, and there is a grammatical connection between the compound words. This connection results in a syntactic unit a phrase or a sentence, not a lexeme. We should bear in mind the fact. «

Of course, so-called «compound words» also occur in certain ways. But it is necessary to distinguish the phenomenon of the formation of a new word on the basis of a special method, when a word occurs in one way or another, due to an event. The scientist warns that the following should be taken into account:

First of all, When creating a new word by word-formation method, a special word-forming tool (unit) is used, which is called a word-builder. For example: containing the words of ishchi, tozala -chi and -la word-

builders in the words. There is no such thing as a compound word. The words such as itburun, boyo'g'li, and

qirqog'ayni do not have a word unit. Consequently, they do not have word-formation, they cannot be said to be formed in the same way.

Second, a word (derivative) formed by the word-formation method is formed from a specific word using a word-builder, and this word (this part of the derivative) is the basis of word formation. For example, the word rohatlanmoq is derived from the word rohat. In this word, rohat is the root or core of word formation, -lan is the word-formative adverb. Every derivational word consists of a core and a word-forming part. Compound words do not have this content. So, they do not have means of word formation and method of word formation.

Third, in a special way, the meaning of words made using special units arises from the meaning of its parts, the meaning of which can be based on the meaning of parts: dutorchi - (musician who plays the dutor), og'irlashdi - the weight was heavy, chiroyli - had a good (pleasant) beauty, and so on. There is no such thing as a «compound word»: the meaning of the word itog'iz (flower name) cannot be based on the meaning of its parts (it, og'iz).

As regard to the English language compounding exists in several different forms and parts of speech, including the following: Compound Adjective Types of compound adjectives

Not every compound adjective contains two singular adjectives. We realize that sounds a bit confusing, so this chart should explain it more clearly:

Adjective + Noun = Short-term, first-time, long-distance

Adjective + Present Participle = Fast-talking, time-saving, waste-reducing

Noun + Past Participle = Whitewashed, sun-dried, homegrown

Number + Noun = Second-place, nineteenth-century, four-wheel

Noun + Adjective = Ice-cold, sky-blue, cruelty-free

Noun + Present Participle = English-speaking, mouth-watering, self-effacing

Adverb + Past Participle = Wellorganised, overweighed, undercooked
Adjective + Past Participle = Double-baked, deep-fried, cold-blooded
Noun + Noun = Seasick, meat eater, bulletproof

Compound Adverb. Also called a compound modifiers, compound adverbs are sometimes written as one word (e.g., everywhere), sometimes as one hyphenated word (self-consciously), and sometimes as two words (inside out).

Compound Noun. A compound noun is a noun that is made with two or more words. A compound noun is usually [noun + noun] or [adjective + noun], but there are other combinations. It is important to understand and recognize compound nouns. Each compound noun acts as a single unit and can be modified by adjectives and other nouns.

There are three forms for compound nouns:

open or spaced - space between words (tennis shoe)

hyphenated - hyphen between words (six-pack)

closed or solid - no space or hyphen between words (bathroom)

Compound Tense

The compound tenses are a combination of present or past tense (shown through an auxiliary verb) with continuous or perfect aspect.

present = present of be + -

continuous ing participle.

Mashhura is explaining his opinion to his boss

past = past of be + -ing participle.

continuous

Feruza was eating an apple when the telephone rang.

present = present of have + -

perfect ed participle.

I have travelled all around the world

past = past of have + -ed participle.

perfect

Rory had had enough of their silly questions. Compound Verb

A compound verb is a verb that is made up of multiple words. The compound verb can take on such forms as:

A prepositional verb: Responsible for. A phrasal verb: Take away.
A verb with auxiliaries: Will meet. A compound single-word verb: Wear away

In most compounds the rightmost morpheme determines the category of the entire word. Thus, greenhouse is a noun because its rightmost component is a noun, spoonfeed is a verb because feed also belongs to this category. «English orthography is not consistent in representing compounds, which are sometimes written as single words, sometimes with an intervening hyphen, and sometimes as separate words. In terms of pronunciation, however, there is an important generalization to be made.

A second distinguishing feature of compounds in English is that tense and plural markers cannot typically be attached to the first element, although they can be added to the compound as a whole. (There are some exceptions, however, such as passers-by and parks supervisor.)

Answer the questions!



1. What are the main word formation processes examined in comparative analysis, and how do they differ across languages?
2. Can you provide examples of typological variation in word-building types among different language families?
3. How do languages differ in terms of morphological typology, and how does this affect their word-building strategies?
4. What factors contribute to the productivity and creativity of word formation processes in languages?
5. What is semantic transparency, and how does it vary across word formation processes in different languages?
6. How are derived and compounded words syntactically and morphologically integrated into the grammatical structure of a language?
7. What role does language contact and borrowing play in influencing word-building types across languages?

8. How has the historical development of word-building types contributed to linguistic change and the evolution of languages?
9. Can you explain how cross-linguistic borrowing impacts the lexicon and morphology of languages?
10. What insights can be gained from comparing word-building types across related languages and language families?

THEME 9. TYPOLOGY OF GENDER LINGUISTICS IN COMPARATIVE LANGUAGES



Key aspects of the lecture:

Grammatical Gender Systems: Comparative analysis examines the presence and nature of grammatical gender systems in different languages. These systems categorize nouns into classes (genders) and typically involve agreement between nouns, adjectives, and other elements within a sentence.	Types of Gender Systems: Languages may exhibit various types of gender systems, including natural gender (based on biological sex), semantic gender (based on semantic criteria), and arbitrary gender (based on arbitrary assignment). Comparative analysis identifies the predominant type(s) of gender systems in languages and their structural characteristics.	Number of Genders: Languages vary in the number of genders they possess, ranging from two (masculine and feminine) to more complex systems with multiple genders. Comparative analysis investigates the number of genders in different languages and the criteria used to assign nouns to specific genders.
Gender Agreement Patterns: Comparative analysis examines the patterns of agreement between nouns and other elements in the sentence, such as adjectives, determiners, and pronouns. This includes investigating whether gender agreement is marked morphologically, syntactically, or through other means.	Marking of Gender: Comparative analysis investigates how gender is marked on nouns and other elements in the sentence. This may involve inflectional marking (e.g., noun endings), lexical marking (e.g., inherent gender in noun roots), or agreement marking (e.g., agreement with gender-marked determiners).	Grammaticalization of Gender: Comparative analysis traces the historical development and grammaticalization of gender systems in languages. This involves examining diachronic changes in gender marking and agreement patterns and their implications for language evolution.
Typological Variation: Languages exhibit typological variation in their gender systems, with some languages having robust and highly grammaticalized gender systems, while others have minimal or no gender distinctions. Comparative analysis identifies typological trends and patterns in gender linguistics across languages and language families.	Gender and Sociolinguistics: Comparative analysis considers the sociolinguistic factors influencing gender systems, such as language contact, language change, and societal attitudes towards gender. This includes investigating how gender systems evolve and adapt in multilingual and multicultural contexts.	

The extralinguistic category that aligns most closely with gender is sex. However, in many languages where gender exists, it goes beyond a simple grammaticalization of biological sex (male or female). In fact, in most languages where masculine gender is assigned to male entities and feminine gender to female ones, there's often a degree of seemingly

arbitrary gender assignment. Sometimes, gender assignment even contradicts expectations based on biological sex.

Seemingly random gender assignment: in French, men are masculine (il p`ere ‘the.MASC father’) and women are feminine (la m`ere ‘the.FEM mother’), but since gender assignment affects all nouns, most inanimate entities are assigned to one gender without regard to meaning. The following nouns are masculine: drame ‘tragedy, drama’, gant ‘glove’, saphir ‘sapphire’. The following nouns are feminine: explosion ‘explosion’, grillade ‘grilled meat’, pri`ere ‘prayer’. Gender assignment which is not in harmony with sex: in German, men are masculine (der Mann ‘the.MASC man’) and women are feminine (die Frau ‘the.FEM woman’), and there is a third gender called neuter (das Haus ‘the.NEUT house’). Some human beings are neuter: M`annlein ‘little man’, Fr`aulein ‘Miss’, M`adchen ‘girl’, Weib ‘woman’ (archaic), Kind ‘child’. For some of these there is a simple rationale: nouns in -lein and -chen are diminutives, and diminutives are always neuter in German, regardless of sex; morphology overrides sex in German. Fr`aulein is only formally a diminutive, but not semantically, and for M`adchen the non-diminutive base noun Maid ‘young woman’ is distinctly archaic. Still, the nouns pattern with the frequent diminutives in -lein and -chen. Indo-European languages with gender systems normally have two genders (masculine and feminine) or three genders (masculine, feminine, neuter). Other languages make similar distinctions between noun classes:

Ojibwa (and other Algonquian languages) distinguish between ‘animate’ and ‘inanimate’ nouns. As with gender in Indo-European languages, such a distinction is partly semantic. The following are semantically animate and belong to the animate noun class: enini ‘man’, enim ‘dog’, menito: ‘Manitou’. The following are semantically inanimate and belong to the inanimate noun class: essin ‘stone’, peka:n ‘nut’, wa:wan ‘egg’. Some things Europeans tend to think of as inanimate are in the animate class, and this can be motivated by religious beliefs; trees for instance are animate. And there are certain nouns which are in the animate class and for which it is difficult to find any such rationale, e.g. meskomin

‘raspberry’ and uppwa:kan ‘pipe for smoking’. Other languages have more than three classes. Dyirbal has four, and Bantu languages normally have more than ten noun classes. If there are more than three such classes, people often speak of noun classes rather than genders, but the principles behind gender and noun classes are essentially the same.

In approaching the systems of Indo-European languages and Algonquian languages, it's intuitive to consider them in a similar manner, despite the semantic basis of the former being sex and of the latter, animacy. For convenience, I'll refer to all such systems as gender systems. While in everyday usage, English «gender» typically refers to sex-based classifications, in typological studies, an older meaning of the word is used.

The term «gender» originates from the Latin word «genus,» which means «kind» or «sort.» I'm employing the English word in this sense. In Late Latin, the noun became masculine and took on the form «generem,» which led to Old French «gendre,» and eventually, to English «gender.» The French term «genre» continues the Old French noun, and the second English loanword, «genre,» is closer in meaning to Latin «genus» and the linguistic term «gender.» (Interestingly, German has also borrowed the French noun «genre,» using it as a neuter.)

It is approached different genders as a linguistic method of classifying nouns, a way of categorizing them. The definition of gender traces back to Hockett (1958): «Genders are classes of nouns reflected in the behavior of associated words.» In simpler terms, nominal genders are manifested in the marking of adjectives, articles, verbs, and so on.

In recent years, linguistics has witnessed the emergence of new anthropocentric paradigms, with gender linguistics being a significant development within this framework. Originating primarily from Western humanitarian sciences, early research on gender was spurred by new perspectives in intelligence studies, philosophy of science, and philosophy of society. «Gender» stands as the central focus of genderology, encompassing the cultural depiction of sexes, societal roles of males and females, and their interactions and behaviors.

Post-structuralism has posed a significant challenge to essentialist notions of gender, profoundly shaping our understanding of it. Emphasizing the constitutive nature of discourse, post-structuralism has influenced linguistic studies substantially, contributing to a «linguistic turn» across various disciplines. Language, according to Chris Weedon, serves as the arena where social organization forms, and their social and political implications are delineated and contested, while also shaping our sense of self and subjectivity.

Moreover, the term «gender» presents a complex concept in linguistic discourse. Linguists have particularly focused on distinguishing between «gender» and «sex.» Cameron highlights a 'correlational' relationship between sex and gender, suggesting that gendered behavior either builds upon existing sex differences or is arbitrary, with behavior coming to symbolize sex differences over time.

Gender, as O.V. Ryabov explains, encompasses a wide range of socially constructed roles, traits, attitudes, behaviors, values, and power dynamics attributed to the sexes differentially. While biological sex is determined by genetic and anatomical characteristics, gender is an acquired identity that evolves over time and varies across cultures. It is inherently relational, pertaining not only to women or men but to the dynamic interaction between them. Ryabov elucidates the interconnectedness of these terms, viewing sex as biological and gender as a socio-cultural construct with elements of both, forming a cohesive whole.

A genderological analysis of language not only aids in comprehending its anthropocentric paradigm but also sheds light on male and female peculiarities within it. V.A. Maslova's perspective emphasizes that humans primarily perceive the world through linguistic frequency, constructing their own intellectual, spiritual, and social realities. Thus, language constructs a unique world shaped by individual and collective consciousness, facilitating an exploration of human relationships based on gender dynamics.

According to Jane Sunderland, gender can be discerned and examined across various contexts, including:

- Differences and similarities between women and men, boys and girls.
- Diversity within individuals of the same gender group.
- Linguistic interactions with individuals or groups based on gender, such as forms of address and discourse.
- Discourse surrounding gender differences, similarities, and diversity.
- Representation of individuals or groups in spoken and written texts, considering gender relevance.

Gender manifests in the vocabulary of every culture, with male and female characteristics evident in phraseological units and proverbs across different ethnicities and cultures. For instance, various groups of phraseological units can be analyzed to compare the genderological features of three languages:

❖ a list of phraseological units can be related only male features such as: *general's battle, brother of the angle* → *шут гороховый, рыцарь без страха и упрёка* → *қулоғида кун кўриниб қопти, жон куйдирмасанг – жонона қайда*.

❖ a list of phraseological units can be related only female features such as: *lady of the house, one's good lady*, → *подруга жизни, талия в рюмочку* → *онаси ўнмаган, аёл макри қирқ туяга юк*.

Another example can be observed in hidden semantic form of possessiveness: o Phraseological units with the peculiarities of male and female appearances and their characters that cannot be met in the language system of other cultures or nations and their possessive concepts have hidden semantic distinctiveness. For instance, English “May Queen” (May-queen a young woman crowned with flowers as queen on Mayday, hyponyms can be filled, girl, miss, missy, young lady, young woman, i.e. the full structure of “*May Queen*” is “*Queen of the May*”, and obviously the hidden form of possessiveness can be observed here). “*Girl Friday*”

(it is a female employee who has a wide range of duties, usually including secretarial and clerical work, originally by extension, from the character Man Friday in Robinson Crusoe, and structurally it is “girl (man) of Friday”). In Uzbek “*устаси фаранг*” (expert of his work), “*бек ойим*” (mother or wife of beks (landlords) and form of addressing to them), the structural form of possessiveness is “*бекнинг онаси*” and others.

Phraseological units of male and female characters, which can be observed in lexicology of most languages. For example, in Uzbek “*эркак сабзи*” or “*эркак шода*” is used for women who does the work of men and in appearance. Also, looks like a man, or in English the equivalent of this phrase can be “*blue stocking*” (an intellectual or literary woman originally late XVII century: originally used to describe a man wearing blue worsted (instead of formal black silk) stockings; extended to mean 'in informal dress'. Later the term denoted a person who attended the literary assemblies held (circa 1750) by three London society women, where some of the men favored less formal dress. The women who attended became known as bluestocking women or blue-stockingers). However, in Russian there is such characteristics of female character. Instead of this they interpret female as scandalous creature as *базарная баба* or androcentric metaphor like *аннетитная женщина* etc.

Answer the questions!



1. What are the main types of gender systems found in languages, and how do they differ in terms of their criteria for categorizing nouns?
2. Can you provide examples of languages with natural gender, semantic gender, and arbitrary gender systems, and describe how each type functions?

3. How does the number of genders in a language vary across different language families, and what factors influence the complexity of gender systems?

4. In what ways do languages mark gender agreement between nouns and other elements in the sentence, and how does this differ across language typologies?

5. What are some common methods for marking gender on nouns, and how do these methods contribute to the overall structure of a language's gender system?

6. How has the grammaticalization of gender systems in languages evolved over time, and what are some examples of diachronic changes in gender marking and agreement patterns?

7. Can you explain how languages exhibit typological variation in their gender systems, and what trends emerge from comparative analysis?

8. What sociolinguistic factors influence the development and maintenance of gender systems in languages, and how do they shape gender linguistics?

9. How do languages with robust gender systems adapt and evolve in multilingual and multicultural contexts, and what are the consequences for gender linguistics?

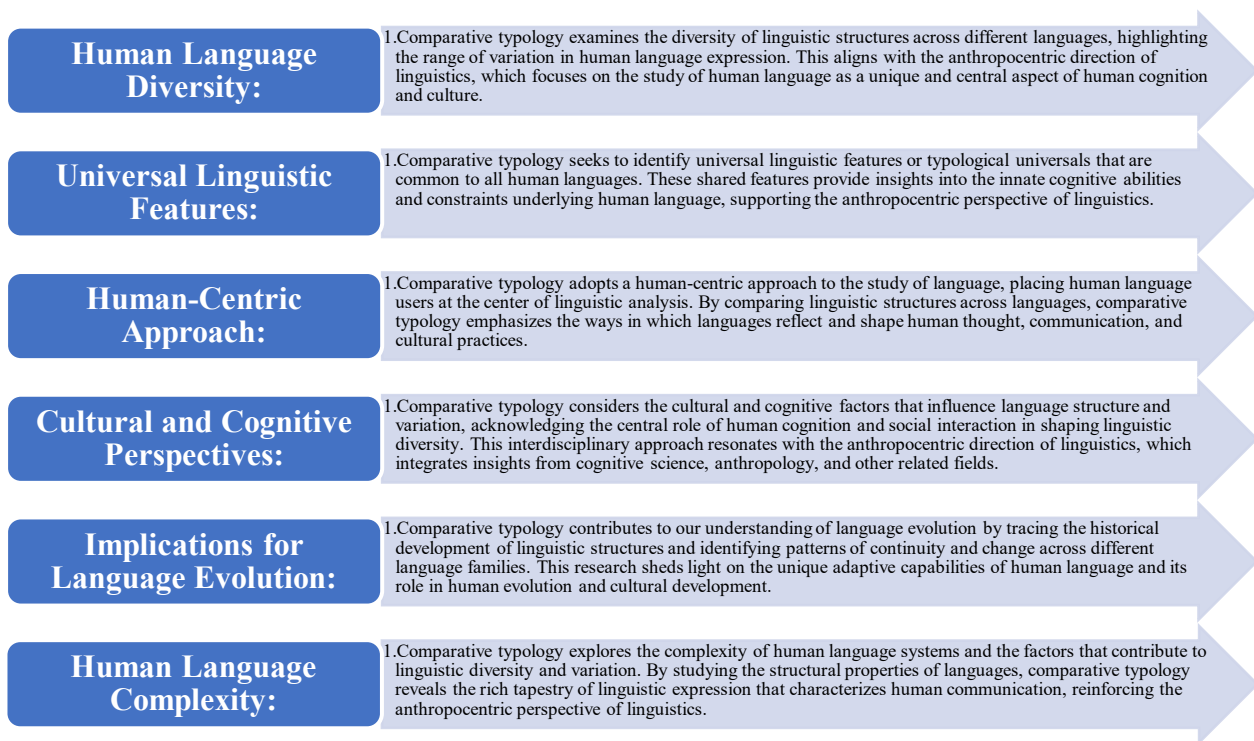
10. What insights can comparative analysis of gender linguistics provide about the universality and diversity of language structure and function across different cultures and societies?

THEME 10. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY AND ANTHROPOCENTRIC DIRECTION OF LINGUISTICS



Key aspects of the lecture:

The advancement of linguistics towards the end of the 20th and beginning of the 21st century is marked by linguistic expansionism, which not only entails the integration of linguistic knowledge into various scientific disciplines but also the practical application of linguistic principles to address real-world problems.



Applied linguistics, as evidenced by the works of Kubriakova (2004) and Stepanov (2009), exemplifies the high level of modern language science by tackling practical issues and demonstrating the relevance of linguistic research in diverse domains.

Within this context, researchers like P. Kostomarov & A. Ptashkin (2015) emphasize the importance of an anthropocentric approach to linguistics, particularly in the discourse of authorship. D.M. Dreeva (2016) explores intertextuality from an anthropocentric perspective, while N.N. Boldyrev & O.G. Dubrovskaya (2016) highlight the socio-cultural discourse of text research as an integral aspect of the anthropocentric approach. T.V. Romanova (2015) grounds her study in the history of linguistics, while J.V. Krochuk (2015) focuses on the language perspective of the individual. Despite their diverse methodologies and areas of focus, these researchers all appeal to the anthropocentric nature of linguistics.

However, despite the wealth of research exploring anthropocentric themes within linguistics, the recognition of anthropocentric linguistics as a distinct field of knowledge remains elusive. This lack of formal recognition may stem from various factors, including the interdisciplinary nature of anthropocentric linguistics, methodological differences among

researchers, and perhaps a broader reluctance within academia to acknowledge new paradigms or subfields. As the field continues to evolve and interdisciplinary collaborations become more commonplace, it is possible that anthropocentric linguistics will eventually gain recognition as a legitimate area of study within the broader discipline of linguistics.

The anthropocentric paradigm in linguistics represents a significant shift in the way language is studied and understood. Coined by the American philosopher Thomas Kuhn in the 20th century, the term «paradigm» refers to fundamental shifts in scientific understanding. Unlike in some fields where paradigms may replace one another, in linguistics, paradigms often complement and coexist with one another.

Traditionally, linguistics has been approached through three main paradigms: the comparative-historical paradigm, the system-structural paradigm, and the anthropocentric paradigm. The comparative-historical paradigm, prevalent in the 19th century, relied on methods like the comparative historical approach. The system-structural paradigm focused on the structure of language, particularly the word. However, the anthropocentric paradigm has emerged as a dominant framework in modern linguistics, returning human beings to the center of linguistic inquiry.

The anthropocentric paradigm emphasizes the inseparable connection between language and human cognition, affect, and motivation. It asserts that understanding language requires understanding human consciousness and the subjective experience of individuals. From this perspective, language is not just a system of communication but also a reflection of human thought, emotions, and values.

Within the anthropocentric paradigm, there are four interconnected but distinct directions. These directions explore different aspects of the relationship between language and humanity, including the role of language in shaping individual identity, the influence of cultural and social factors on linguistic behavior, and the ways in which language reflects and shapes human cognition.

Overall, the anthropocentric paradigm emphasizes the centrality of human experience in the study of language and encourages a holistic approach to linguistic inquiry.

The anthropocentric paradigm in linguistics encompasses four distinct directions, each focusing on different aspects of the relationship between language and humanity.

The first direction views language as a reflection of the individual, exploring how people construct their identity and worldview through language. It delves into the linguistic representation of personal experiences, emotions, and beliefs.

The second direction, communicative linguistics, examines language in the context of interpersonal communication. It investigates how individuals use language to interact, convey meaning, and establish social connections.

The third direction explores the role of language in cognitive processes and human thought. Drawing on insights from cognitive science and psychology, this direction investigates how language shapes and is shaped by cognitive functions such as perception, memory, and problem-solving.

The fourth direction, which lacks a specific name, focuses on the internalization of language within individuals. It seeks to understand how language is acquired, processed, and stored in the human mind, examining the neurological and psychological aspects of language use.

Each of these directions combines elements of formal description with functional explanations, offering unique models for understanding language and addressing fundamental questions about its organization and functioning.

V.A. Maslova categorizes linguistics into three scientific paradigms: comparative-historical, system-structural, and anthropocentric. While the comparative-historical paradigm was the earliest approach to linguistic inquiry, focusing on historical language development, the system-structural paradigm centered on the formal analysis of language structure, particularly at the level of words. In contrast, the anthropocentric

paradigm shifts focus from linguistic objects to the individual, exploring the interplay between language and human cognition, identity, and social interaction.

Anthropocentric linguistics recognizes that language exists within individual minds and shapes personal experiences, emotions, and social interactions. This perspective emphasizes the importance of studying language in relation to human consciousness, self-awareness, and cultural identity. It has led to the emergence of interdisciplinary fields such as psycho- and ethnolinguistics, socio- and paralinguistics, linguoculturology, and pragmalinguistics, which explore the diverse ways in which language influences and reflects human behavior and society.

The anthropocentric approach in linguistics has indeed brought about significant changes in the field, leading to both interdisciplinary collaboration and methodological challenges.

On one hand, the expansionism of modern linguistics has fostered interdisciplinary research, allowing linguists to draw insights and methodologies from other human sciences such as psychology, cultural studies, and political science. This cross-disciplinary approach has enriched linguistic inquiry by offering new perspectives and methodologies for studying language in its broader social, cultural, and psychological contexts. Researchers now explore linguistic phenomena through the lens of various disciplines, shedding light on the complex interplay between language, cognition, society, and culture.

On the other hand, the embrace of anthropocentrism in linguistics has also presented challenges in terms of methodological rigor and accuracy. Some researchers may justify methodological failures or inaccuracies by attributing them to the complexity of human behavior and cognition, as well as the multifaceted nature of language itself. Anthropocentrism, while emphasizing the centrality of human experience in language research, should not serve as a blanket justification for methodological shortcomings. It is essential for linguists to uphold rigorous standards of research methodology and strive for precision and clarity in their analyses, regardless of the interdisciplinary nature of their inquiries.

In summary, the anthropocentric approach in linguistics has facilitated interdisciplinary collaboration and broadened the scope of linguistic inquiry. However, it also requires researchers to navigate methodological challenges with diligence and rigor, ensuring that their analyses uphold the highest standards of scholarly integrity and accuracy.

Anthropological linguistics, and by extension the anthropological paradigm, has yet to achieve full recognition compared to other subfields like psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, ethno linguistics, and pragmatic linguistics, which have emerged as distinct areas of study. This lack of recognition can be attributed to several factors, including the ambiguity surrounding the object and subject of anthropological linguistics, as well as its methodological and methodical framework. Additionally, the delineation of its relationships with related disciplines within linguistics and the broader humanities remains unclear.

At the core of the anthropological paradigm lies the study of human language. However, discerning which phenomena and processes are solely determined by the human factor within language, as opposed to those that are independent of it, presents a significant challenge. It is essential to avoid a mechanistic approach that artificially separates the concepts of language and person, as this can limit the scope of anthropological linguistics.

For instance, the assertion that anthropological linguistics revolves around identifying how people influence language and determining how language influences individuals, their thought processes, and culture reflects a mechanistic perspective. Such a viewpoint implies an autonomous existence of language and person, neglecting the intricate interplay between the two.

To advance anthropological linguistics, it is crucial to adopt a more holistic and interdisciplinary approach that acknowledges the dynamic relationship between language and human behavior, cognition, and culture. By integrating insights from various disciplines and embracing a nuanced understanding of the complexities inherent in human communication, anthropological linguistics can aspire to attain the

recognition it deserves as a vital field of study within linguistics and the humanities.

Baudouin de Courtenay's insights underscore the fundamental relationship between language and the human person, a cornerstone of the anthropological paradigm. His assertion that language cannot exist independently from the person highlights the interconnectedness of language phenomena with various aspects of human existence. Building upon this recognition, the anthropological paradigm delves into a multitude of intricate problems arising from the interaction between language and various dimensions of human life:

1. Language and the mental activity of the person: Investigating how language influences cognitive processes, such as perception, memory, and problem-solving, and how mental activity shapes language use and understanding.

2. Language, thought, and consciousness of a person: Exploring the interplay between language and the formation of thoughts, concepts, beliefs, and the subjective experience of consciousness.

3. Human language and physiology: Examining the physiological underpinnings of language production and comprehension, including neurological processes involved in language processing.

4. Language and the psyche of the individual: Understanding the psychological aspects of language, including its role in shaping identity, emotions, attitudes, and psychological well-being.

5. Language and culture: Analyzing how language reflects and shapes cultural norms, values, practices, rituals, and worldview, and how culture influences language use and interpretation.

6. Language and human behavior: Investigating the influence of language on human behavior, social interactions, relationships, and societal dynamics.

7. Language and communication: Studying the role of language in facilitating communication, encoding and decoding messages, conveying meaning, and fostering mutual understanding.

8. Language and society: Examining the societal functions of language, including its role in social stratification, power dynamics, group identity formation, and social cohesion.

9. Language and human values: Exploring how language expresses and reinforces ethical, moral, and ideological values, as well as how language shapes individuals' value systems.

10. Language and cognition: Understanding the cognitive processes involved in language acquisition, comprehension, and production, and how language shapes cognitive development and reasoning abilities.

Additionally, we can include further problems such as the relationship between language and speech activity, the formation of human knowledge and opinions about the world, the integration of language with speech-thinking activities, the role of language in information processing, and its influence on human intelligence. By addressing these multifaceted issues, anthropological linguistics contributes to a comprehensive understanding of the intricate relationship between language and human existence.

Answer the questions!



1. How does comparative typology contribute to our understanding of the diversity of human languages from an anthropocentric perspective?

2. Can you explain how comparative typology identifies universal linguistic features that align with the anthropocentric direction of linguistics?

3. In what ways does comparative typology adopt a human-centric approach to studying language?

4. How does comparative typology integrate insights from cognitive science and anthropology into the study of linguistic diversity?

5. What role does comparative typology play in uncovering the cultural and cognitive factors that influence language structure and variation?

6. How does comparative typology contribute to our understanding of language evolution and its implications for human cultural development?

7. Can you provide examples of how comparative typology reveals patterns of continuity and change in language families, supporting the anthropocentric perspective of linguistics?

8. How does comparative typology explore the complexity of human language systems, and what does this reveal about the anthropocentric nature of linguistics?

9. What are some interdisciplinary approaches used in comparative typology that align with the anthropocentric direction of linguistics?

10. How does the study of comparative typology enhance our appreciation of the central role of language in shaping human cognition, culture, and evolution?

THEME 11. TYPOLOGY OF A SENTENCE IN ENGLISH AND NATIVE LANGUAGES



Key aspects of the lecture:

The typology of a sentence refers to the structural and functional characteristics of sentences within a particular language. Here are some key aspects of the typology of sentences in both English and Uzbek languages:

English:

- 1.Word Order:** English typically follows a subject-verb-object (SVO) word order in declarative sentences. However, it can vary depending on emphasis or context.
- 2.Subject-Verb Agreement:** English sentences require agreement between subjects and verbs in terms of number and person.
- 3.Tense and Aspect:** English has a complex system of tenses and aspects to indicate the time and duration of an action or state.
- 4.Modality:** English expresses modality through modal verbs like "can," "will," "should," etc., to indicate possibility, necessity, or permission.
- 5.Negation:** English negates sentences using words like "not" or auxiliary verbs such as "do" or "have."
- 6.Question Formation:** English forms questions by inverting the subject and auxiliary verb or by using question words like "who," "what," "where," etc.

Uzbek:

- 1.Word Order:** Uzbek typically follows a subject-object-verb (SOV) word order, although word order can be flexible due to extensive case marking.
- 2.Case System:** Uzbek has a rich system of case marking to indicate the grammatical roles of nouns and pronouns within a sentence.
- 3.Agreement:** Uzbek exhibits agreement between verbs and subjects, as well as adjectives and nouns, in terms of number, person, and sometimes gender.
- 4.Verb Morphology:** Uzbek verbs can be marked for tense, aspect, mood, and evidentiality, indicating the source of information or the speaker's certainty about the event.
- 5.Evidentiality:** Unlike English, Uzbek includes evidential markers in verbs to indicate the source of information or the speaker's attitude towards the truthfulness of the statement.
- 6.Question Formation:** Uzbek forms questions by adding question particles or intonation at the end of a sentence, or by using question words similar to those in English.
- 7.Negation:** Uzbek negates sentences using specific negative particles or affixes attached to the verb or other parts of speech.

While both languages have distinct typological features, they also share some commonalities such as the presence of tense, agreement systems, and methods of question formation. However, differences in word order, case systems, and morphological features contribute to the unique typological characteristics of each language.

As Zh. Buranov said in his manual: "The development of this system will help improve the scientific level of work on comparative linguistics in the Union republics, improve the educational process and create unified

textbooks and teaching aids for several republics of the republic.” a certain area in which universities study the above subject, which will undoubtedly be a positive factor.”

Since the topic was typological comparative problems of related and unrelated languages, we know that learning English from native speakers of Turkic languages is not easy. Because word formation in these two languages is not similar to each other. For example, what is your name? If we literally translate this sentence from English into Uzbek, we get: *Nima Senning isming?*

Comparative typology is a branch of linguistics that is closely related to all linguistic levels of analysis.

Thus, comparative typology helps us:

- develop an effective methodology for teaching languages;
- prevent various errors caused by interlingual interference;
- promote translation work and research
- compile textbooks and dictionaries;
- provide valuable linguistic data for typological research;
- compose general, special, comparative and typological

grammars.

In the languages being compared, we observe the sentence structure of modern English PGD, (Subject, Verb, Object) since they are representatives of the Indo-European family of languages with the canonical PGD sentence structure in all languages of the family, while the Uzbek language is characterized by the PGD sentence structure typical of Turkic languages.

The Uzbek language is characterized by one important typological feature, represented by the fact that the subject in a sentence is optional, in contrast to English, in which the subject is very obligatory in its structure, without which a sentence (except the imperative type) cannot exist and function. Obviously, this is due to the analytical structure of the English language with almost potentially homonymous verbal forms, on the one hand, and the inflectional and agglutinative features of the Uzbek language, on the other.

Incentive sentences are those sentences that directly express the will of the speaker; their purpose is to encourage action. True imperative sentences usually use the imperative mood. They can express:

1. Order, threat, for example: *Кўн китоб ўқи. Read a lot of books. Эҳтиёт бўл. Be careful.*

2. Request, plea, for example: *Эшикни ёнинг. Close the door, please. Тузни узатиб юбор. Pass me the salt, please.*

3. Tip: *Ўғлим, дадангни занга қир. Don't make a rod for your own back. Етти марта ўлчаб, бир марта кес. When in doubt, leave it out.*

Of course, intonation and some lexical means play a big role in this. English incentive sentence *Come.* in the Uzbek language coincides with the incentive sentence *Kel.* The sentence *Do come.* Coincides with the sentence *Albatta kel.* The incentive is usually addressed to the 2nd person and is clear from the context. Therefore, the subject of the incentive sentence disappears if logical stress does not fall on it, that is, if it is not a rheme:

Бу ёққа кел — come here. Соат учда кел — come at three o'clock.

If it is a rheme it cannot be omitted:

– 'сен (бошқалар эмас) кел; – 'you come here; – 'сен (бошқалар эмас) соат учда кел. 'you come at three o'clock.

- **Comparative typology** is a branch of linguistics **comparing languages in order to establish their similarities and differences.** Its object is not singular and individual cases of similarity and difference but those which are common for large groups of language elements. Comparative typology **classifies languages according to their structure.** Although languages may differ in their material (i.e. have no words of the same root, or common morphemes) their structure (i.e. relations between the elements, functions of the elements) may be similar.

- **English** – Indo European Family – Germanic – Analytic – SVO

- **Uzbek** – Turkic family – Southeastern – Uighur-chagatay – Agglutinative – SOV

Examples

Uzbek	U xonani tozalayotgan edi (Verb-final language) He/she [subject] the room-[Object]+[Acc] tidying up [Past continuous] was [auxiliary verb]
English	"She <u>was</u> tidying up the room" (Verb-initial language) (Nouns marked for case + Verbs marked for tense)
Uzbek	U qalamni sindirdi (SOV) He [subject] the pen-[Object]+[Acc] broke [past]
English	"He broke the pen" (SVO) (Nouns marked for case + Verbs marked for tense)

Uzbek	(Men) stol ustida 5 ta olma(lar)ni ko'ryapman. (Pro-drop language) I [subject] on the table [adverbial modifier of place] 5 apples [object]+[acc] seeing [present continuous]
English	"I see five apples on the table" [subject+verb+object+adv.mod.] (Nouns marked for number (sing./pl.) + (Verbs agree with subject in person))
Uzbek	(Biz) senga ishonamiz We [subject] you [object] + in [acc.] believe [verb, present simple]
English	"We believe in you" (Verbs agree with subject in number + Verbs marked for tense)

Categories	English	Uzbek
Nouns marked for case	no	yes
Nouns marked for number (sing./pl.)	yes	yes
Verbs marked for tense	yes	yes
Verbs agree with subject in person	yes	yes
Verbs agree with subject in number	yes	yes
Word order	SVO	SOV
Verb-initial/ verb-final	Verb-initial	Verb-final
Type of language	Analytic	Agglutinative/ pro-drop

Verb-initial languages always have auxiliary verb preceding the main verb (as in English was smoking), while **verb-final languages** have auxiliary verbs following the main verb.

Answer the questions!



1. How does the word order differ between English and Uzbek sentences, and how does this impact sentence structure?
2. What are the key differences in the case systems of English and Uzbek, and how do these differences affect sentence construction?
3. How do English and Uzbek languages handle subject-verb agreement, and are there any notable differences in their approaches?
4. What role do tense, aspect, and mood play in English and Uzbek sentences, and how do these linguistic features differ between the two languages?
5. In what ways do English and Uzbek languages express modality and evidentiality within sentences, and how do these expressions influence communication?
6. How do English and Uzbek languages form questions, and are there any similarities or differences in their question formation strategies?
7. What methods do English and Uzbek languages employ for negation within sentences, and how do these methods differ in terms of structure and usage?
8. How might the typological differences between English and Uzbek languages impact language learning for speakers of each respective language?
9. Can you provide examples of how the typology of sentences in English and Uzbek languages reflects their respective cultural and linguistic contexts?
10. How do the typological features of English and Uzbek sentences contribute to the overall complexity and expressiveness of these languages?

THEME 12. THE PROBLEM OF TYPOLOGICAL CATEGORIZATION. GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES OF TYPOLOGY



Key aspects of the lecture:

The problem of typological categorization refers to the challenge of accurately categorizing and classifying the diverse range of grammatical features found across languages. Here are some key aspects related to this problem and the grammatical categories of typology:

Cross-Linguistic Variation: Languages exhibit a wide range of structural and functional differences, leading to challenges in creating universal typological categories that apply across all languages.

Complexity and Diversity: Languages vary greatly in their grammatical structures, with some languages having highly complex morphological systems while others rely more on word order or syntactic constructions.

Overlap and Ambiguity: Some grammatical features may overlap between different typological categories, making it difficult to assign languages to discrete categories. Additionally, certain features may be ambiguous or exhibit variation within a single language.

Emerging Typological Frameworks: Typologists continually refine and develop frameworks for categorizing grammatical features, such as the Greenbergian universals, the Leipzig-Jakarta list, or more recent computational approaches like the World Atlas of Language Structures (WALS).

Functional vs. Structural Typology: Typological categorization can focus on either functional aspects (how languages express meaning) or structural aspects (how languages organize linguistic elements), and reconciling these perspectives can be challenging.

Dependencies and Correlations: Certain grammatical features may be correlated or dependent on one another within languages, leading to clusters of typological features that co-occur across different language families.

Language Contact and Change: Typological features can change over time due to language contact, borrowing, and internal language change, further complicating the task of categorization.

Typological Profiles of Languages: Each language has a unique typological profile based on its specific combination of grammatical features, making it challenging to fit languages neatly into predefined typological categories.

Implications for Linguistic Theory: The problem of typological categorization raises important questions about the nature of linguistic universals, the relationship between language structure and cognition, and the limits of cross-linguistic comparison in linguistic research.

Interdisciplinary Perspectives: Addressing the problem of typological categorization often requires collaboration between linguists, cognitive scientists, anthropologists, and computational researchers to develop more robust typological frameworks and methodologies.

In the field of cognitive linguistics, which focuses on the processes of acquiring and systematizing knowledge, there remain many problems that require in-depth research. Among them is the question of the types and types of categories of linguistic consciousness.

The first experience of scientific reflection on categories belongs to Aristotle, who gave this phenomenon an exclusively ontological status, emphasizing the equality of all members of the category, due to a strict set of essential characteristics of each of its members. The philosopher divided such categories into categories of essence (not allowing for measures and degrees) and categories of quality (presuming a gradation of a qualitative attribute on a scale of more - less, most - least).

Aristotle explains: “Essence does not admit of a greater or lesser degree <...> If this essence is a man, then neither he himself in relation to himself, nor one in relation to another will be a man to a greater or lesser extent. For one man is not more a man than another, nor as one white thing is more or less white than another, nor as one beautiful thing is said to be more or less beautiful than another.”

Aristotle’s concept was questioned by L. Wittgenstein, who considered the nature of categories to be more complex and pointed out the lack of equality of elements included in one category or another: “Instead to identify what is common to everything called language, I say: in all these phenomena there is no one common feature, because of which we applied the same word to them all. But they are related to each other in many ways.” The philosopher emphasized that members of a category cannot be absolutely equal and identical in terms of the set of characteristics that characterize them; he speaks of a complex network of similarities that overlap and intertwine with each other.

L. Wittgenstein called such intertwining characteristics of members of one category “family resemblances” and pointed out that “similarities that exist among members of the same family are also superimposed and intertwined: height, facial features, eye color, gait, temperament, etc.” Later, these ideas were actively developed in the works of American cognitive scientists (R. Jackendoff, U Labov, J. Lakoff, E. Roche, etc.).

Linguistic typology serves as a foundational discipline within the field of linguistics, offering a framework for understanding the diverse range of languages spoken around the world. By systematically studying and classifying languages based on their structural and functional features, linguistic typology provides invaluable insights into the fundamental principles underlying human language. This review delves into the significance of linguistic typology in uncovering language diversity, elucidating the classification of languages, and highlighting the universality and uniqueness of linguistic features.

Language Diversity and Classification: One of the primary aims of linguistic typology is to elucidate the vast array of languages spoken across different regions and cultures. By examining various linguistic features such as phonology, morphology, and syntax, typologists identify patterns and similarities among languages, facilitating their classification into larger groups or families.

Through this classification process, linguists can discern both genetic relationships, where languages share a common ancestor, and areal relationships, where languages within a geographical area influence one another despite not being genetically related. Thus, linguistic typology serves as a vital tool for mapping out the intricate tapestry of global language diversity.

Understanding Structural Features: Linguistic typology delves into the structural features of languages, including their phonetic inventories, morphological systems, and syntactic structures. Through comparative analysis, typologists identify recurring patterns and tendencies across languages, revealing both commonalities and idiosyncrasies. For instance, while some languages exhibit rich morphological systems with intricate inflectional paradigms, others rely more heavily on word order to convey grammatical relations. Moreover, typological studies uncover universals—linguistic features that are widespread across unrelated languages—shedding light on the cognitive and communicative constraints that shape human language.

Challenges and Nuances: Despite its utility, linguistic typology presents challenges and nuances that warrant careful consideration. The mere presence of a shared linguistic feature does not necessarily imply genetic relatedness between languages, highlighting the importance of distinguishing between typological universals and genetic inheritance. Furthermore, typological classifications must account for language change over time, language contact phenomena, and dialectal variation, which can complicate the identification of typological patterns. Additionally, typologists must remain cognizant of the limitations inherent in cross-

linguistic comparisons, recognizing that linguistic diversity encompasses a spectrum of variation rather than rigid categorizations.

Implications and Future Directions: Linguistic typology holds profound implications for various domains, including language documentation, language revitalization efforts, and theoretical linguistics. By systematically cataloging and analyzing linguistic features, typologists contribute to our understanding of human cognition, cultural diversity, and the intricate dynamics of language evolution. Moving forward, interdisciplinary collaborations between typologists, computational linguists, and anthropologists promise to enrich our knowledge of linguistic diversity and deepen our appreciation for the remarkable diversity of human languages.

Categories with an open structure assume an unlimited number of members; they are, as a rule, polynomial, while the number of their subcategories can change under the influence of various factors. The development of scientific technologies naturally leads to the emergence of new and often the disappearance of previously existing members of such categories as DRUGS, MEDICAL INSTRUMENTS, CHEMICALS, COSMETICS, WEAPONS, TRANSPORT, BUILDING MATERIALS, etc. Expanding intercultural connections and geographical horizons of speakers of a particular language -culture contributes to a change in the structure, for example, of categories such as VEGETABLES and FRUITS: gradually exotic fruits previously unknown to residents of temperate climates (avocado, durian, kiwano, pitahaya, rambutan, and many others) become full-fledged members of these categories. Thus, the categories of linguistic consciousness, on the basis of openness and closedness for new members of the category, are divided into categories with a closed and open structure.

It is difficult to deny that, plunging into real life, many clearly limited, scientifically based categories begin to loosen. For example, Aristotle's opinion about the essence of man and his statement that a person cannot be a person to a greater or lesser extent is true from a biological point of view or from the position of democratic equality, but, as we know, there

are many examples in history when people were divided into nobles and commoners, blacks and whites, Aryans and non-Aryans, etc. Such distinctions existed not only in the naive picture of the world, they were enshrined in law, establishing privileges for some and restrictions on rights for others. For example, a slave in the ancient world was considered a thing, this was enshrined in law: “Slaves were not considered people. According to Roman law, they were *res* - things, speaking instruments (*instrumentum vocale*). As things or as objects of law, slaves were under the unlimited power of their masters.”

The concept of a slave in the minds of the ancient Romans was a member of the categories THINGS, INSTRUMENTS, but not the category PERSON. Thus, even categories with clear boundaries can vary depending on the model of the world: within the scientific picture of the world, the structure of a category can be ordered, and all its members have equal rights; in a naive picture of the world, the structure of a category may change: some members of the category come to the fore and become typical examples of the category, others recede into the background and may not be immediately recognized as members of this category. In other words, depending on the sphere of formation, we can distinguish the categories of scientific and naive pictures of the world.

The fact that there are categories with clear boundaries in the scientific (theoretical) sphere is undeniable, but such categories can also be relevant in practical life. For example, in jurisprudence they often operate with categories with clear boundaries; they are necessary for the objective assessment of a phenomenon (case, event) encountered in practical life that falls under one category or another. In legal practice, the concepts of abstract and concrete are strictly distinguished, but their relationship is also clearly established, cf.:

“The concrete in the process of legal qualification is understood as a directly given, sensory-perceptible phenomenon, a concrete life incident, which is compared with the abstract. A rule of law, due to its abstractness, cannot contain a lot of different features that specific life circumstances have; it only contains some general concepts.

A rule of law should not contain any random features; it should highlight those that reveal the essence of the phenomenon being qualified. Abstract legal facts enshrined in a legal norm may not occur in reality by themselves; in real life we are faced with life facts that contain signs of one or another legal fact enshrined in a legal norm.”

Grammatical categories are typified on various grounds.

By the type of units subjected to grammatical interpretation (this division of categories is most clearly visible in inflectional and synthetic languages):

- morphological;
- syntactic.

Morphological categories are tense, person, voice, gender, number, case, etc. They reflect the specifics of the grammatical functioning of verbal units.

In the structure of syntactic type categories, syntactic units function.

According to the nature of the transmitted meanings (according to the relationships they establish with extralinguistic reality), they are distinguished

- objective (reflective);
- objective-subjective (interpretative);
- subjective (formal).

Morphological grammatical categories are contrasted according to the nature of the relationships between the contrasted units. This division is relevant only for languages with developed word formation. In this regard, categories are distinguished

- classification (categories of words);
- formative (inflectional, categories of word forms).

Classification. Contrast the classes of words according to class. feature: gender of nouns, transitivity of the verb, etc.

Formative. Contrast different grammatical forms of one word: gender of adjectives, verb tense, etc.

Answer the questions!

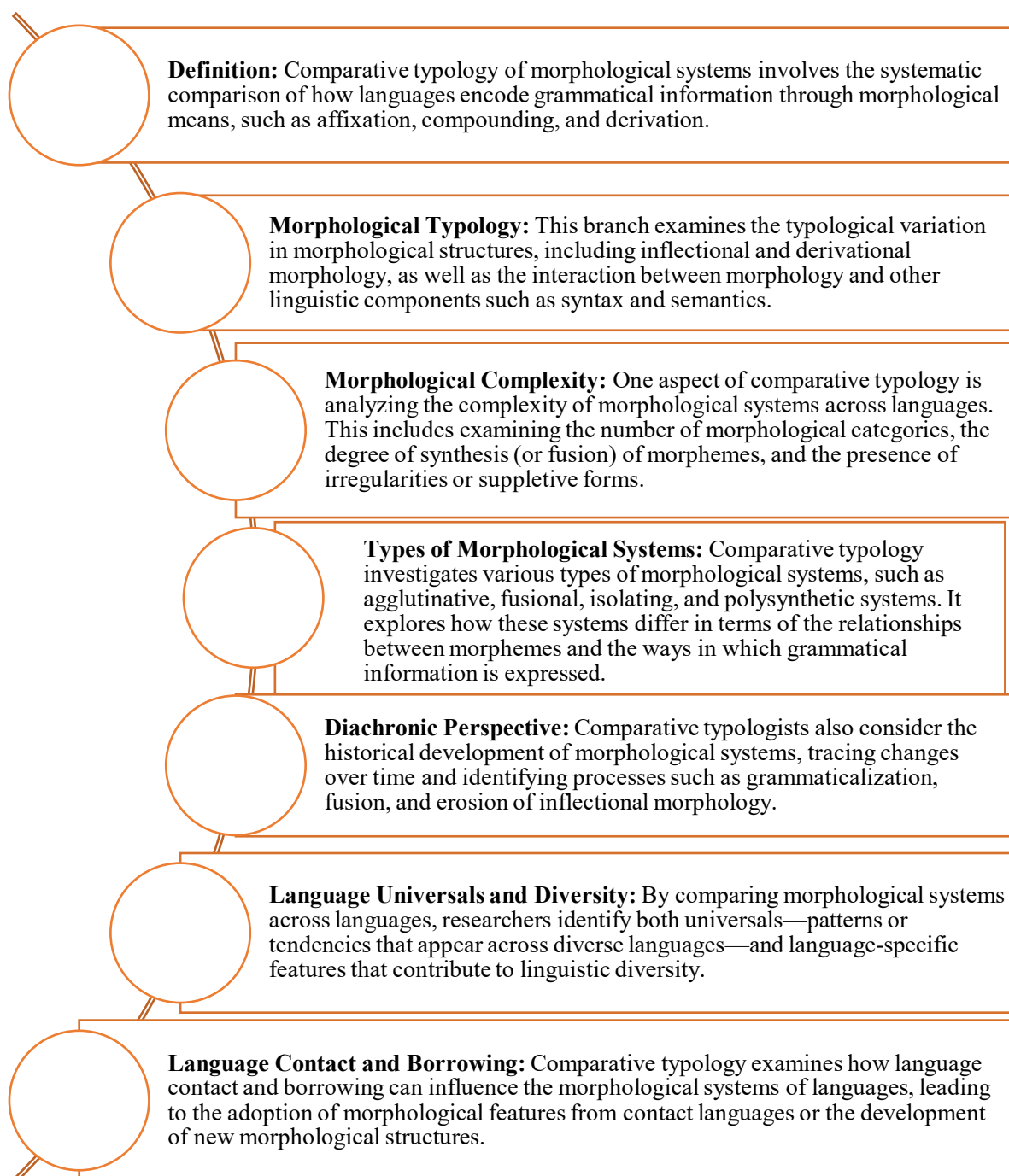


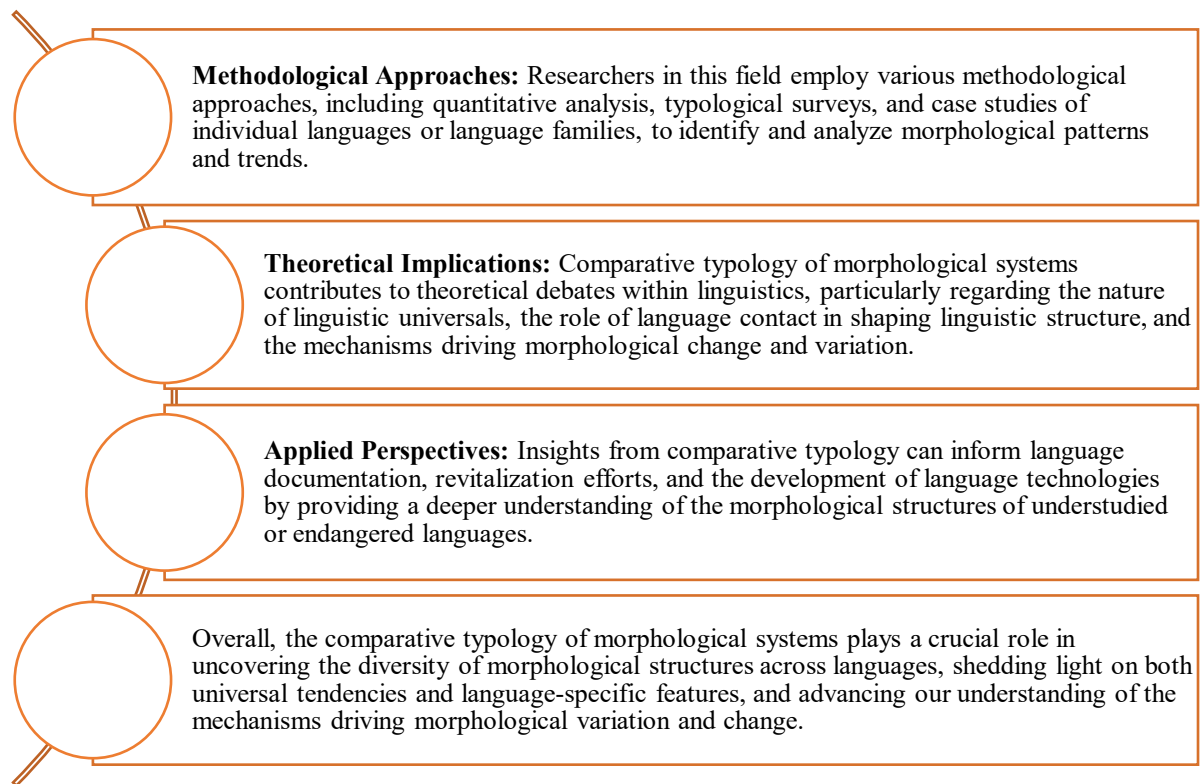
1. What is linguistic typology, and what role does it play in the field of linguistics?
2. How does linguistic typology contribute to our understanding of language diversity and classification?
3. What are some key features that typologists examine when classifying languages, and how do these features vary across different language families?
4. Can you explain the difference between genetic relationships and areal relationships in language classification, and how does linguistic typology help distinguish between the two?
5. What are typological universals, and how do they inform our understanding of the cognitive and communicative constraints shaping human language?
6. What challenges do typologists face when classifying languages, particularly regarding language change, contact phenomena, and dialectal variation?
7. How do interdisciplinary collaborations between typologists, computational linguists, and anthropologists contribute to advancing our knowledge of linguistic typology?
8. Can you provide examples of linguistic features that are considered typological universals, and discuss their significance in cross-linguistic comparison?
9. How does linguistic typology inform language documentation efforts and language revitalization initiatives?
10. What are some potential future directions for research in linguistic typology, and how might advancements in technology and methodology impact the field?

THEME 13. COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY OF MORPHOLOGICAL SYSTEMS BRANCH OF LINGUISTICS



Key aspects of the lecture:





The comparative typology of morphological systems is a branch of linguistics that focuses on comparing and analyzing the morphological structures of languages across different language families. Here are some key aspects of this branch:

Comparative linguistics is linguodidactic teaching of a foreign language. For this reason, the study of foreign languages within the framework of the native language and their analysis is one of the important issues of linguistics. In modern linguistics, including comparative linguistics and folklore, an in-depth study of proverbs in comparative linguistics is increasingly important, the substantive definition of which is that it is interdisciplinary in nature and is studied in all fields of science. As a result, paremiology, that is, the study of proverbs, is allocated to a separate area of linguistics. Comparative linguistics is linguodidactic teaching of a foreign language.

For this reason, the study of foreign languages within the framework of the native language and their analysis is one of the important issues of linguistics. In modern linguistics, including comparative linguistic knowledge and folklore, in-depth study of proverbs Knowledge today is increasingly important in comparative linguistic knowledge.

Its important circumstance is that it is interdisciplinary in nature and is studied in all fields of science. As a result, paremiology, that is, the study of proverbs, became a separate area of linguistics.

Word is usually characterised as the smallest naming unit consisting of a definite number of sounds and denoting a definite lexical meaning and expressing definite grammatical categories. It usually is a subject-matter of morphology, which studies the form and structure of the word. It is well known that the morphological system of the language reveals its properties through the morphemic structure of words. As a part of the grammatical theory morphology faces two segmental units of the language: the **morpheme** and the **word**.

Morpheme is known as the smallest meaningful unit of the language into which a word may be divided. E.g. in the word **writ-ER-s** the root morpheme **write** expresses the lexical meaning of the word, lexical morpheme **-ER** shows the doer of the action denoted by the root morpheme, and the grammatical suffix **-s** indicates the number of the doers, i.e. more than one person is meant. Similar opinion can be said regarding the following units of the language, such as **finish-ed, courageous-ly, un-prepar-ed-ness; тугал-лан-ма-ган-лик-дан-дир, бедаъво-лар-дан**.

Being a meaningful segmental component of the word, a morpheme is formed by phonemes but unlike the word it is elementary, i.e. it is indivisible into smaller meaningful components. There may be zero morphemes, i.e. the absence of morpheme may indicate a certain lexical or grammatical meaning: Cf: book _ - book-s, hope _ -hope-ful # китоб _ - китоб-лар; но-умид- _умид. In these examples the zero morphemes denoted by (_) shows a singular form of the noun or absence of certain notion. In cases of “students come, children come, geese come” the morphs **-s, en, and [i:]** (Cf goose) are allomorphs of the morpheme of plurality “-лар” in Uzbek.

Like a word a morpheme is a two-facet language unit, an association of a certain meaning with a certain sound-pattern. But unlike the word a morpheme is not an autonomous body (unit) and can occur in speech only

as a constituent part of the word. It cannot be segmented into smaller units without losing its constitutive essence.

The morphemes can be divided into root (free) morphemes and affixal (bound) morphemes (affixes). A form is said to be free if it may stand alone without changing its meaning; if not it is a bound form, as it always bound to something else.

E.g: In the words *sportive, elegant* morphemes *sport, elegant* may occur alone as utterances, but the forms *-ive, -ant, eleg-* cannot be used alone without the root morphemes.

The morphemes may be classified in two ways: a) from the semantic point of view, and b) from the structural point of view.

Semantically morphemes fall into two classes: the root morphemes and non-root (affixational) morphemes.

The root morphemes is the lexical nucleus of the word and it they usually express mainly the lexical meaning, i.e. ‘material’ part of the meaning of the word, while the affixal morphemes can express both lexical and grammatical meanings, thus they can be characterised as lexical affixes (**-er**) and grammatical suffixes (**-s**) in ‘**writ-er-s**’. The lexical suffixes are usually used mainly in word building process to form new words (e.g. help-less, black-ness, teach-er, speak-er; нажот-сиз, қора-лик, ықит-ув-чи, сыз-лов-чи), whereas grammatical suffixes serve to express the grammatical meaning of the word by changing its form (paradigm) {e.g. speaker-s, (*plurality*) John’-s, (*case ending denoting possession*), come-s (*person, number, tense, aspect, mood, voice*)3rd person singular, present simple, indicative mood, active voice)}. Thus we can say that the grammatical significance of afixal (derivational) morphemes is always combined with their lexical meaning.

e.g. verb - to write- ёЗМОҚ

noun -writer - ёЗувчи

The derivative morpheme ‘-er’ has a grammatical meaning as it serves to distinguish a noun from a verb and it has a lexical meaning i.e the doer of the action. The roots of the notional words are classical lexical morphemes.

The affixal (derivational) morphemes include **prefixes, suffixes and inflexions** (grammatical suffixes).

Prefixes and lexical suffixes have word building functions. Together with the root they form the stem of the word. Prefixes precede the root morpheme (***im-personal, un-known, re-write***), suffixes follow it (e.g: friend-ship, activ-ize, readi-ness, дыст-лик, фаол-лаш-тир-моқ, тайёр-лик).

Inflexions (word-forming suffixes express different morphological categories.

Structurally morphemes fall under three types: a) free morphemes, b) bound morphemes, c) semi-bound morphemes. A free morpheme is the stem of the word, a great many free morphemes are root morphemes. (e.g.: ***London-er, sports-man-ship***). A bound morpheme occurs as a constituent part of the word. Affixes are naturally, bound morphemes for they are always make a part of the word. (e.g.: -ness, -ship, -dom, dis-, pre-, un-; -чи, паз, -дон, бе-, сер-, но-) some root morphemes also belong to the class of bound morphemes, which always occur in morphemic sequences, i.e. in combinations with roots or affixes (e.g.: *theor-* in **theory, theoretical; -cieve**, in **percieve, concieve; назар-ий, хусус-ий, хусус-ият**).

Semi-bound morphemes are morphemes that can function in a morphemic sequence both as an affix and as a free morpheme. (e.g.: half an hour, well-known, sleep well, half killed; ярим соат, чала-жон, яхши кырмоқ).

The root, according to its positional content of the term (*i.e. border area between prefix and suffix*) is obligatory for any word while affixes are not obligatory. Therefore one and the same morphemic segment can be used now as an affix, now as a root.

E.g. ‘**out**’ - a root word (preposition, adverb, verbal postposition, adjective, noun, verb);

‘throughout’ - a composite word where ‘out’ of the roots;

‘outing’ - a two morpheme word in which ‘out’ is a root and ‘ing’ is a suffix;

‘outlook, outline’ - words in which ‘out’ is a prefix;

‘look out, shut out, time-out’ words in which ‘out’ is a suffix;

The abstract complete model of the English word is as follows:
‘prefix-root-lexical suffix-grammatical suffix’ (or ‘Pr-Rt-Ls-Grs). e.g.:
un-import-ant-ness, out-look-er-s

1. MORPHOLOGY AND MORPHOLOGICAL TYPOLOGY

- Morphology- the study of word formation and structure.
- *Morphological typology*- a system for classifying the world's languages based on how their morphemes are used.
- **Morphological typology** is a way of classifying the languages of the world that groups languages according to their common **morphological** structures.

Morphological typology:

Morphological typology is the basis for the broad classification of Languages of the world into four major Morphological types:

Isolating/Analytic	Ex. Chinese
Agglutinating/Synthetic	Ex. Altaic, Dravidian
Inflectional/Fusional	Ex. Indo-European
Incorporating/Polysynthetic	Ex. Icelandic/Aleutian

Answer the questions!



1. What are the primary objectives of the comparative typology of morphological systems within linguistics?
2. How does the comparative typology approach contribute to our understanding of linguistic diversity and universals?
3. Can you explain the fundamental concepts and methodologies used in comparative typology of morphological systems?
4. What are some examples of morphological systems that have been extensively studied through comparative typology?

5. How does the comparative typology of morphological systems shed light on the evolution and development of languages over time?
6. What role does cross-linguistic comparison play in the study of morphological systems within linguistics?
7. How do linguistic typologists analyze and classify different morphological systems across languages?
8. What are some common challenges or limitations faced by researchers in conducting comparative typology studies of morphological systems?
9. How does the notion of linguistic universals intersect with the findings from comparative typology of morphological systems?
10. Can you discuss any recent advancements or trends in the field of comparative typology within linguistics, particularly regarding morphological systems?

THEME 14. HISTORICAL TYPOLOGY AS ONE OF THE PERIODIZATION OF THE HISTORY OF LINGUISTICS



Key aspects of the lecture:

The evolution of a language unfolds as an ongoing, seamless progression devoid of abrupt interruptions or swift metamorphoses. Traditionally, English history has been segmented into three periods: Old English (OE), Middle English (ME), and New English (NE). However, an alternative Periodisation further dissects the English language's history into seven periods, each marked by distinct linguistic circumstances and types of linguistic evolution.

Definition:

1. Historical typology examines how languages change over time and how these changes lead to the emergence of typological patterns and structures. It combines insights from historical linguistics and typology to understand the processes of language evolution.

Periodization of Linguistic History:

1. Within the broader history of linguistics, historical typology represents one periodization that emphasizes the study of language change across different stages of linguistic development. It complements other periods such as comparative linguistics, structuralism, generative linguistics, and sociolinguistics.

Comparative Method:

1. Historical typology often employs the comparative method, which involves comparing linguistic features across related languages to reconstruct their common ancestral forms and trace the historical relationships between them. This method is fundamental to understanding the historical development of languages and identifying patterns of change.

Sound Change:

1. One of the central aspects of historical typology is the study of phonological change, including processes such as phonetic shifts, mergers, and splits. By analyzing sound changes over time, linguists can uncover regularities and trends that contribute to the diversification of languages.

Grammaticalization:

1. Historical typology also investigates grammaticalization processes, whereby lexical items evolve into grammatical markers over time. This includes the emergence of grammatical categories such as tense, aspect, mood, and case, as well as the development of grammatical constructions and word order patterns.

Typological Shifts: Historical typology identifies typological shifts that occur over time, leading to changes in the morphological, syntactic, and semantic structures of languages. These shifts may result from internal linguistic processes, contact with other languages, or socio-cultural factors.

Language Families and Genetic Relationships: Historical typology elucidates the genetic relationships between languages by identifying cognate forms and shared morphological, phonological, and syntactic features. By reconstructing proto-languages and language families, linguists can trace the historical trajectories of linguistic diversification.

Linguistic Reconstruction: Historical typology involves the reconstruction of proto-languages and linguistic features using comparative methods and linguistic evidence. Reconstructed forms provide insights into the phonological, morphological, and syntactic systems of ancestral languages and their development over time.

Dialectology and Language Contact: Historical typology considers the role of dialect variation and language contact in shaping linguistic change. Contact-induced changes, such as lexical borrowing, grammatical borrowing, and language convergence, contribute to the complexity of language evolution.

Interdisciplinary Perspectives: Historical typology draws on insights from various disciplines, including archaeology, anthropology, genetics, and paleolinguistics, to contextualize linguistic changes within broader socio-cultural and historical frameworks.

The initial phase, labeled as Early Old English, spans from the West Germanic influx into Britain to the onset of written records, spanning from the 5th to the late 7th century.

During this period, the tribal dialects of the West Germanic settlers evolved, gradually diverging from related continental tongues as oral communication prevailed, lacking a standardized written form.

The subsequent historical era, encompassing the 8th to the 11th century, is known as Old English. Over time, the tribal dialects transitioned into local or regional variants. By the era's end, these dialects exhibited pronounced differences, with West Saxon emerging as the predominant written form, while others maintained parity in oral communication. Old English is typically depicted as a relatively stable linguistic system during this period.

The third phase, identified as Early Middle English, commences after the Norman Conquest of 1066 and spans the 12th, 13th, and first half of the 14th century. This period witnessed significant dialectal divergence fueled by the feudal system and foreign influences, particularly Scandinavian and French. The roots of the modern English dialectal divisions trace back to this historical epoch. Under Norman rule, French, specifically Anglo-French or Anglo-Norman, became the official language in England and dominated literary expression.

The fourth period, spanning from the late 14th century to the end of the 15th century, is known as Late or Classical Middle English. This era coincides with the time of Chaucer, a significant figure in English medieval literature who paved the way for the English Renaissance. It marked a resurgence of English as both a state and literary language, leading to a flourishing of literature. The primary dialect used in writing and literature during this time was the mixed dialect of London, which gradually overshadowed other dialects in terms of literary authority.

The fifth period, termed Early New English, lasted from the introduction of printing to the era of Shakespeare. Notably, William Caxton published the first English printed book in 1475, marking a significant milestone. This period was characterized by profound historical changes, including economic and political unification under a growing capitalist system. Caxton's English in printed works served as a transitional phase between the literary English of the Middle English

period and the language of the Literary Renaissance. It also witnessed substantial lexical and phonetic changes, reflecting societal progress in the emerging bourgeois society.

The sixth period spans from the mid-17th century to the late 18th century and is often referred to as “the age of normalization and correctness” in language history and the “neoclassical” age in literary history. During this time, distinct styles of literary English emerged, signifying the maturity of the language. Additionally, efforts to standardize pronunciation took place, marking a stabilization after significant sound shifts. There were also attempts to restrict and normalize word usage and grammatical constructions.

The seventh period, representing the English language of the 19th and 20th centuries, is known as Late New English or Modern English. It saw a clear distinction between the classical language of literature and the local dialects, which were primarily used in oral communication and lacked literary traditions. Throughout the 20th century, there was a significant blending of dialects, with Standard English gradually displacing local dialects. The English vocabulary expanded rapidly, reflecting advancements in technology, science, and culture, as well as broader changes across various aspects of human activity.

In the process of historical development, various changes occur in the phonological system of a language, its grammatical structure, and its vocabulary. Some changes, for example, the transition of nouns from one stem to another, the merger of one case with another, the emergence of a new tense form, are of a private nature, affecting only certain categories or microsystems. Other changes, such as the transformation of a three-morphemic word into a single-morphemic one (cf.: other German *dagaR> yes. Beez > on.day – day; other German *skaunis> nn.schon – beautiful) or loss of agreement of the dependent component with a core in gender, number and case and its replacement with adjacency in attributive phrases (as, for example, in the English language of the 15th century: due to the disappearance of the weak [e] (in the schedule e), adjectives have lost agreement as a form of expressing a syntactic connection) are

profound character, affecting the entire structure of the language; they lead to a change in the typology of the language. Therefore, we will call changes of this type typological changes. Changes of this kind are directly related to the periodization of the history of the corresponding language. Thus, the replacement of concordance with contiguity is one of the criteria characterizing the New England period.

The above-mentioned change from a three-morpheme word to a one-morpheme word took place not only in the English language. Ancient Indo-European languages: Sanskrit, ancient Greek, Latin, Slavic, ancient Germanic languages – all had a trimorphemic structure in the distant past; Wed: rus. Sky-es-a, time-en-a; lat.hom-in-is—person, virt-ut-em—virtue (vin. Fallen singular). The three-morphemic structure, therefore, can be considered as one of the typological characteristics of the morphological structure of these languages of the ancient period.

In modern languages, their descendants, only traces of the former typology have been preserved; Wed: rus. Im-en-a, know-en-I, sky-es-a; lat.hom-in-um—people (gen. fallen plural). Nevertheless, nouns of modern languages, as a rule, have a one-morpheme or two-morpheme structure; Wed: English spring—spring; French riviere—river-a; Spanish ciudad—city.

Following M. M. Gukhman, we call such a complex change in the basic typological characteristics of ancient languages a diachronic constant, which occurred according to similar patterns common to a number of languages and, therefore, had common features that led to a change in the typological characteristics of the language. Diachronic constants are similar processes of changing the structure of a number of languages, introducing significant similar changes to their typology and therefore closely related to their periodization.

In the literature on linguistics, both general and specific, one can find different understandings of the term “typology”.

The most common and, apparently, the earliest meaning of this term in terms of the time of its origin refers to the name of an entire section of our science – linguistic typology, or typology of languages.

The scope of this concept remains vague and undefined to this day. Some scientists put into it one volume of concepts, one content, others – another, which was very clearly demonstrated at a meeting on the typology of oriental languages in 1963 in Moscow.

However, most linguists agree on the understanding of typology in linguistics as the doctrine of types of languages that are studied by comparing, or, as they now more often say, juxtaposing both individual levels, sublevels and microsystems, and systems of individual languages in general and groups of languages.

Typological studies involve identifying what is common in all languages. I.I. Meshchaninov rightly pointed this out. “Common to all languages,” he writes, “are not only the relationships between words as part of a sentence, but also such concepts conveyed in language as objectivity and action, as subject, predicate, object, attribute with their modal shades, etc. This, common to all languages, forms the basis for typological comparisons precisely because the grammatical form of its identification on specific linguistic material does not provide a unified scheme.”

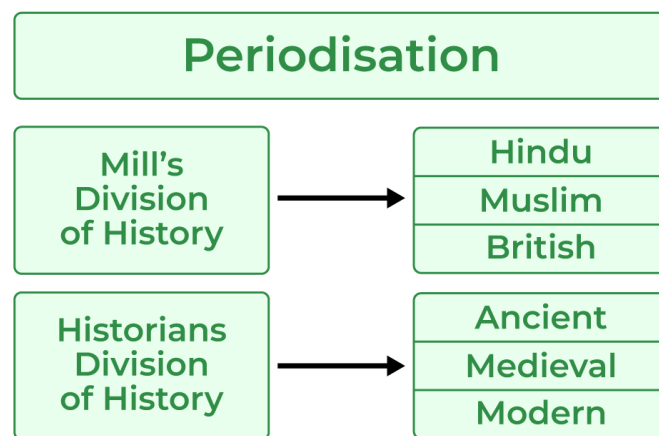
It goes without saying that the identification of common features of languages, as discussed above, involves systematization and inventory of the phenomena of different languages on the basis of their structural features, which is also included as a component in the concept of “typology” in the meaning under consideration.

Typology in this meaning also includes the construction based on a set of properties of classes of individual languages, the grouping of these classes into larger classes and, finally, the establishment of larger classification units – types of languages.

Along with the general meaning of the term “typology of languages” just discussed, we encounter its more specific meaning, which is limited to characterizing the structure of an individual language or its individual microsystems. It is in this sense that S.D. Katsnelson uses the term “typology” when he writes: “Languages, from my point of view, should be compared with each other, first of all, not by isolated features, but by

individual microsystems, by individual fragments of the structure of the language.” In the same meaning, we often encounter the term “typology” in a number of modern studies, for example: “Typology of syllable structures in Slavic languages” or “On the question of the typology of consonantal systems of modern Germanic languages.”

The term “typology” is used in another meaning – as a principle of organizing linguistic material, which makes it possible to compile a summary of the typological characteristics of any one language and thereby outline its place in the typological classification. It is in this sense that the word “typology” is used in the article “Toward a typological characteristic of the Swahili language.”



Answer the questions!



1. What is historical typology, and how does it differ from other branches of linguistics?
2. How does historical typology contribute to our understanding of language change and evolution over time?
3. What are some key methods and approaches used in historical typology to reconstruct proto-languages and trace linguistic relationships?
4. Can you explain the role of the comparative method in historical typology, and how does it help linguists identify patterns of change across languages?

5. What are some examples of sound changes that have occurred in the historical development of languages, and how do linguists analyze and explain these changes?
6. How does historical typology investigate grammaticalization processes, and what insights does it provide into the development of grammatical categories and constructions?
7. Can you discuss the concept of typological shifts in historical typology, and provide examples of how languages may undergo typological changes over time?
8. How does historical typology contribute to our understanding of language families and genetic relationships between languages?
9. What role does dialectology and language contact play in historical typology, and how do they influence linguistic change and variation?
10. In what ways does historical typology draw on interdisciplinary perspectives, and how does it contextualize linguistic changes within broader socio-cultural and historical frameworks?

THEME 15. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF VOWEL SYSTEM OF MODERN ENGLISH



Key aspects of the lecture:

Main points

Vowel Inventory: Comparative analysis identifies the set of vowel sounds present in Modern English varieties, considering both monophthongs (simple vowel sounds) and diphthongs (complex vowel sounds).

Phonetic Realization: It examines the phonetic realization of vowels, including their articulatory features such as height (high, mid, low), frontness (front, central, back), and roundedness.

Vowel Quality: Comparative analysis assesses the quality of vowels, distinguishing between tense and lax vowels, as well as analyzing vowel mergers, splits, and shifts.

Monophthongization and Diphthongization: It investigates historical processes such as monophthongization (the simplification of diphthongs into monophthongs) and diphthongization (the development of new diphthongs) in Modern English varieties.

Vowel Reduction: Comparative analysis examines vowel reduction processes, such as the reduction of unstressed vowels to schwa /ə/, and how they vary across different dialects of English.

...

Rhoticity: It considers the presence or absence of rhoticity (the pronunciation of the /r/ sound) and its effect on vowel quality, particularly in rhotic and non-rhotic varieties of English.

Regional Variation: Comparative analysis explores regional variation in vowel systems, including vowel shifts (such as the Northern Cities Shift in North American English) and regional accents that exhibit distinct vowel qualities and distributions.

Social Variation: It investigates social factors influencing vowel systems, such as socio-economic status, ethnicity, and age, and their impact on vowel pronunciation and variation.

Linguistic Change: Comparative analysis tracks historical and ongoing changes in vowel systems, such as the Great Vowel Shift in the history of English and contemporary vowel changes driven by language contact and sociolinguistic factors.

Cross-Linguistic Comparison: It compares the vowel systems of Modern English with those of other languages, identifying similarities, differences, and universal tendencies in vowel inventories and phonological processes.

Comparative analysis of the vowel systems of Modern English and Uzbek languages reveals interesting differences and similarities.

1. Vowel Inventory:

- Modern English typically has around 14 vowel phonemes, including monophthongs and diphthongs, with variations across dialects.
- Uzbek generally has a larger vowel inventory, with a distinction between short and long vowels, and a variety of vowel qualities represented.

2. Phonetic Realization:

- English vowels exhibit a variety of heights, frontness, and roundedness, with significant variation in their pronunciation across dialects.
- Uzbek vowels also display variation in height, frontness, and roundedness, influenced by factors such as vowel harmony and historical phonological processes.

3. Vowel Quality:

- English vowels can be categorized as tense or lax, with distinctions between short and long vowels and notable vowel mergers, splits, and shifts.

- Uzbek vowels similarly have qualitative distinctions, with differences in vowel length and quality playing a significant role in lexical and grammatical contrasts.

4. Monophthongization and Diphthongization:

- Historical processes such as the Great Vowel Shift have led to significant changes in the vowel system of English, including the development of new diphthongs.

- While Uzbek has undergone phonological changes over time, such as vowel reduction and syncope, it has not experienced diphthongization to the same extent as English.

5. Regional Variation:

- English exhibits substantial regional variation in vowel pronunciation, including vowel shifts and mergers, such as the Northern Cities Shift in North American English.

- Uzbek dialects also demonstrate regional variation, with differences in vowel quality and quantity influenced by geographical and socio-cultural factors.

6. Social Variation:

- Sociolinguistic factors such as socio-economic status, ethnicity, and age influence vowel pronunciation in English, contributing to variation between social groups.

- Similarly, social factors play a role in Uzbek vowel variation, with differences in pronunciation observed among speakers from diverse social backgrounds.

7. Linguistic Change:

- English has undergone significant historical changes in its vowel system, such as the Great Vowel Shift, as well as ongoing changes driven by language contact and sociolinguistic factors.

- Uzbek has also experienced phonological changes over time, influenced by contact with neighboring languages and internal language evolution.

8. Cross-Linguistic Comparison:

- Despite differences in their vowel systems, English and Uzbek share some similarities in vowel articulation and distribution, reflecting

universal tendencies in vowel inventories and phonological processes.

- Comparative analysis allows for the identification of both shared and divergent features, providing insights into the typological characteristics of each language.

By examining these aspects, comparative analysis illuminates the structural and functional properties of the vowel systems of Modern English and Uzbek languages, highlighting both their similarities and differences within a typological framework.

Vowels, from an acoustic standpoint, are speech sounds characterized by pure musical tones. When represented on an oscillograph, their melody tracing displays periodicity.

In terms of articulation, vowels are speech sounds produced without the presence of noise-producing obstructions. However, there are two types of obstructions involved in their formation:

1. The first obstruction, essential for the formation of both vowels and voiced consonants.

2. The second obstruction, distinctive to English and Uzbek vowels.

It's important to note that the channels created in the mouth cavity to produce vowels by adjusting tongue position and lip configuration are not considered obstructions. Instead, they alter the shape and volume of the resonance chamber, contributing to the characteristic timbre or quality of the vowel being produced.

In modern English we distinguish 21 vowel phonemes:

10. monophthongs [e, i, u, æ α:, ɔ, ɔ:, ^,]ə, ə:]

9. Diphthongs [ei, ai, au, æ i, əi,]

In modern Uzbek we find 6 vowel letters and corresponding vowel phonemes [a, o, y, (e, ə) i(и)]

In the classification, vowel quality, vowel length, and the position of the lips are represented by transcription symbols of the phoneme itself. For example, [α:] represents a long diphthongized vowel phoneme pronounced with unrounded lips, while [æ:] represents a rounded long diphthongized vowel. Symbols like [^] and [e] denote unrounded monophthongs.

The first and second principles, based on the part of the tongue (horizontal movement) and the height of the tongue respectively, form the foundation of any vowel classification. These principles were initially proposed by H. Sweet in 1898

Answer the questions!



1. How do the vowel inventories of Modern English and Uzbek languages compare, and what are some of the key distinctions between their respective vowel systems?
2. What phonetic variations exist in the realization of vowels in Modern English and Uzbek languages, and how do these variations contribute to regional and social dialectal differences?
3. Can you identify any historical processes that have influenced the development of vowel systems in both Modern English and Uzbek languages, and how have these processes shaped their current phonological structures?
4. What are some examples of vowel mergers, splits, and shifts in Modern English, and do similar processes occur in the vowel systems of Uzbek languages?
5. How does regional variation impact vowel pronunciation in Modern English and Uzbek languages, and can you provide examples of regional vowel differences within each language?
6. What role do sociolinguistic factors play in shaping vowel variation in Modern English and Uzbek languages, and how do factors like socio-economic status and ethnicity influence vowel pronunciation?
7. Have Modern English and Uzbek languages undergone significant phonological changes over time, and if so, what are some examples of historical changes in their vowel systems?
8. In what ways do Modern English and Uzbek languages demonstrate cross-linguistic similarities and differences in their vowel systems, and what implications does this have for our understanding of typological variation?

9. How does the comparative analysis of vowel systems in Modern English and Uzbek languages contribute to our understanding of language evolution and contact phenomena?

10. What methodologies and techniques are employed in comparative analysis to systematically compare and contrast the vowel systems of different languages, and what insights can be gained from these comparative studies?

THEME 16. TYPOLOGY CATEGORIES OF CASE



Key aspects of the lecture:

Nominative Case:

The nominative case is used for the subject of a sentence or clause. In English, pronouns such as "I," "he," "she," "we," and "they" are in the nominative case when they function as subjects.

Objective Case:

The objective case is used for the object of a verb or preposition. In English, pronouns such as "me," "him," "her," "us," and "them" are in the objective case when they function as direct objects, indirect objects, or objects of prepositions.

Possessive Case:

The possessive case indicates ownership or possession. In English, pronouns such as "my," "your," "his," "her," "its," "our," and "their" are in the possessive case when they modify nouns to show possession.

Subjective vs. Objective Pronouns:

English distinguishes between subjective (nominative) and objective pronouns, with subjective pronouns used as subjects and objective pronouns used as objects.

Pronominal Case Forms:

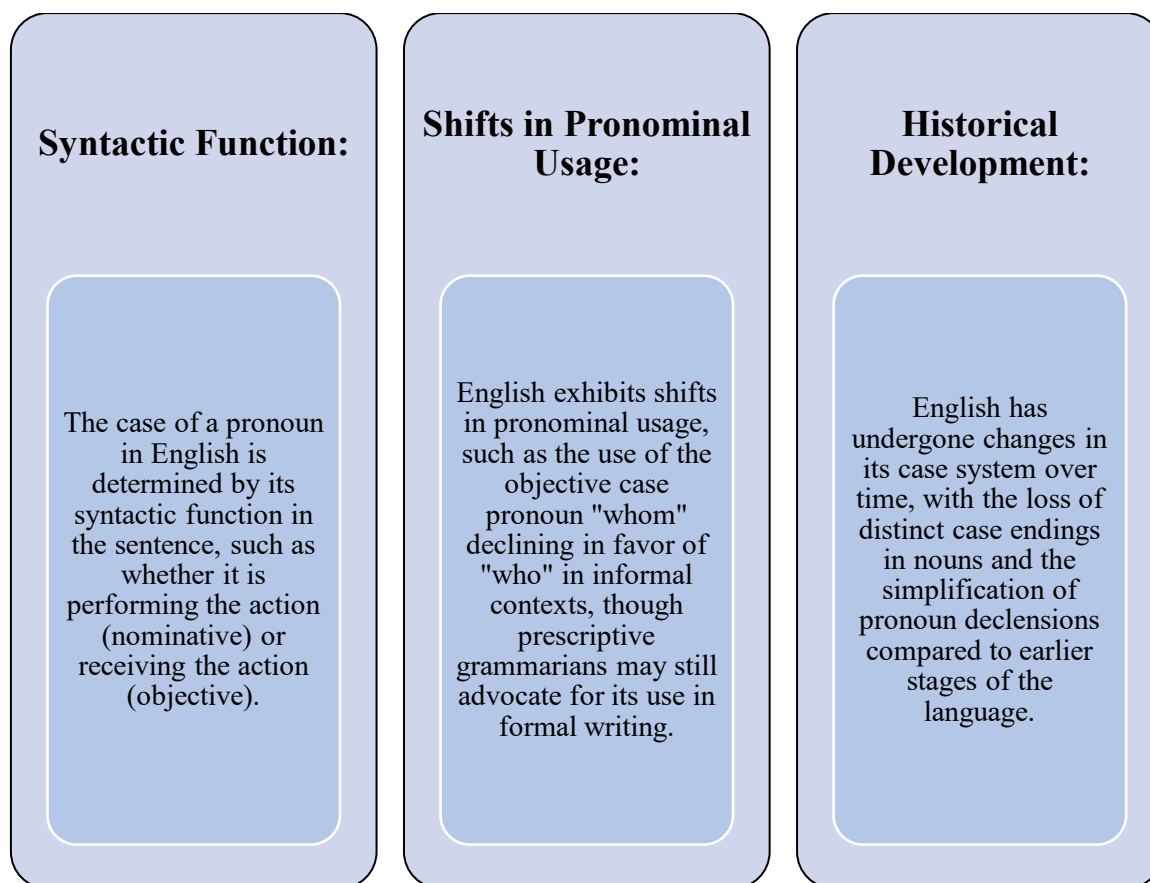
English pronouns have distinct forms for different cases, whereas nouns generally do not inflect for case except in certain fixed expressions (e.g., "genitive case" with 's for possession).

Limited Case Marking:

English has limited case marking compared to some other languages, particularly inflected languages where nouns, adjectives, and sometimes articles also have case forms.

Pronominal Agreement:

Pronouns in English agree with their antecedents in case, number, and gender (in the third person singular), but English lacks overt case marking on nouns themselves.



In English and Uzbek, case is a grammatical category that indicates the grammatical function of nouns, pronouns, and sometimes adjectives within a sentence. Here are the typology categories of case in English and Uzbek:

English:

1. **Nominative Case:** Used for subjects of sentences and clauses. Pronouns like "I," "he," "she," "we," and "they" are in the nominative case.
2. **Objective Case:** Used for direct and indirect objects of verbs and objects of prepositions. Pronouns like "me," "him," "her," "us," and "them" are in the objective case.
3. **Genitive Case:** Indicates possession or association. Often formed by adding 's to nouns, pronouns, or noun phrases (e.g., "John's book"). Pronouns like "my," "your," "his," "her," "its," "our," and "their" also indicate possession.
4. **Reflexive Case:** Used when the subject and object of a sentence are the same entity. Pronouns like "myself," "yourself," "himself,"

"herself," "itself," "ourselves," "yourselves," and "themselves" are reflexive pronouns.

5. **Possessive Case:** Indicates possession or association similar to the genitive case.

It is mainly expressed using the genitive 's or prepositional phrases (e.g., "the book of John"). Pronouns like "mine," "yours," "his," "hers," "its," "ours," and "theirs" are possessive pronouns.

Uzbek:

1. **Nominative Case:** Used for the subject of a sentence. Nouns and pronouns are inflected to indicate nominative case.

2. **Accusative Case:** Indicates the direct object of a transitive verb. Nouns and pronouns are inflected to show accusative case when they are the direct object of a verb.

3. **Genitive Case:** Indicates possession or association. It is formed by adding suffixes to nouns or pronouns.

4. **Dative Case:** Indicates the indirect object of a verb or the recipient of an action. Nouns and pronouns are inflected to show dative case when they are the indirect object of a verb.

5. **Locative Case:** Indicates location or direction. It is formed by adding suffixes to nouns or pronouns.

6. **Ablative Case:** Indicates motion away from or the origin of an action. It is formed by adding suffixes to nouns or pronouns.

7. **Instrumental Case:** Indicates the means by which an action is performed. Nouns and pronouns are inflected to show instrumental case.

8. **Vocative Case:** Used for direct address or calling someone's name. It is formed by adding suffixes to nouns or pronouns.

These typological categories of case in English and Uzbek demonstrate how languages employ case marking to indicate various grammatical functions within sentences, such as subjects, objects, possession, and location.

Grammatically, the system of forms indicating the syntactic relations of nouns (or pronouns) is commonly referred to as the category of case. In essence, case is a grammatical feature that participates in the formation of

the noun (or pronoun) paradigm. There's a degree of division among grammarians regarding the case system of English nouns.

The prevailing viewpoint is that English nouns possess only two cases: the common (subject) case and the possessive (genitive) case.

The common case is characterized by a lack of overt morpheme or suffix, as seen in words like "child," "boy," or "student." Conversely, the possessive case is marked by the suffix " 's" (or its phonetic variants "[s]" and "[z]"), denoting possession or association.

In Uzbek, the "бош келишиги" (common or subject case) aligns in meaning and function with the English common case. Both serve as unmarked members of the case opposition and fulfill similar syntactic roles in sentence structure.

While English primarily features two cases, the common case and the possessive case, Uzbek exhibits six cases, including the nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, locative, and ablative. In English, the possessive case can sometimes be expressed using the preposition "of," as in "my father's room" or "the room of my father," leading to its occasional designation as the "of-genitive" case.

The possessive case, denoting ownership or association, finds its equivalent in Uzbek as the "караткич келишиги," expressed through the case ending suffix "-ning."

When discussing the notion of possession in Uzbek, it's important to note that this category can be expressed not only through nouns but also through their antecedents in pleonastic phrases. For instance, in a phrase like "менинг опамб сизнинг паспортингизю" (my father's your passport), we encounter redundancy, which is often avoided by using only the modified noun containing the possessive suffix, as in "опам keldi" (my father came). In such cases, the suffix of possession can be translated into English or Russian using special possessive pronouns, as in "My sister came" or "Моя сестра пришла."

The meanings and functions of other Uzbek cases can be expressed either through prepositions or through word order. For example, the meaning and function of the Uzbek "тушум келиши" (seeing the act) is

indicated in Uzbek through the case ending "-ши," which denotes the object acted upon. In English, this can be expressed through word order, which tends to be stricter compared to Russian or Uzbek.

For instance, "курдим кузингни колдим балога, кайга борайин энди давога?" (I saw your black eyes, now where should I go for treatment?), where the word order conveys the meaning of the direct object "кузингни" (your eyes).

Some English grammarians, such as O. Curme and M. Doutschbein, recognize word order in English as functioning similarly to the dative case.

When dealing with cases in Uzbek, one must consider the sentence structure, namely the word order in comparing languages: SOV (Subject-Object-Verb) in Uzbek (e.g., "Men ukamni kurdim" - I saw my brother) and SVO (Subject-Verb-Object) in English ("I saw my brother").

The Uzbek "урин пайт келишиги" denotes the location of a thing or person in space and can be translated into English using prepositions such as "at," "in," "on," "by," "over," "above," "among," "between," "behind," etc. For example, "У китоб жавонда" (The book is on the table). It's worth noting that many English prepositions carry additional meanings related to location, such as "in" (inside), "behind" (at the back of), "between" (in the space separating two things), "under" (beneath), etc.

The Uzbek "жуналиш келишиги" denotes the direction of an action, indicated by the case ending "-ga." It can be translated into English using prepositions like "to," "at," "into," etc. For instance, "Yigit maktabga ketdi" (He went to school) and "U qiz menga qaradi" (She looked at me).

The "чиқиш келишиги" of Uzbek nouns signifies the starting point of an action denoted by the verb. In English, this can be conveyed using prepositions like "from," "out of," "from under," etc. For example, "U qiz Londondan keldi" (She came from London) and "U yigit sumkasidan qulqoplarni oldi" (He took his gloves out of his bag).

Answer the questions!



1. How do the typological categories of case in English and Uzbek languages compare, and what similarities and differences exist between their respective case systems?

2. Can you explain the grammatical functions of the nominative, accusative, genitive, and other cases in both English and Uzbek languages, and provide examples of how they are used in sentences?

3. What role does case marking play in English and Uzbek languages in terms of indicating subjects, objects, possession, and other grammatical relationships within sentences?

4. How do nouns and pronouns inflect to express different cases in English and Uzbek languages, and are there any irregularities or exceptions in their case marking patterns?

5. Can you discuss the importance of case distinctions in maintaining clarity and precision in sentence structure, particularly in complex or ambiguous contexts, in both English and Uzbek languages?

6. How do the case systems of English and Uzbek languages contribute to the overall typological profile of each language, and what implications do these systems have for language acquisition and learning?

7. What historical and linguistic factors have influenced the development and evolution of case systems in English and Uzbek languages over time, and how have these systems changed compared to earlier stages of the languages?

8. In what ways do the case systems of English and Uzbek languages reflect cultural and societal aspects of the respective language communities, and how have these systems adapted to meet the communicative needs of speakers?

9. How do dialectal and regional variations impact the use and distribution of case marking in English and Uzbek languages, and are there any notable differences in case usage between different dialects or regional varieties?

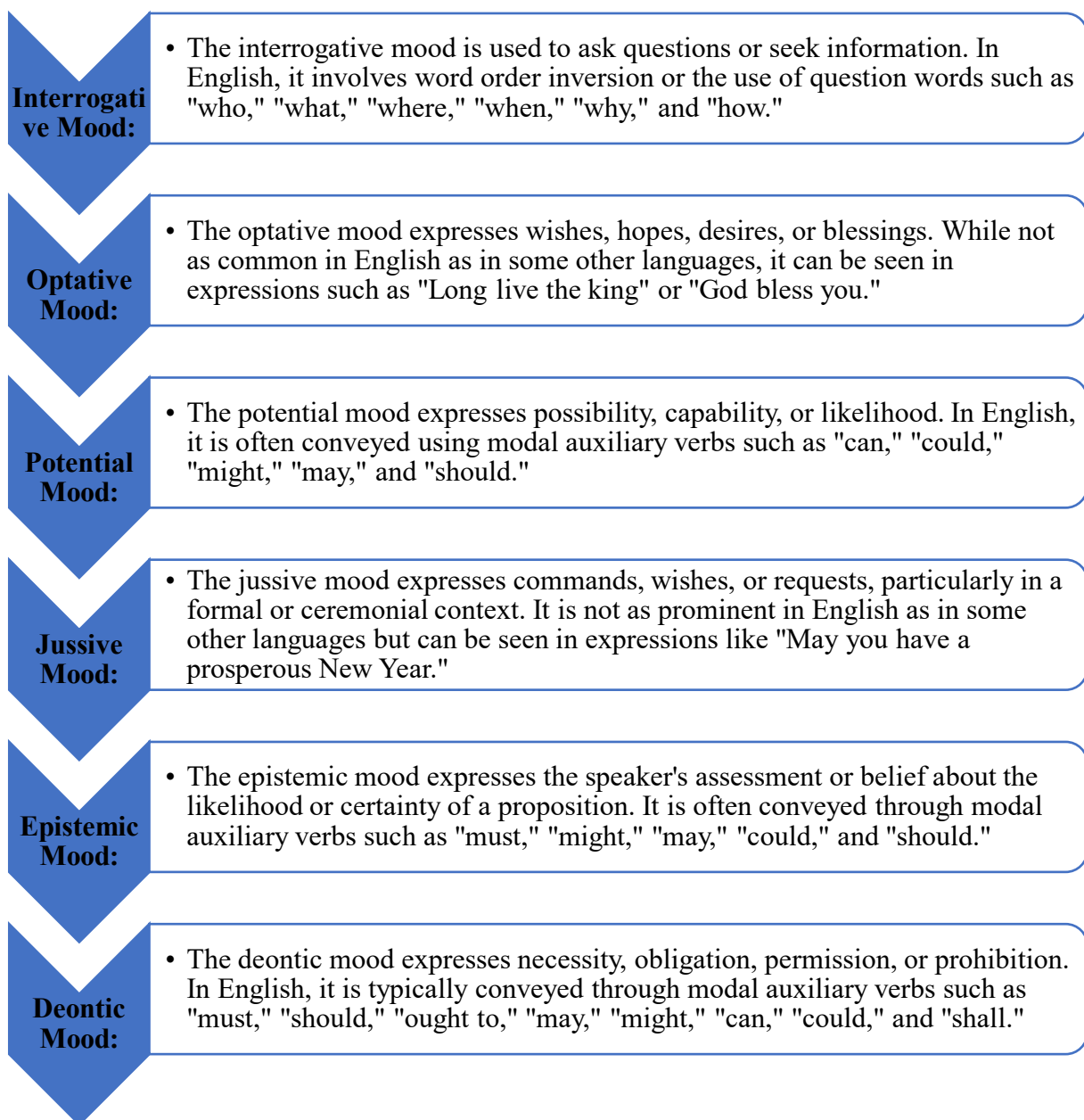
10. What are some current research topics and areas of interest within the field of typological analysis of case systems, and how do researchers approach the study of case in English and Uzbek languages from a comparative and theoretical perspective?

THEME 17. THE GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES OF MOOD ENGLISH



Key aspects of the lecture:

Indicative Mood:	• The indicative mood is used to make statements, ask questions, or express facts, beliefs, or opinions. It is the most common mood in English sentences, used to convey information without any special emphasis.
Subjunctive Mood:	• The subjunctive mood expresses hypothetical, unreal, or counterfactual situations, wishes, recommendations, or demands. It is often used after certain verbs and expressions, such as "wish," "if," "as if," "unless," and "recommend."
Imperative Mood:	• The imperative mood is used to give commands, instructions, requests, or suggestions. It typically involves the use of base form verbs without a subject pronoun, as in "Close the door" or "Please pass the salt."
Conditional Mood:	• The conditional mood expresses situations or events that are dependent on certain conditions or hypothetical scenarios. It is often marked by the use of the auxiliary verb "would" in English, as in "If I won the lottery, I would buy a new car."



Mood in grammar pertains to the methodological aspects and effective application of oral and written communication, where verbs convey the speaker's attitude towards the action's reality. This concept is analyzed extensively by linguists such as Vinogradov V.V., Serebrennikov B.A., Yartseva V.N., and Barkhudarov L.S. Grammatical mood, distinct from tense and aspect, employs similar word patterns to convey multiple meanings concurrently in various languages, including English, most other Indo-European languages, and Turkic languages. Both English and Uzbek languages feature indicative, imperative, and subjunctive moods.

The grammatical category of mood is essential for representing actions as real, problematic, unreal, or as requests or orders. In linguistics,

various terms describe the mood category in verbs, including indicative, interrogative, imperative, subjunctive, injunctive, optative, and potential. These are typically expressed in the finite forms of verbs, while non-finite forms like infinitives, gerunds, and participles are devoid of mood, instead focusing on tense and voice. Terminology can vary between languages; for instance, what one language calls "the conditional mood" may align closely with the "hypothetical" or "potential mood" in another.

Mood closely interacts with tense, person, and number in verbs. The mental attitude of the speaker or writer towards their action or reality significantly influences which mood form is chosen: indicative, imperative, or subjunctive. In English, mood is expressed both analytically and synthetically. Auxiliary verbs like "should," "would," "may," and "might" combine with notional verbs to form the analytical form of mood, adjusting for tense, number, and person. These auxiliary verbs, acting as mood auxiliaries, lose their lexical meaning in this context and function similarly to inflections conveying grammatical meaning.

The Indicative Mood portrays actions or states as facts, such as "*We went home early in the evening*" (Dickens) - "*Biz barvaqt kechda uyga ketdik.*" It also conveys real conditions where the realization is deemed possible, like "*If Catherine disobeys us, we shall disinherit her*" (Eliot) - "*Agar Katerina bizga bo'ysinmasa, uni merosdan mahrum qilamiz.*" In English, the indicative mood is formed synthetically and analytically. Present simple and Past simple are expressed synthetically, while other tense forms employ a synthetic-analytical approach. Future simple is expressed analytically, with the combination of auxiliary and notional verbs, neither of which alters its sound structure. In Uzbek, the indicative mood is predominantly expressed through agglutinated affixation: o'qiyman, gapirasan:

1.1. Hozirgi zamon (Present simple)-by affixal morphemes **-y, -a**;

1.2. Hozirgi-kelasi zamon (Prezent-future) - by affixal morphemes **-y, -a**: Kutubxona har kun soat to'qqizda ochilaydi, Yer o'z o'qi atrofida aylanadi;

1.3. Hozirgi zamon davom fe'li (Present Continuous Tense) - by affixal morphemes **-moqda, -ayotir, -yap**:

Men hozir qiziq bir roman o'qiyapman, Men bog'da ishlamoqdaman, Ukam xat yozayotir;

2.1. O'tgan zamon (Past tense) – there are several forms of the Uzbek Past tense: 1. Aniq o'tgan zamon (Definite past tense): yozdim, yozding, yozdi – by the affixal morpheme **-di**;

2.2. Yaqin o'tgan zamon (Present perfect tense): o'qiganman , o'qigansan, o'qigan – by the affixal morpheme forming Participle **-gan**;

2.3. O'tgan zamon eshitilganlik formasi (Past tense expressing the action heard about) : o'qibman, o'qibsan, o'qibdi – by the agglutinated affixation **-b** ;

2.4. O'tgan zamon davom formasi (Past Continuous): o'qir edim, o'qir eding, o'qir edi- by affixal morpheme **-r** added to the root morpheme in combination with the auxiliary verb **edi** (**edi-** from **emoq**), this tense form is expressed by the agglutinated affixation followed by the analytical form;

2.5. Uzoq o'tgan zamon (Past action performed long ago): o'qigan edim, o'qigan eding, o'qigan edi - by agglutinated affixation forming Participle in combination with the auxiliary verb **-edi**, this tense form is expressed by agglutinated affixation followed by analytical form;

3.1 Kelasi zamon (Future tense) - by affixal morphemes **-ajak, -yajak**: borajakmiz , borajaksiz; Usually this tense form is expressed by affixal morphemes **-y, -a** : Men ertaga buvimnikiga boraman, Men ertaga bog'da ishlayman; there is another form of futurity which is called:

3.2. Kelasi zamon gumon fe'li (Future tense expressing uncertainty) - by affixal morphemes **-r , -ar** forming Participle: yozarman, yozarsan, yozar. Analysis of the Uzbek tense forms shows that affixal morphemes expressing the category of person of verbs are added to the formulated tense forms.

The Imperative Mood conveys commands or requests. It is expressed synthetically, as in "Be quiet and hear what I tell you" (Eliot), and analytically, where the auxiliary verb "do" enhances emphasis, as in "But

now, do sing again for us" (Eliot). In colloquial speech, the subject pronoun "you" is sometimes added for emotional emphasis, as in "I'll drive and you sleep awhile" (Hemingway). Requests directed at third-person singular or plural subjects are typically formed using the combination of the auxiliary verb "let" with the notional verb, as in "Let the child go home at once."

In Uzbek, the Imperative Mood (*Buyruq mayli*) is expressed by the verb without affixal morphemes indicating tense, mood, person, or number, as in "Yoz" (write), "Kel" (come), "O'qi" (read) - synthetically. Agglutinated affixal morphemes like "-qin," "-kin," "-gin" are added to the verb root to convey requests or advice, as in "Olgin," "Yozgin," "Chiqqin," "Borgin." Respectful forms are created by adding affixal morphemes such as "-ngiz," "-ingiz," "-iz(lar)," "-ng(lar)," "-ing" to the verb root, as in "Bering," "Keling," "Ishlangiz," "Ishlanglar." Requests are also formed using affixal morphemes like "-y," "-ay," "-ayin," "-yin," "-sin(lar)," as in "O'qiy," "Ishlay," "Boray," "Yozayin," "Kelsinlar," "Aytsinlar." Adding the affixal morpheme "-sin" to the verb in the passive voice conveys a strict order, as in "Bu narsalar ertaga yuborilsin."

The Subjunctive Mood signifies that the action or state expressed by the verb is presented as non-factual, imaginary, or desired. It is also employed to convey the speaker's emotional attitude towards real facts. In Modern English, the Subjunctive Mood is formed synthetically and analytically.

Synthetic forms of the Subjunctive Mood are limited in Modern English. However, they can be found in poetry and elevated prose for stylistic purposes. The present subjunctive is one such form, as seen in "Though all the world be false, still will I be true" (Trollope). Similarly, the past subjunctive can be expressed synthetically, as in "I wished he were less remote" (Da Maurier). In simple sentences, synthetic subjunctive constructions are often more productive than analytical ones, as in "Success attend you!" or "May success attend you!" to express a wish. Unreal wishes are also expressed synthetically, as in "If only he were free!" (Galsworthy).

The subjunctive mood in simple sentences is a characteristic feature of literary style. Unreal actions or conditions referring to the present or future are expressed synthetically, as in "I wish I were ten years older," or in conditional clauses like "If I were you, I would tell the truth," where both the principal and subordinate clauses depict simultaneous actions. Unreal conditions referring to the past are expressed analytically using the auxiliary verb "had" combined with the past participle, forming the past perfect tense.

The analytical Subjunctive is effectively employed in complex sentences, particularly in adverbial clauses of purpose where the mood auxiliary "may/might" is used. For example:

1.1. When a purpose clause is introduced by conjunctions like "that" or "so that," as in "He got up cautiously so that he might not wake the sleeping boy" (Cronin) - "U ehtiyotkorlik bilan turdi, uyg'otmaslik maqsadida, uxlashgan bolani."

1.2. Occasionally, the mood auxiliary "should" is utilized to add emotional emphasis, as seen in "I made shorthand notes of all that she said, however, so that there should be no possibility of a mistake" (Conon Doyle) - "Xato tushmasin diye, u barcha aytganlarini stenografiyada yozib oldim."

1.3. In clauses of purpose introduced by "lest," the mood auxiliary "should" is employed for all persons, as illustrated in "She looked steadily at her coffee lest she also should begin to cry, as Anna was doing already" (Eliot) - "Anyadek yig'lab yubormaslik maqsadida, qahvasiga bo'ldi."

In each of these instances, the analytical Subjunctive adds nuance and specificity to the expression of purpose or emotional emphasis within the complex sentence structure.

In Uzbek, the Subjunctive Mood is predominantly formed by adding the affixal morpheme "-sa" to the root or stem of the verb, followed by the auxiliary verb "emoq" in the form "edi." In the main clause, the affixal morpheme "-ar" is added to the stem of the predicate. This construction is used to express non-real or hypothetical actions. For example:

"Tuzalsa edi, odamlardek yura olsa edi, boshiga ko'tarardi."
(S. Ahmad) "If he had salt, if he could walk like other people, he would have climbed to the top."

"Oy chiqsa edi! Mehmonlar tezroq kelsa edi." "If the moon had risen! The guests would have come sooner."

In these sentences, the addition of "-sa" followed by "edi" indicates the subjunctive mood, expressing hypothetical or non-real actions or conditions.

Non-real actions can also be expressed using the past participle (the verb with the affix "-gan") along with the appropriate forms indicating person ("-im," "-ing," "-imis," "-ingiz") and the locative case "-da" (sometimes followed by the auxiliary verb "edi"). For instance:

"Men ham doim qishloqda turganimda, mashinani o'rganib olardim."
(H.N.) "Whenever I was in the village, I would learn to drive the car."

When the non-real action pertains to the past, the subordinate clause typically features the past participle (the root or stem of the verb with the affixal morpheme "-gan," followed by the locative case "-da") along with the auxiliary verb "edi." In the main clause, the affix "-gan" is added to the root or stem of the verb, followed by auxiliary verbs like "bo'lar edi" ("- k," "-im," "-ing," "-ingiz"). For example:

"Agar aloqamiz ilgariroq boshlanganda edi, biz bu qora yuz sharmandalarni ilgariroq fosh qilgan bo'lar edik." (Z.Fatxullin) "If our connection had started earlier, we would have revealed these black-faced villains sooner."

In these constructions, the use of past participles along with locative markers and auxiliary verbs helps convey the subjunctive mood, indicating hypothetical or non-real situations.

In both English and Uzbek languages, the Subjunctive Mood is utilized to convey the emotional attitude of the speaker towards reality. This is achieved by adding affixal morphemes, such as "-sa" in Uzbek, to the root or stem of the verb.

Let's analyze the provided examples:

1. Uzbek: "Ichini ko'rsang, voy, biram gilamlar bilan yasatib qo'yilganki, og'zing ochiladi." (Sh.R.) English translation: "If you see the interior, wow, you will open your eyes with amazement at the palaces created with my tears." Analysis: In this sentence, the subjunctive mood is expressed synthetically using the affix "-sa" added to the verb stem "yasatib qo'yilgan" ("created"). The emotional attitude of the speaker towards the reality is conveyed through the use of the subjunctive mood, indicating a hypothetical or desired outcome.

2. Uzbek: "Qani endi bu maslahatga ko'nsa! Hali ketyapmiz, hali ketyapmiz, qani lolazor ko'rina qolsa!" English translation: "If only he adheres to this advice now! We're still leaving, we're still leaving, if only we could see the horizon!" Analysis: Here, the subjunctive mood is formed synthetically with the affix "-sa" added to the verb "ko'nsa" ("adheres"). Additionally, the expression "qani endi" adds further emphasis to the emotional attitude of the speaker towards the desired outcome. This construction reflects a sense of longing or hope for a particular reality.

In both examples, we observe the productive use of both synthetic and analytical formations of the Subjunctive Mood in Uzbek, similar to English. The subjunctive mood allows speakers to convey their emotional stance towards a situation, expressing desires, hopes, or hypothetical scenarios.

WHAT IS A **VERB'S MOOD**? - DEFINITION AND MEANING



Verbs are the foundation of a sentence, as they express actions, states of being, or events. However, verbs also hold the ability to convey the speaker's or writer's attitude, intention, or perception through "mood."

TYPES OF SENTENCES

- 1) INDICATIVE**
- 2) SUBJUNCTIVE**
- 3) IMPERATIVE**

Mood of a Verb

the form a verb takes to show whether it is a fact, a command, a wish, etc.

1 The Indicative Mood

states a fact or asks a question



This broom **is** fast.

Do you **want** a go?

2 The Imperative Mood

expresses an order



Keep away from the sunlight.

Don't **eat** garlic!

3 The Subjunctive Mood

shows a wish, a suggestion, or possible condition



If I **were** alive, I'd demand that I **be** at the party.

Answer the questions!



1. How do the different grammatical categories of mood, such as indicative, subjunctive, imperative, and conditional, influence the structure and meaning of English sentences?

2. Can you provide examples of sentences in each mood category and explain how they convey different attitudes, intentions, or hypothetical scenarios?

3. What linguistic markers or structures indicate the use of each mood category in English sentences, and how do they affect verb conjugation and word order?

4. How does the subjunctive mood differ from the indicative mood in English, and in what contexts is the subjunctive mood typically used?

5. What are some common modal auxiliary verbs used to express different moods in English, and how do they convey nuances of meaning such as possibility, necessity, or obligation?

6. How does the imperative mood function in English sentences, and what are some typical features of imperative constructions?

7. Can you explain the distinction between the epistemic and deontic moods in English, and provide examples of how each is used in different contexts?

8. Are there any regional or dialectal variations in the use of mood categories in English, and if so, how do they manifest?

9. How has the use of the subjunctive mood evolved over time in English, and what factors have influenced its frequency and usage in contemporary English?

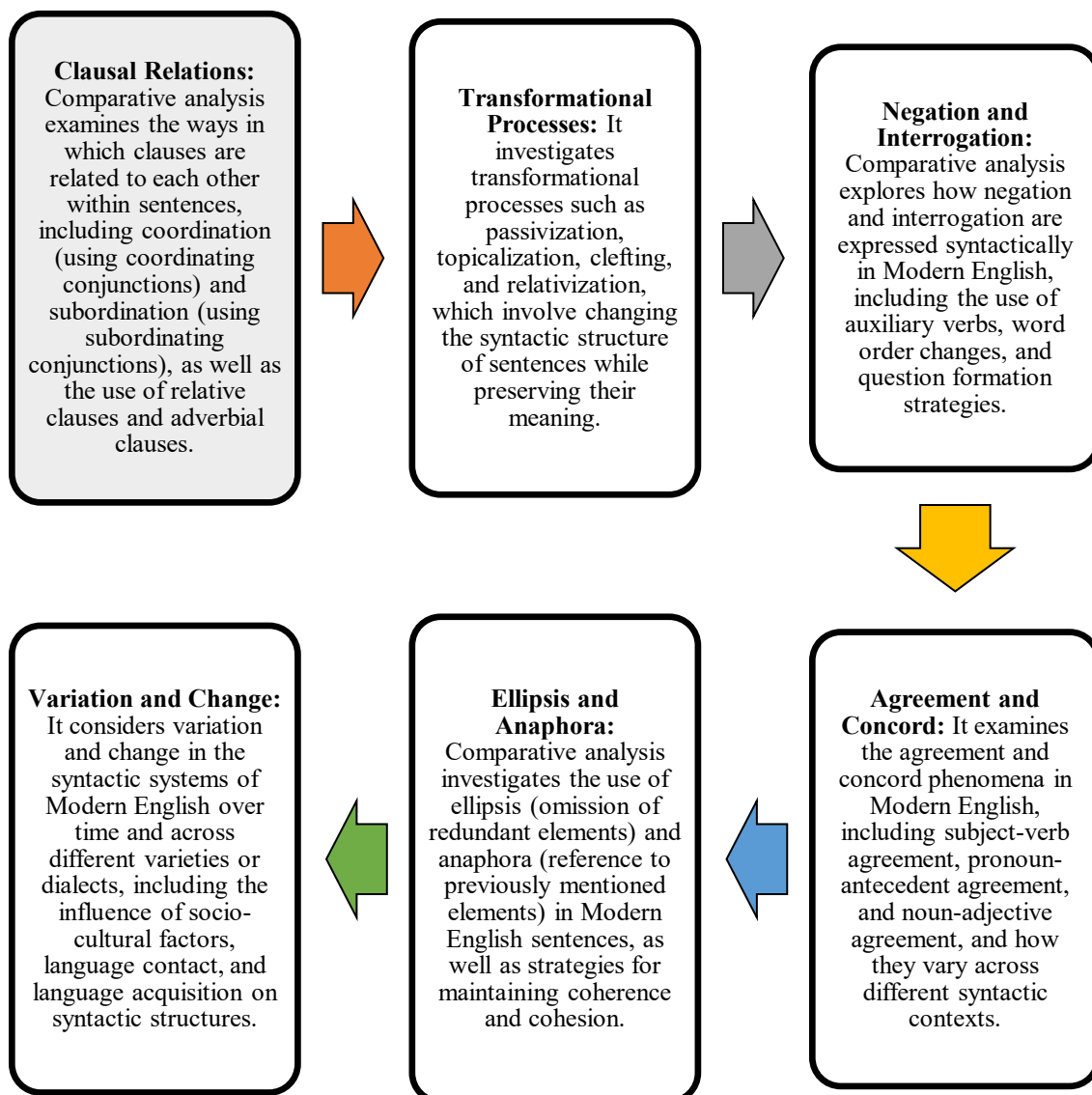
10. In what types of discourse or communication are specific mood categories more commonly employed, and how does the choice of mood affect the rhetorical effect or persuasiveness of the message?

THEME 18. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE SYNTACTIC SYSTEMS OF MODERN ENGLISH



Key aspects of the lecture:

Word Order:	Comparative analysis explores the word order patterns of Modern English sentences, particularly the basic order of subject-verb-object (SVO) in declarative sentences, and how they compare to other languages with different word order typologies such as subject-object-verb (SOV) or verb-subject-object (VSO).
Syntactic Categories:	It examines the syntactic categories and their distribution in sentences, including nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and pronouns, as well as their functions and positions within sentence structures.
Sentence Structure:	Comparative analysis investigates the overall structure of sentences in Modern English, including simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences, as well as the use of coordination and subordination to connect clauses.
Syntactic Functions:	It explores the syntactic functions of different elements within sentences, such as subjects, objects, complements, modifiers, and adjuncts, and how they contribute to the overall meaning and organization of sentences.



The word syntax was borrowed from Greek into all European languages and means “composition”, “order”. No description of the grammar of any language is complete without a section called “Syntax”. As the English linguist R. Robins wrote back in the middle of the last century, syntax is not an appendage that only explains the use of morphological forms, but this is the heart of grammar. And it is impossible to disagree with this, if only because syntax studies ways of combining words into phrases and sentences, and a sentence is the basic unit of communication.

Only through participation in the construction of a sentence does all other linguistic units enter the sphere of communication. Experts in the field of psycholinguistics also note the priority role of syntax in speech

and mental activity. Thus, I. N. Gorelov and K. F. Sedov, relying on the data of A. R. Luria, put forward the position of the primacy of syntax in the process of forming a statement. In their opinion, the mood for a certain type of situation stimulates the choice of syntactic structures included in the utterance, and only then begins to fill the syntactic structure with specific vocabulary. The same idea is expressed by B.Yu.

Norman, emphasizing the fact that the process of generating a utterance in the speaker's grammar begins not with the choice of lexemes, but with the choice of a general scheme or statement program corresponding to the idea, and "vocabulary does not work until the idea will not be embodied in the global scheme of utterance."

Comparative analysis of the syntactic systems of Modern English and Uzbek language reveals intriguing differences and similarities. Here are key aspects of this analysis:

1. Word Order:

- Modern English typically follows a Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) word order in declarative sentences, while Uzbek commonly employs a Subject-Object-Verb (SOV) word order.

- Despite their differing word orders, both languages allow for flexibility and variation in word order, particularly in certain syntactic contexts or for stylistic purposes.

2. Syntactic Categories:

- Both English and Uzbek have similar syntactic categories such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and pronouns.

- However, Uzbek may exhibit more extensive inflectional morphology on nouns and verbs compared to English, impacting the syntactic roles and functions of these categories.

3. Sentence Structure:

- English and Uzbek both employ a variety of sentence structures, including simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences.

- While English often relies on coordination and subordination to connect clauses within sentences, Uzbek may utilize suffixes, postpositions, and other grammatical markers to indicate syntactic relationships.

4. Clausal Relations:

- Both languages use coordination and subordination to express clausal relations, although the specific strategies and markers employed may differ.

- Relative clauses and adverbial clauses are common in both English and Uzbek, providing additional information within sentences.

5. Negation and Interrogation:

- English and Uzbek employ different strategies for negation and interrogation.

- English often uses auxiliary verbs ("do," "have," "be") for negation and question formation, while Uzbek may use particles or word order changes.

6. Agreement and Concord:

- English exhibits subject-verb agreement and pronoun-antecedent agreement, while Uzbek may show agreement through inflectional markers on nouns, verbs, and pronouns.

- However, agreement patterns may differ between the two languages, particularly in terms of gender and case agreement.

7. Ellipsis and Anaphora:

- Both languages allow for ellipsis and anaphora, though the specific strategies and linguistic devices employed may vary.

- English often uses pronouns and pro-forms to refer back to previously mentioned elements, while Uzbek may rely more heavily on inflectional morphology and word order.

8. Variation and Change:

- English and Uzbek exhibit variation and change in their syntactic systems over time and across different varieties or dialects.

- Factors such as language contact, socio-cultural influences, and language acquisition may contribute to syntactic variation and change in both languages.

Through comparative analysis, researchers can gain a deeper understanding of the syntactic structures, rules, and patterns in Modern English and Uzbek language, highlighting both their shared typological features and their distinct syntactic characteristics.

Answer the questions!



1. How do the word order patterns of Modern English and Uzbek language compare, and what impact do these differences have on sentence structure and meaning?

2. What syntactic categories are present in both Modern English and Uzbek language, and how do they function within sentence constructions?

3. Can you provide examples of different types of sentence structures found in both Modern English and Uzbek language, and discuss how they reflect the syntactic systems of each language?

4. How do Modern English and Uzbek language employ coordination and subordination to connect clauses within sentences, and are there any notable differences in the strategies used?

5. What strategies do Modern English and Uzbek language use for negation and interrogation, and how do these strategies differ between the two languages?

6. How do agreement and concord manifest in the syntactic systems of Modern English and Uzbek language, and are there any differences in agreement patterns between the two languages?

7. What role does ellipsis and anaphora play in sentence construction in both Modern English and Uzbek language, and how do they contribute to coherence and cohesion?

8. Can you discuss the variation and change observed in the syntactic systems of Modern English and Uzbek language over time and across different dialects or varieties?

9. How do factors such as language contact, socio-cultural influences, and language acquisition impact the syntactic systems of Modern English and Uzbek language?

10. What insights can be gained from comparative analysis of the syntactic systems of Modern English and Uzbek language, and how does this contribute to our understanding of linguistic typology and language universals?

THEME 19. TYPOLOGY OF SUPER SEGMENTAL MEANS OF MODERN ENGLISH



Key aspects of the lecture:

Intonation Patterns: Modern English exhibits various intonation patterns, including rising intonation for questions, falling intonation for declarative statements, and a combination of rising and falling intonation for emphasis or contrast.

Stress Patterns: English is a stress-timed language, where stressed syllables occur at regular intervals, leading to variations in the rhythm and tempo of speech. The placement of stress can affect the meaning and interpretation of words and sentences.

Rhythm and Timing: English has a characteristic rhythm determined by the alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables. This rhythmic pattern contributes to the overall flow and prosody of speech.

Pitch and Pitch Variation: Pitch refers to the perceived highness or lowness of a sound, and pitch variation in English can convey emotions, attitudes, and pragmatic meaning. For example, a rising pitch may indicate uncertainty or surprise, while a falling pitch may convey certainty or finality.

Speech Rate: The rate or tempo of speech in Modern English can vary depending on factors such as context, speaker characteristics, and communicative goals. Speech rate affects the perception of clarity, fluency, and expressiveness in communication.

Pauses and Phrasing: Pauses and phrasing play a crucial role in organizing speech into meaningful units such as phrases, clauses, and sentences. Pauses provide listeners with cues for processing and comprehension, while phrasing contributes to the overall coherence and structure of discourse.

Accent and Pronunciation Patterns: English exhibits regional and social variation in accent and pronunciation, leading to differences in super-segmental features such as intonation, stress, and rhythm. Variations in accent can influence communication and identity.

Discourse Functions: Super-segmental features serve various discourse functions in Modern English, including signaling turn-taking, marking topic shifts, indicating focus or emphasis, expressing emotions, and conveying pragmatic meaning.

Linguistic Variation: Super-segmental features in English exhibit variation across different dialects, socio-cultural contexts, and communicative situations. Understanding this variation is essential for effective communication and intercultural understanding.

Language Change and Evolution: Super-segmental features of English are subject to change over time, influenced by factors such as language contact, technological advancements, globalization, and sociocultural shifts. Studying the typology of super-segmental means allows linguists to track these changes and their implications for language use and communication.

Comparing the typology of super-segmental means between Modern English and Uzbek languages reveals interesting similarities and differences.

1. Intonation Patterns:

- Both Modern English and Uzbek languages exhibit intonation patterns that convey various pragmatic functions such as indicating questions, statements, or emphasis. However, the specific intonation contours and their communicative functions may differ between the two languages.

2. Stress Patterns:

- While both languages utilize stress to highlight certain syllables within words or phrases, the distribution and realization of stress may vary.

English is known for its stress-timed rhythm, whereas Uzbek may exhibit a more syllable-timed rhythm with different stress patterns.

3. Rhythm and Timing:

- Both English and Uzbek languages have distinct rhythmic patterns determined by the alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables. However, the rhythm and timing of speech may be influenced by factors such as linguistic structure, phonological processes, and cultural norms, leading to differences in speech tempo and rhythm.

4. Pitch and Pitch Variation:

- Pitch variation plays a crucial role in conveying meaning and pragmatic functions in both languages. However, the specific pitch contours and their communicative effects may vary between English and Uzbek, influenced by linguistic, cultural, and social factors.

5. Speech Rate:

- The rate of speech, or tempo, may vary between Modern English and Uzbek languages, influenced by factors such as language structure, discourse conventions, and communicative styles. Differences in speech rate may impact the perceived clarity, fluency, and expressiveness of communication.

6. Pauses and Phrasing:

- Both languages utilize pauses and phrasing to organize speech into meaningful units and signal discourse boundaries. However, the placement and duration of pauses, as well as the segmentation of speech into phrases, may differ between English and Uzbek.

7. Accent and Pronunciation Patterns:

- English and Uzbek languages exhibit distinct accent and pronunciation patterns influenced by regional, social, and linguistic factors. Variations in accent and pronunciation may impact super-segmental features such as intonation, stress, and rhythm, contributing to differences in speech patterns between the two languages.

8. Discourse Functions:

- Super-segmental features serve various discourse functions in both Modern English and Uzbek languages, including signaling turn-taking, marking topic shifts, expressing emotions, and conveying pragmatic meaning. However, the specific discourse functions and their realization may differ between the two languages.

9. Linguistic Variation:

- Super-segmental features exhibit variation across different dialects, socio-cultural contexts, and communicative situations in both languages. Understanding this variation is essential for effective communication and intercultural understanding in diverse linguistic contexts.

10. Language Change and Evolution:

- Super-segmental features of both languages are subject to change over time, influenced by factors such as language contact, technological advancements, globalization, and sociocultural shifts. Studying the typology of super-segmental means allows linguists to track these changes and their implications for language use and communication in Modern English and Uzbek languages.

By comparing these key aspects, linguists gain insights into the similarities and differences in the typology of super-segmental means between Modern English and Uzbek languages, contributing to our understanding of speech production, perception, and communication in diverse linguistic contexts.

- **Open syllable:** *bar, tie*

- **Closed syllable:** *bard, tied*

- **English Syllable:** (((C)C)C)V((((C)C)C)C)

- **Chinese syllable:** (C)V(C)

Maximal Onset Principle (MOP)

- When there is a choice as to where to place a consonant, it is put into the onset rather than the coda.
- Cf. **tell** and **telling** – resyllabification
 - te- + -lling

Answer the questions!



1. How do the intonation patterns in Modern English and Uzbek languages differ, and what pragmatic functions do they serve in communication?

2. Can you explain the concept of stress timing in Modern English and syllable timing in Uzbek languages, and how do these rhythmic patterns influence speech production and perception?

3. What role does pitch variation play in conveying meaning and emotions in both Modern English and Uzbek languages, and how do cultural and social factors influence pitch patterns?

4. How does speech rate or tempo vary between Modern English and Uzbek languages, and what factors contribute to differences in speech rate?

5. In what ways do pauses and phrasing contribute to the organization and coherence of discourse in Modern English and Uzbek languages?

6. How do accent and pronunciation patterns differ between Modern English and Uzbek languages, and what impact do they have on super-segmental features such as intonation and rhythm?

7. What discourse functions do super-segmental features serve in Modern English and Uzbek languages, and can you provide examples of how they are used in communication?

8. How does linguistic variation affect the realization of super-segmental features in different dialects or varieties of Modern English and Uzbek languages?

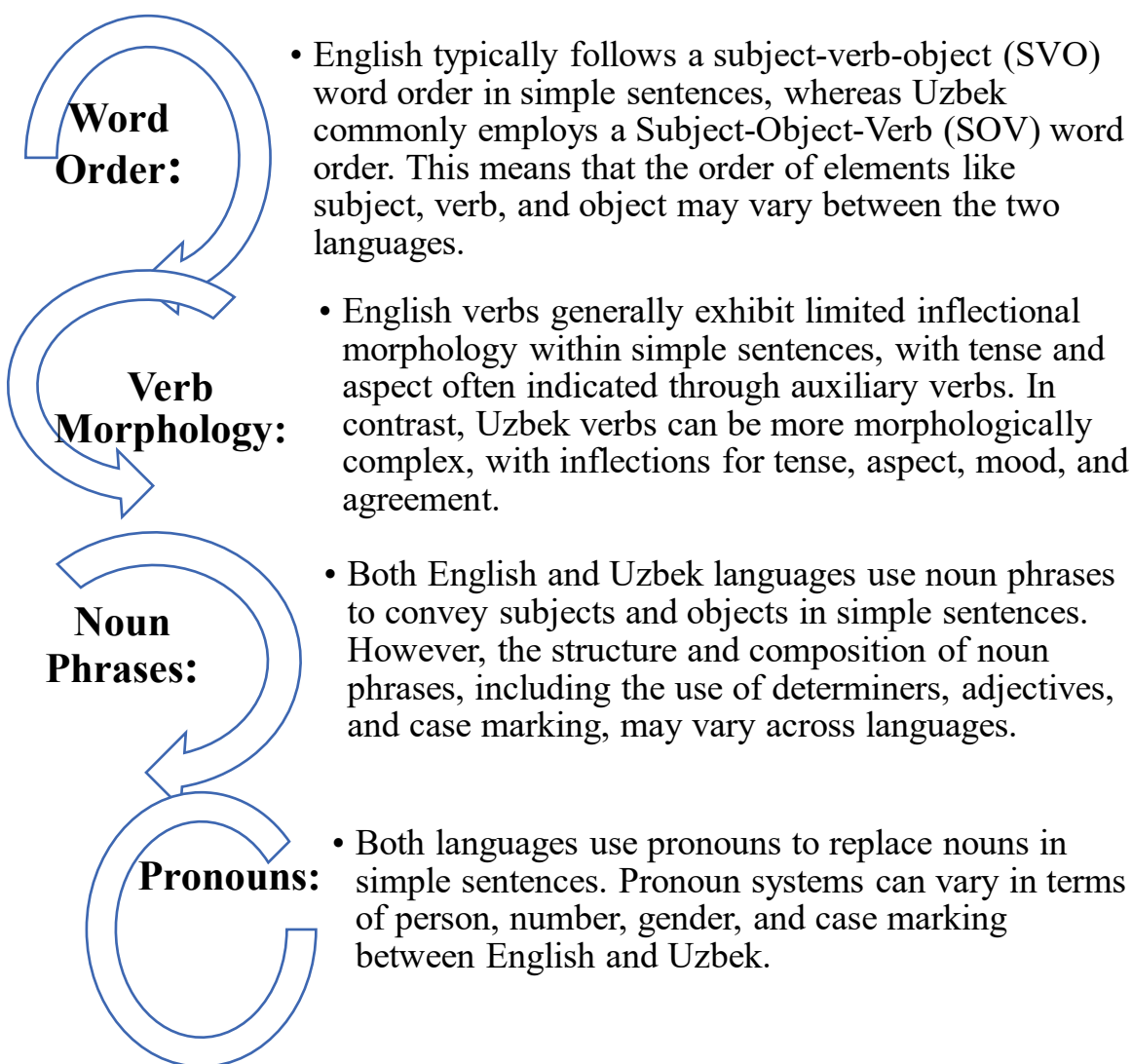
9. What historical and sociocultural factors have influenced the evolution of super-segmental features in Modern English and Uzbek languages over time?

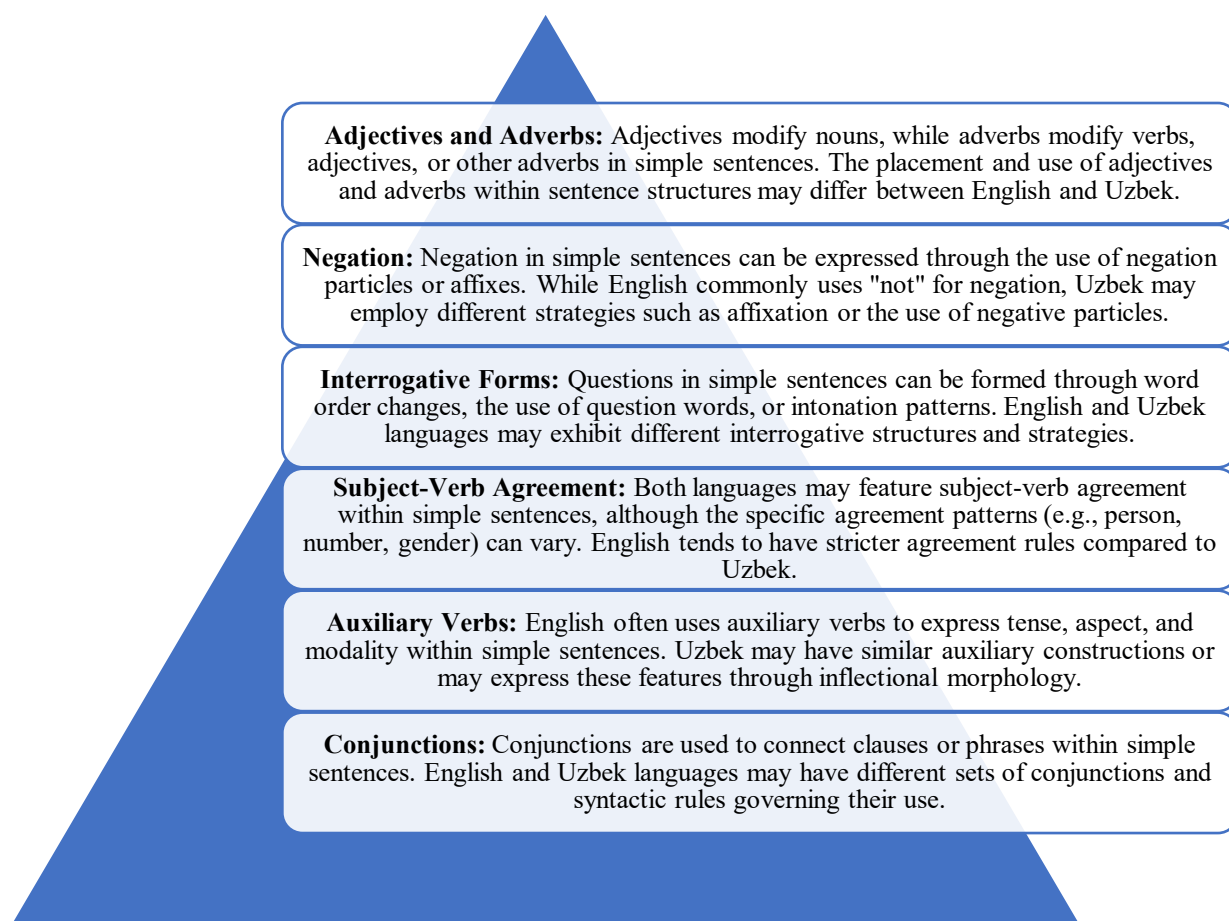
10. How does comparative analysis of the typology of super-segmental means enhance our understanding of speech production, perception, and communication in diverse linguistic contexts?

M20. TYPOLOGY OF SIMPLE SENTENCE IN THE ENGLISH AND NATIVE LANGUAGES



Key aspects of the lecture:





The fundamental building block of language structure is the sentence, which is constructed according to the linguistic patterns inherent in a particular language. Each sentence is characterized by its own distinctive intonation, uniting all its sounds into a coherent whole. Within a sentence, grammatical meanings are conveyed through a system of rules outlined by the language's grammar.

In the process of communication, speakers employ these grammatical rules and established patterns to enhance the efficacy of their speech, effectively conveying their intended message to their audience. In linguistic terms, a speech act is defined by the speaker's intention and the impact it has on the listener. These acts can take various forms such as requests, warnings, promises, apologies, greetings, or declarations, and they play a vital role in facilitating communication.

The speaker, as the individual addressing others through speech, interacts with the components of the sentence, particularly those fulfilling the syntactic function of the subject.

Additionally, the speaker's perspective on reality is reflected through modality, which encompasses tense, mood, modal words, modal verbs, intonation, and other linguistic elements.

Modality is expressed across different levels of language, including phonological, lexical, lexical-grammatical, and grammatical levels. Furthermore, sentences are interconnected with various linguistic and extralinguistic factors, including logical, psychological, and philosophical considerations.

The concept of a sentence has been approached from multiple perspectives, resulting in diverse definitions. Some scholars examine sentences from phonetic viewpoints, while others focus on semantics (the meaning of sentences), among other approaches.

According to some linguists, a sentence is deemed to express a complete thought, primarily emphasizing its logical aspect. Otto Jespersen further emphasizes the idea of completeness and independence in a sentence, suggesting that it can stand alone as a complete utterance. B.A. Ilyish highlights the notion of the sentence as the minimal syntactic structure utilized in communication, characterized by its predicativity, which conveys thought and is accompanied by a specific intonation pattern. Additionally, any sentence is expected to convey meanings related to tense, person, and mood, reflecting the speaker's attitude toward reality.

A sentence, as a linguistic unit, adheres to the rules of grammar and serves as the primary vehicle for conveying ideas. Beyond mere communication of information about reality, a sentence also serves as a vehicle for expressing the speaker's stance toward it. For instance, in the sentence "We love our native country," grammatical features such as tense, mood, and person are expressed, reflecting the speaker's perspective.

Professor M.I. Rasulova asserts that predicativity forms the structural foundation and meaning of a sentence, while intonation constitutes its structural form. Thus, a sentence is conceptualized as a communicative unit composed of words and morphemes, structurally bound by intonation and predicativity, as highlighted in Rasulova's work on comparative typology of languages.

Expanding on Rasulova's interpretation, academician G. Pocheptsov defines a sentence as the central syntactic construction functioning as the minimal communicative unit, embodying primary predication, following a specific structural scheme, and exhibiting distinct intonation characteristics. It's important to note the distinction between a sentence and an utterance: while a sentence is an abstract theoretical construct within grammatical theory, an utterance refers to the actual use of language in speech. In essence, a sentence constitutes a unit of language, whereas an utterance represents a unit of speech.

The sentence, as a fundamental linguistic unit, possesses two key characteristics: structural and semantic. Structurally, it is comprised of subject-predicate relations, known as primary predication. Semantically, a sentence refers to a fact in objective reality.

In essence, a sentence is the smallest communicative unit, formed by one or more syntactically connected words with primary predication and a specific intonation pattern, as elucidated by Rasulova M.I. The primary components of a sentence are the subject and the predicate, which together form the predication. In English, syntactic relationships among words are often indicated by word order, which carries meaning due to the historical evolution of the language. Inflected forms in English have diminished, with auxiliary words and prepositional constructions taking on the functions once performed by inflections.

In contrast, syntactic relationships in Uzbek sentences are primarily conveyed through government ties, wherein adjuncts receive grammatical forms not inherent in the head word of the word combination. These grammatical forms are typically expressed through case forms and case forms followed by function words in postposition.

Detailed descriptions of syntactic relations in the structures of English, Uzbek, and Russian sentences are provided in this manual, particularly concerning the typology of word combinations in English and native languages.

English simple sentences can be categorized into one-member and two-member sentences based on their structure.

1. Two-Member Sentences:

- These sentences consist of two main parts: the subject and the predicate. For example: "Young Jolyon could not help smiling."
- Two-member sentences can be either complete or non-complete. A complete two-member sentence includes both the subject and the predicate, like "Fleur had established immediate contact with an architect."
- Incomplete two-member sentences lack one or both of the principal parts, but their meaning can be inferred from the context or through questioning. These are termed elliptical sentences, often used in colloquial speech or dialogue. For instance: "What were you doing?" – "Drinking."

2. One-Member Sentences:

- One-member sentences consist of only one element performing the function of both the subject and the predicate.
- These sentences are commonly employed in descriptions and emotional expressions. The leading member of a one-member sentence can be interpreted as either the subject or the predicate.
- Nominative sentences, a type of one-member sentence, typically feature a noun or a noun with its attributes. They convey a sense of immediacy and are often accompanied by expressive intonation. For example: "The sky, the flowers, the songs of birds!"
- Unlike elliptical sentences, nominative sentences do not contain secondary parts connected to a verbal predicate.
- One-member sentences can be extended or non-extended, and they may take the form of declarative, interrogative, exclamatory, or negative statements. Examples include:
 - Declarative: "Dusk of a summer night."
 - Interrogative: "A thunderstorm? Let's look for shelter."
 - Exclamatory: "What a still, hot, perfect day!"
 - Negative: "Freedom! Bells ringing out, flowers, kisses, wine."

In summary, English simple sentences vary in structure and function, with two-member sentences consisting of subject and predicate, and one-

member sentences featuring a single element performing both roles. These sentences serve different communicative purposes and are utilized in various contexts, from descriptive prose to emotional expressions.

Two-member simple sentences in English can be classified into different types based on the subject referring to no specific person or persons but to people in general:

1. Impersonal Two-Member Simple Sentences:

- In these sentences, the subject typically denotes natural phenomena, time, or distance, and the pronoun "it" is used as the subject.
- Examples include: "It is getting dark," "It is five minutes past six," "It is a long way to the station."
- Additionally, there are impersonal sentences where "it" introduces the sentence, with the subject referring to no particular person or thing. For example: "It is no use disguising facts," "It was curious to observe that child."

2. Indefinite-Personal Two-Member Simple Sentences:

- In these sentences, the subject is often expressed using indefinite pronouns like "one" or personal pronouns such as "you" or "we."
- Examples include: "A day is like a page in a book. One cannot read it without commas and periods," "You can see many-storied, beautiful buildings in the center of the city," "Every pleasure is transitory. We can't eat long."
- It's worth noting that pronouns like "one," "you," and "we" are used when the speaker is included in the action being discussed.

In addition to these classifications, two-member simple sentences can also be categorized based on their purpose and the modality they express:

1. Declarative Sentences: These sentences make statements and can convey statements, hypothetical scenarios, or incentives.

2. Interrogative Sentences: These sentences pose questions.

3. Exclamatory Sentences: These sentences express strong emotions or exclamations.

4. Imperative Sentences: These sentences give commands or instructions.

Overall, English two-member simple sentences exhibit various structures and functions, reflecting different linguistic contexts and communicative purposes.

In the structure of the Uzbek language, simple sentences are classified into one-member and two-member sentences. Similar to English, two-member sentences in Uzbek are classified based on their purpose of utterance and their structural basis.

Professor I. Rasulov, author of the monograph "Hozirgi o'zbek adabiy tilida bir sostavli gaplar" (Contemporary Single-Member Sentences in Uzbek Literary Language), Tashkent, 1974, explains that the structure of a sentence can be either single-headed or double-headed. He emphasizes that the fundamental characteristics of two-member sentences, such as expressing a relative complete thought, predicativity, intonational integrity, and the syntactic connection between words, are equally applicable to one-member sentences.

Furthermore, Rasulov highlights that the categories of tense and mood, expressed within the predication, are demonstrated in both two-member and one-member sentences. In two-member sentence predications, these categories are articulated by two components, while in one-member sentences, they are conveyed by a single component.

In essence, both one-member and two-member sentences in Uzbek exhibit similar linguistic characteristics, with the key difference lying in the number of components used to express tense and mood categories within the predication.

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

1. Declarative two-member simple sentences in Uzbek express

1) statement: Qosh qorayganda odamlar choyxonaga tomon kela boshladi (A. Qahhor);

2) dream and hope: Men yorug'likni, erkinlikni istayman (H.Olimjon);

3) confidence, pride: Alisher Navoiy sehrli qalami bilan bir turtib, qovoqdan ko'z yasaydi (Oybek);

4. advice and joy: U keldi, ota (A. Muxtor), Sabr qil, qo'zichog'im (Oybek);

5. astonishment and suspicion: Tovba, bunday ustomonni ko'rgan emasman (Oybek), Oq podshoning tagi puchga o'xshaydi (Oybek);

6) regret, anxiety, concern: G'am ustiga g'am ko'rdim, boyvachcha aka (Oybek);

7. displeasure, insult, irony: Samoviy muzalar biz uchun yotdir (Yashin), Bu g'arib onangizdan tez-tez xabar olmaysiz (Oybek), Ey Akramjon, nafasing muncha saraton (Yashin).

2. **Interrogative sentences in Uzbek** are formed in the following ways:

1. by adding affixal morphemes to the word performing the function of the predicate : **-a, -ya, -da, -ku, -mi, -chi** . Onaxon nishon olgani uchun sen juda xursandmisan? (Yashin);

2. by interrogative pronouns **kim, nima**: G'azaldan bu kabi zavq olmagan kim? It is desirable to comment that these interrogative pronouns can receive any case forms (kimni, nimani, kimda, nimada, kimdan, nimadan, kimning, nimaning). This typological characteristic does not exist in English.

3. by using pronouns **qanday, qaysi, necha, qancha** in order to define the quality of the object: G'ulom aka, o'sha vaqtlarda qancha hosil olar edingiz?(A. Qahhor);

4. by using pronouns **qayerda, qachon, qanday, qanday qilib, nechuk, nima uchun nima sababdan** in order to define the place, the time, the state, the reason or the purpose of the action to be performed: Qachon keladilar? (A. Qahhor), Men qayoqdan bilaman uning nima niyatda kelganini?(A. Qahhor);

5. by repeating the interlocutor's word out of the sentence uttered by him/her : Olimjonni siz qachondan beri bilasiz? - Olimjonni?-so'radi Oyqiz (Sh.Rashidov). Sometimes interrogation in Uzbek is expressed only

by a rising intonation, the word order is as it is in the declarative sentence: Ota, juda xayol surib qoldingiz?(A. Qahhor). This peculiarity of interrogative sentences is similar to the English language as we have seen it above. In some other cases interrogation in Uzbek is expressed by adding the affixal morphemes **-a(r)**, **-dir** to the word performing the function of the predicate, and by using modal words such as **kerak**, **shekilli**, **balki**, **ehtimol**: Hoy-hoy, o'rgilay otasi, muncha qiynaysiz uni? Ilgari durust edi shekilli? (A.Qahhor).

3. Imperative sentences in Uzbek according to their structure are formed in the following ways:

1. by the form of the predicate in the imperative mood: Onajon qayg'urmang (Oybe) ;

2. by the form of the predicate in the subjunctive mood (sometimes the modal word **nahotki** or the particle **-ya** is used in the structure of the sentence in the subjunctive mood): To'qqiz kishi muzokaraga chiqsa-ya, ;

3. by the combination of the modal words **kerak**, **mumkin**, **darkor** with the infinitive (harakat nomi): Bu ablahni qiynab o'ldirish kerak (Yashin).

4. Exclamatory sentences in Uzbek, much like their counterparts in English, serve to convey a range of emotional attitudes and inner feelings of the speaker towards reality. While declarative, interrogative, and imperative sentences in both English and native languages can also convey emotional nuances through special intonation, their primary function remains declarative, interrogative, or imperative, respectively, and they cannot be categorized as exclamatory sentences. Exclamatory sentences in English and native languages possess distinctive structures, grammatical features, and effectively convey the speaker's inner emotional states and attitudes towards reality.

In summary, while various types of sentences can carry emotional undertones through intonation, exclamatory sentences stand out with their specific structure and grammatical characteristics, allowing speakers to express their intense emotions and attitudes towards the world around them.

Answer the questions!



1. How does the word order differ between simple sentences in English and Uzbek languages, and what impact does this have on sentence structure and meaning?

2. Can you explain the role of verb morphology in simple sentences in English and Uzbek languages, and how does it affect the expression of tense, aspect, and mood?

3. What are the similarities and differences in the structure and composition of noun phrases in simple sentences between English and Uzbek languages?

4. How do pronoun systems vary between English and Uzbek languages in the context of simple sentences, including differences in person, number, gender, and case marking?

5. What are the differences in the use and placement of adjectives and adverbs within simple sentences in English and Uzbek languages?

6. How is negation expressed in simple sentences in English and Uzbek languages, and what are the different strategies employed for negation?

7. What are the various ways of forming questions in simple sentences in English and Uzbek languages, and how do they differ in terms of word order, question words, and intonation patterns?

8. Can you discuss the patterns of subject-verb agreement in simple sentences in English and Uzbek languages, including differences in agreement rules and patterns?

9. How do auxiliary verbs function in simple sentences in English and Uzbek languages, and what are the differences in their usage and roles?

10. What are the common conjunctions used to connect clauses or phrases within simple sentences in English and Uzbek languages, and how do they contribute to sentence cohesion and coherence?

THEME 21. THE SUBJECT MATTER OF THE LINGUISTIC TYPOLOGY

Objective: By the end of the lesson, students will be able to:

1. Define linguistic typology and identify key typological categories.
2. Analyze linguistic data to identify cross-linguistic patterns and tendencies.
3. Understand the functional motivations behind language structure and variation.
4. Apply typological concepts to analyze real-world linguistic phenomena.

Materials:

- Whiteboard or projector for visual aids
- Handouts with linguistic data sets and exercises
- Pen and paper for note-taking
- Internet access for research

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Greet the students and introduce the topic of linguistic typology.
- Engage students with a thought-provoking question: «Why do you think languages differ in their grammatical structures?»
- Explain the objectives of the lesson and its relevance to understanding language diversity.

2. Defining Linguistic Typology (15 minutes):

- Define linguistic typology as the study of the structural diversity of languages and its significance in linguistics.
- Present examples of typological categories such as word order patterns, morphological types, and syntactic alignment systems.

Information: Linguistic typology focuses on understanding the cognitive and socio-cultural aspects that distinguish languages, particularly in terms of semantic differences. This exploration enables effective communication and comprehension among speakers of different languages. However, fully studying the diversity of languages worldwide

remains a challenge, as it's difficult to determine the exact number of languages that exist.

In publications from 1989, it was estimated that there were approximately 5,000 to 7,000 distinct languages. However, the Linguistic Center in Washington has documented around 18,000 languages since 1970. The reliability of this count can be questioned, as it may include multiple entries for the same language and its various dialects.

To discuss linguistic types effectively, we categorize languages based on genealogical familiarity, structural familiarity, and geographic distribution. Among the significant language family groups are Indo-European, Sino-Tibetan, Niger-Congo, Afroasiatic, Austronesian, Altaic, Japonic, Austroasiatic, and Tai-Kadai. Indo-European and Sino-Tibetan languages, spoken by 67% of the global population, are the most widely used. Classification of languages relies on linguistic, historical, geographical, and sociopolitical criteria, aiding in the precise understanding of connections between languages worldwide.

Based on different criteria, languages are classified into three main categories:

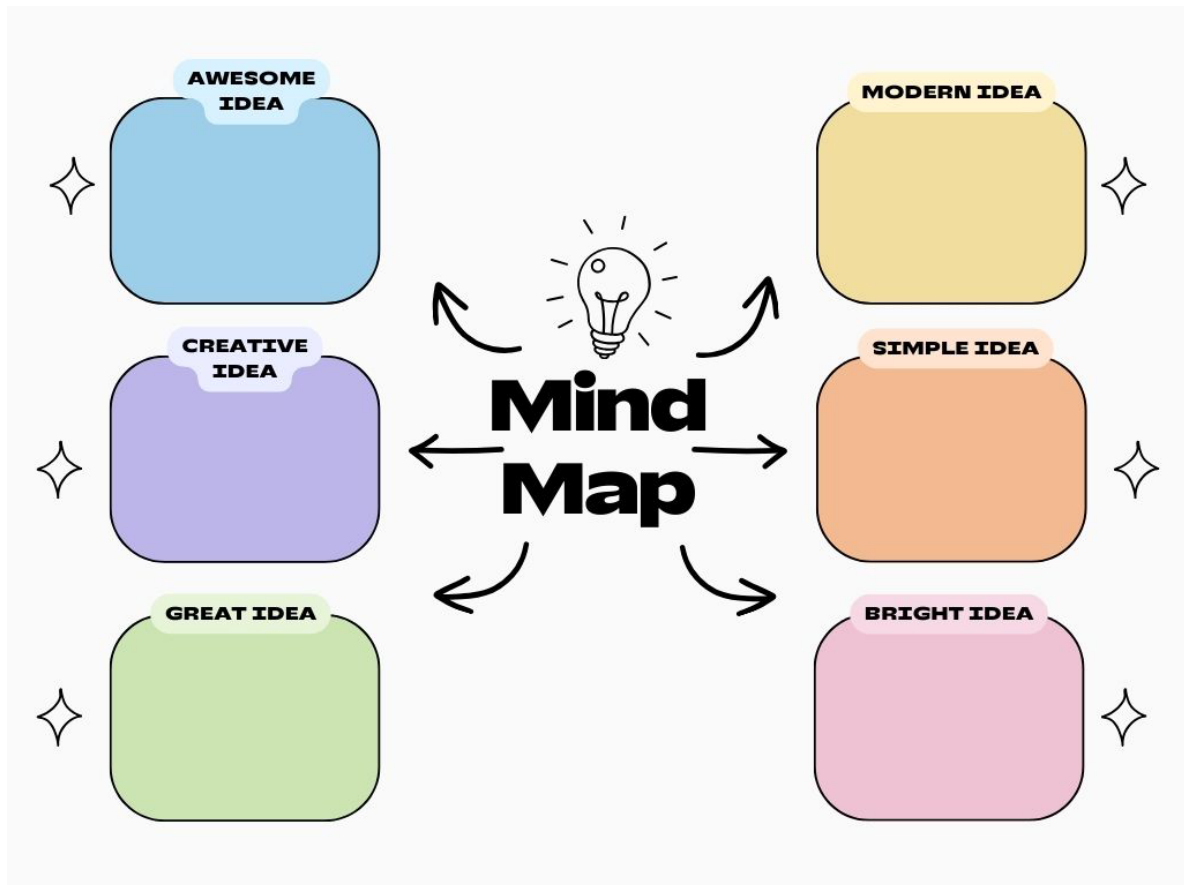
Genealogical Classification: This classification focuses on historical connections between languages, using both linguistic and historical criteria. Some languages cannot be grouped into any family and are termed language isolates. For instance, Basque, spoken in Europe, is a language isolate as it lacks connections to any other language family.

Typological Classification: Languages are grouped into types based on formal criteria, particularly their grammatical structures. Different types include flexile (morphological resources), agglutinative (affixes), and rooted (the root of the word as a morphological resource).

Areal Classification: This classification is based on geographic criteria, identifying languages that are geographically close and have developed similar structural characteristics due to mutual influence. Language unions, such as the Balkan Language Union comprising Macedonian, Bulgarian, Serbian, and Albanian, are formed under intensive mutual influence.

3. Activity: Typological Categories Scavenger Hunt (20 minutes):

- Divide students into small groups.
 - Provide each group with a list of typological categories and ask them to find examples of each category in linguistic data sets provided.
 - Encourage students to collaborate and discuss their findings.
- Use this mind map during the task*



4. Analyzing Linguistic Data (20 minutes):

- Present linguistic data sets containing examples of word order patterns, case systems, and morphological structures.
- Ask students to analyze the data and identify cross-linguistic patterns and tendencies.
- Guide students in discussing the functional motivations behind these patterns.

5. Activity: Case Study Analysis (15 minutes):

- Present a case study of a language with unique typological features (e.g., a polysynthetic language).

- Ask students to analyze the linguistic data and discuss the functional motivations behind the language's typological characteristics.

6. Discussion: Functional Explanation of Language Structure (10 minutes):

- Facilitate a class discussion on the functional motivations behind language structure and variation.

- Encourage students to share their insights and observations from the activities and case study analysis.

Activity 2. Case study analyze

Language: Inuktitut

Inuktitut is an Eskimo-Aleut language spoken predominantly by the Inuit people of Canada. It's one of the principal Inuit languages of Canada and is also spoken in parts of Greenland and Alaska. Here are some of its unique typological features:

Polysynthetic Structure:

Inuktitut is renowned for its polysynthetic nature. This means that it has complex words formed by combining many smaller morphemes, each carrying meaning. These morphemes can include roots, suffixes, prefixes, and sometimes even infixes. This allows for extremely long words that can convey complex ideas in a single word.

For example:

• tusaatsiarunнанngittualuujunga means «I can't hear very well» where:

- tusaat means 'ear'
- siar means 'good'
- runna means 'to hear'
- nngit means 'not'
- tua means 'very'
- luujuunga means 'I can'

Ergative-Absolutive Alignment:

In Inuktitut, the alignment of its case marking is ergative-absolutive rather than nominative-accusative, which is more common in Indo-

European languages. In this alignment, the subject of an intransitive verb is marked the same way as the object of a transitive verb (the absolutive case), while the subject of a transitive verb is marked differently (the ergative case).

Polypersonal Agreement:

Inuktitut exhibits polypersonal agreement, where verbs agree with both the subject and the object. This means that the verb carries markers that indicate the person, number, and sometimes even gender of both the subject and the object.

For example:

- Qimmiq kiinaujaliktuq translates to «The dog sees him/her.»
- Qimmiq means 'dog'
- kiinaujaliktuq means 'he/she sees him/her'
- kiin indicates third person singular subject (he/she)
- auja indicates third person singular object (him/her)
- lik indicates present tense

Incorporation:

Inuktitut also employs noun incorporation, where nouns are combined with verbs to create a single complex word.

This incorporation can involve the direct object, indirect object, or other semantic roles.

For example:

- Igluqattaq means «He builds a house» where:
- iglu means 'house'
- qattaq means 'to build'

In summary, Inuktitut's typological features such as its polysynthetic structure, ergative-absolutive alignment, polypersonal agreement, and noun incorporation make it a fascinating and unique language with rich linguistic properties.

7. Home Task Assignment (5 minutes):

- Assign a home task where students research and analyze a specific linguistic phenomenon or language family using typological concepts learned in class.

- Example task: *Research and analyze the word order patterns in a language family of your choice and compare them to other language families.*

8. Conclusion (5 minutes):

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson.
- Encourage students to complete the home task and reflect on how linguistic typology contributes to our understanding of language diversity.

By the end of the lesson, students should have a solid understanding of linguistic typology and its relevance for analyzing language diversity. They should also be equipped to apply typological concepts to real-world linguistic phenomena in their home task.

Recommended activities to use during the lesson

1. Typological Typing Game:

- Create a game where students are given linguistic features of a mystery language and must guess its typological category (e.g., word order pattern, morphological type).

- Provide clues such as phonological characteristics, syntactic structures, or morphological complexities to help students make their guesses.

- Reward correct answers with points or small prizes to incentivize participation.

2. Language Family Tree Mapping:

- Provide students with a linguistic family tree representing the relationships between different language families.

- Assign each student or group a specific language family to research and analyze.

- Instruct students to map out the typological features and structural characteristics of their assigned language family, highlighting key typological patterns and tendencies.

3. Typological Treasure Hunt:

- Create a scavenger hunt activity where students search for linguistic data sets representing various typological categories.
- Provide clues or hints related to specific typological features (e.g., «Find a language with ergative-absolutive alignment»).
- As students find each linguistic data set, they analyze the typological features and record their observations on a worksheet.

4. Comparative Analysis of Texts:

- Provide students with excerpts from texts written in languages representing different typological categories.
- Instruct students to analyze the linguistic features of the texts, focusing on word order patterns, morphological structures, and syntactic constructions.
- Guide students through the identification of typological differences and similarities between the texts, encouraging critical thinking and analysis.

5. Language Profile Project:

- Assign each student or group a language from a different typological category (e.g., isolating language, agglutinative language, fusional language).
- Task students with creating a language profile detailing the typological features and structural characteristics of their assigned language.
- Encourage students to present their language profiles to the class and discuss the typological characteristics of their assigned language.

THEME 22. COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY OF PHONOLOGICAL SYSTEMS OF MODERN ENGLISH

Objective: Students will understand the phonological features of Modern English and compare them with those of other languages, gaining insights into language diversity and typology.

Materials:

- Whiteboard or projector for visual aids
- Handouts with phonetic symbols and linguistic data
- Pen and paper for note-taking
- Internet access for research

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Greet the students and introduce the topic of phonological diversity.
- Discuss the significance of understanding phonological systems in different languages.

- Outline the objectives of the lesson.

2. Phonetic Inventory of Modern English (15 minutes):

- Present an overview of the phonetic inventory of Modern English, including vowel and consonant phonemes.

- Provide examples of English phonemes and their corresponding symbols.

- Discuss any unique or notable features of English phonology.

3. Comparative Phonological Analysis (30 minutes):

- Divide the class into small groups.

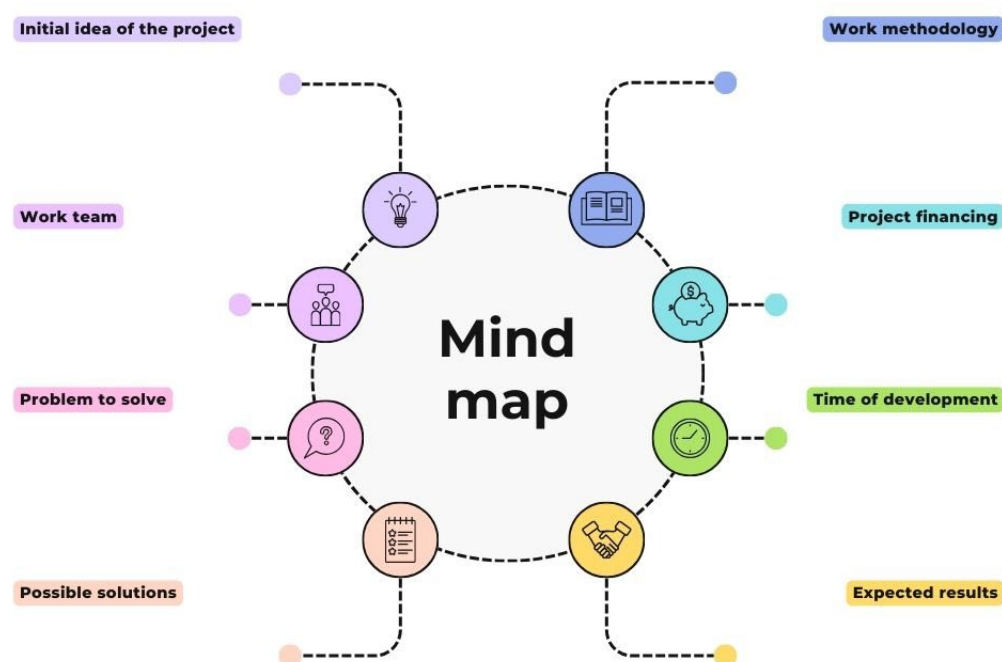
- Assign each group a different language family or language with distinct phonological features (e.g., Romance languages, Semitic languages, tonal languages).

- Provide linguistic data and examples of phonological features from each assigned language.

- Instruct students to analyze the phonological features of their assigned language and compare them with those of Modern English.

- Encourage students to discuss similarities, differences, and typological patterns observed.

Use this mind map during the task



4. Group Presentations (20 minutes):

- Have each group present their findings to the class.
- Allow time for questions and discussion after each presentation.
- Facilitate a discussion on the similarities and differences between Modern English and the other languages analyzed.

5. Reflection and Discussion (10 minutes):

- Lead a class discussion on the insights gained from the comparative analysis.
- Encourage students to reflect on the significance of phonological diversity and its implications for language typology.
- Discuss any questions or observations raised during the presentations.

6. Conclusion and Wrap-Up (5 minutes):

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson.
- Reinforce the importance of understanding phonological diversity for linguistic research and language learning.

- Assign any follow-up tasks or readings for further exploration of the topic.

7. Homework Assignment:

- Ask students to write a short reflection paper comparing the phonological features of Modern English with those of a language of their choice, focusing on similarities, differences, and typological patterns observed.

By the end of the lesson, students should have a deeper understanding of phonological diversity and its role in language typology. They should also be able to apply comparative analysis skills to analyze phonological features in different languages.

Recommended activities to use during the lesson

1. Phoneme Matching Game:

- Prepare a set of cards with phonetic symbols representing English phonemes.
- Divide the class into small groups and distribute the cards.
- Students take turns matching the phonetic symbols with their corresponding English phonemes.
- Encourage students to discuss the sounds and their articulatory properties as they play.

2. Phonological Crossword Puzzle:

- Create a crossword puzzle with clues related to phonological features of Modern English (e.g., vowel sounds, consonant clusters).
- Provide students with the crossword puzzle and clues.
- Students work individually or in pairs to solve the puzzle, reinforcing their knowledge of English phonology.

3. Language Sound Comparison:

- Provide students with audio recordings of spoken sentences in Modern English and another language with contrasting phonological features (e.g., a tonal language like Mandarin Chinese).

- Have students listen to the recordings and compare the sound patterns, paying attention to differences in vowel and consonant sounds, stress patterns, and intonation.

- Facilitate a class discussion on the similarities and differences between the two languages' phonological systems.

4. Phonological Typology Gallery Walk:

- Create a gallery walk activity with posters displaying phonological data from different languages (e.g., vowel charts, syllable structures).

- Divide the class into small groups and assign each group a different poster to start with.

- Students rotate around the room, observing and analyzing the phonological features presented on each poster.

- Encourage students to discuss their observations and make comparisons between the phonological systems of the languages represented.

5. Phonological Tree Diagrams:

- Provide students with linguistic data representing phonological features of various languages within the same language family (e.g., Germanic languages).

- Ask students to create tree diagrams illustrating the relationships between the languages based on their phonological similarities and differences.

- Students present their diagrams to the class and explain their rationale for grouping the languages together.

6. Phonological Data Analysis:

- Give students linguistic data sets containing phonological features of different languages (e.g., vowel inventories, syllable structures).

- Students analyze the data to identify patterns and tendencies across the languages.

- Students present their findings to the class and discuss any cross-linguistic patterns observed.

THEME 23. THE PROBLEM OF TYPOLOGICAL CATEGORIZATION. GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES OF TYPOLOGY

Objective: Students will learn about the fundamental grammatical categories of typology and develop an understanding of how languages vary in their structural organization.

Materials:

- Whiteboard or projector for visual aids
- Handouts with examples of grammatical categories
- Pen and paper for note-taking
- Linguistic data sets for analysis

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Begin the lesson by discussing the importance of understanding grammatical typology in linguistics.
- Introduce the objectives of the lesson, emphasizing the exploration of key grammatical categories.

2. Overview of Grammatical Typology (15 minutes):

- Provide an overview of the main grammatical categories in typology, including word order, morphological types, syntactic alignment, nominal categories, verbal categories, and semantic categories.

The problem of typological categorization in linguistics arises from the challenge of classifying the diverse range of languages spoken worldwide into coherent and meaningful categories based on their structural similarities and differences. While typological categorization is essential for understanding language diversity and identifying cross-linguistic patterns, it can be complex due to the variability and multifaceted nature of linguistic structures.

Grammatical categories of typology refer to the broad classes or types of linguistic features and structures that languages may exhibit. These categories encompass various aspects of grammar, including phonology,

morphology, syntax, and semantics. Some key grammatical categories in typology include:

Word Order: Languages can exhibit different word order patterns, such as Subject-Object-Verb (SOV), Subject-Verb-Object (SVO), Verb-Subject-Object (VSO), or other variations. Typological categorization involves classifying languages based on their predominant word order patterns and identifying cross-linguistic tendencies.

Morphological Types: Morphological typology classifies languages based on the ways in which they express grammatical relationships through morphology. This includes isolating languages with minimal morphology, agglutinative languages with linear concatenation of affixes, fusional languages with multiple meanings expressed by single affixes, and polysynthetic languages with incorporation of multiple morphemes into a single word.

Syntactic Alignment: Syntactic alignment refers to the patterns of grammatical relations between arguments in a sentence, such as nominative-accusative, ergative-absolutive, or active-stative alignment systems. Typological categorization involves identifying the alignment patterns exhibited by languages and classifying them accordingly.

Nominal Categories: Nominal categories include features related to nouns and noun phrases, such as case marking, number marking, and gender systems.

Typological categorization examines the presence and nature of nominal categories in languages and identifies cross-linguistic variation in their expression.

Verbal Categories: Verbal categories encompass features related to verbs and verb phrases, such as tense, aspect, mood, and voice. Typological categorization involves analyzing the ways in which languages express verbal categories and identifying common patterns and tendencies.

Semantic Categories: Semantic typology explores the ways in which languages categorize and express meanings through lexical and

grammatical means. This includes examining semantic domains, semantic roles, and semantic distinctions expressed in grammatical systems.

The problem of typological categorization arises from the complexity of linguistic diversity and the difficulty of capturing the full range of structural variation across languages within discrete categories. Additionally, languages may exhibit hybrid or mixed typological features that defy simple classification. Despite these challenges, typological categorization remains a valuable tool for understanding language diversity and identifying recurrent patterns and tendencies across languages.

- Explain the significance of each category in understanding language structure and diversity.

3. Word Order Patterns (15 minutes):

- Discuss different word order patterns found in languages, such as SOV, SVO, VSO, and OSV.

- Provide examples of languages that exhibit each word order pattern and discuss their distribution and typological significance.

4. Morphological Types (15 minutes):

- Explain the concept of morphological typology, including isolating, agglutinative, fusional, and polysynthetic languages.

- Present examples of languages representing each morphological type and discuss their morphological characteristics.

5. Syntactic Alignment (15 minutes):

- Introduce different syntactic alignment systems, such as nominative-accusative, ergative-absolutive, and active-stative.

- Provide linguistic data sets illustrating each alignment system and discuss their implications for argument marking in languages.

6. Nominal and Verbal Categories (15 minutes):

- Explore nominal categories such as case marking, number marking, and gender systems, as well as verbal categories like tense, aspect, mood, and voice.

- Discuss examples of languages that exhibit diverse nominal and verbal categories and analyze their grammatical structures.

7. Semantic Categories (10 minutes):

- Briefly discuss semantic typology and its relevance for understanding how languages categorize and express meanings.
- Provide examples of semantic distinctions expressed in grammatical systems, such as lexical semantics and semantic roles.

8. Group Activity: Comparative Analysis (20 minutes):

- Divide the class into small groups and assign each group a specific grammatical category to focus on (e.g., word order, morphological types).
- Provide linguistic data sets representing languages with diverse structural features within the assigned category.
- Instruct students to analyze the data sets, compare the structural features across languages, and identify patterns and tendencies within their assigned category.

Use this SWOT table

SWOT ANALYSIS



9. Group Presentations and Discussion (20 minutes):

- Have each group present their findings to the class, summarizing the patterns observed within their assigned grammatical category.

- Facilitate a class discussion on the similarities and differences between languages in terms of their grammatical structures, highlighting the importance of typological analysis.

10. Conclusion and Reflection (10 minutes):

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson and emphasize the significance of grammatical typology for understanding language diversity.

- Encourage students to reflect on what they have learned and how it has expanded their understanding of language structure and variation.

11. Homework Assignment:

- Assign students to research a language of their choice and analyze its grammatical features in relation to the categories discussed in class. They should prepare a short written report summarizing their findings and highlighting any typological patterns observed.

By the end of the lesson, students should have a solid understanding of the fundamental grammatical categories of typology and how they contribute to the structural diversity of languages. They should also be able to analyze linguistic data sets and identify cross-linguistic patterns within specific grammatical categories.

Recommended activities to use during the lesson

1. Word Order Sorting:

- Prepare a set of sentence cards in different languages, each representing a different word order pattern (e.g., SOV, SVO, VSO).
- Divide the class into small groups and distribute the sentence cards.
- Instruct students to categorize the sentences based on their word order patterns and discuss the similarities and differences they observe.

2. Language Family Tree:

- Provide students with a linguistic family tree depicting the relationships between different language families.
- Ask students to research and identify languages within each language family that represent diverse grammatical typologies (e.g., isolating, agglutinative, fusional).

- Have students present their findings and discuss how the grammatical typology of each language reflects its linguistic heritage.

3. Typological Typing Game:

- Create a game where students are given linguistic features of a mystery language and must guess its grammatical typology (e.g., isolating, agglutinative, fusional).

- Provide clues such as word order patterns, morphological complexity, and syntactic alignment to help students make their guesses.

- Reward correct answers with points or small prizes to incentivize participation.

4. Language Profile Project:

- Assign each student a language from a different typological category (e.g., an isolating language like Mandarin Chinese, an agglutinative language like Turkish, a fusional language like Spanish).

- Task students with creating a language profile detailing the grammatical features of their assigned language, including word order patterns, morphological types, and syntactic alignment.

- Encourage students to present their language profiles to the class and compare the typological characteristics of different languages.

5. Typological Treasure Hunt:

- Create a scavenger hunt activity where students search for linguistic data sets representing various typological categories.

- Provide clues or hints related to specific grammatical features (e.g., «Find a language with ergative-absolutive alignment»).

- As students find each linguistic data set, they analyze the grammatical features and record their observations on a worksheet.

6. Language Comparison Debate:

- Divide the class into two groups, with each group representing a different typological category (e.g., isolating languages vs. fusional languages).

- Assign each group a set of arguments supporting their typological category, such as simplicity vs. complexity or transparency vs. ambiguity.

- Have students engage in a debate, presenting their arguments and counterarguments while defending their assigned typological category.

THEME 24. COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY OF LANGUAGES AND ITS RELATIONS WITH OTHER BRANCHES OF LINGUISTICS

Objective: Students will learn about comparative typology of languages and its importance in understanding language diversity, identifying cross-linguistic patterns, and informing language-related research.

Materials:

- Whiteboard or projector for visual aids
- Handouts with linguistic data sets and examples
- Pen and paper for note-taking
- Internet access for research

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Begin the lesson by discussing the concept of linguistic diversity and its significance in the study of language.
- Introduce the topic of comparative typology and its role in understanding language variation and cross-linguistic patterns.
- Outline the objectives of the lesson.

Comparative typology of languages is a branch of linguistics that focuses on comparing the structural features of languages across different language families and identifying cross-linguistic patterns and tendencies. It examines how languages vary in their phonological, morphological, syntactic, and semantic structures, as well as their typological categories such as word order patterns, morphological types, and syntactic alignment systems. Here's how it relates to other branches of linguistics:

Historical Linguistics:

Comparative typology shares a close relationship with historical linguistics, particularly in the study of language change and language evolution. By comparing the structural features of related languages within language families, comparative typologists can reconstruct ancestral forms and trace the historical development of linguistic features over time.

Sociolinguistics:

Comparative typology intersects with sociolinguistics in the study of language variation and language contact phenomena. By comparing the structural features of languages spoken in different sociocultural contexts, typologists can identify patterns of language change, language contact, and language convergence.

Cognitive Linguistics:

Comparative typology informs cognitive linguistics by providing insights into the cognitive foundations of language structure and variation. By comparing the structural features of languages, typologists can uncover universal cognitive principles that shape language processing and production across different linguistic systems.

Typological Universals:

Comparative typology contributes to the identification of typological universals—patterns or tendencies found across languages. These universals provide valuable insights into the cognitive, communicative, and functional motivations underlying language structure and variation, informing theories in cognitive science and linguistic anthropology.

Language Acquisition and Language Teaching:

Comparative typology informs the study of language acquisition by examining how learners acquire linguistic structures across different languages. Understanding cross-linguistic variation in language structures can help educators design more effective language teaching methodologies that account for learners' linguistic backgrounds and typological differences.

Field Linguistics:

Comparative typology plays a role in field linguistics by guiding language documentation efforts and facilitating the analysis of linguistic data from underrepresented and endangered languages. By comparing the structural features of lesser-studied languages with those of well-documented languages, typologists can contribute to the preservation and documentation of linguistic diversity.

Overall, comparative typology of languages serves as a bridge between different branches of linguistics, providing valuable insights into the structural diversity of languages and its implications for our understanding of language evolution, language acquisition, and language processing.

2. Overview of Comparative Typology (15 minutes):

- Provide an overview of comparative typology, explaining its focus on comparing the structural features of languages across different language families.
- Discuss the importance of comparative typology in identifying typological universals and informing language-related research in various linguistic subfields.

3. Key Concepts in Comparative Typology (20 minutes):

- Discuss key concepts in comparative typology, including typological categories such as word order patterns, morphological types, and syntactic alignment systems.
- Provide examples of each typological category and explain their significance in cross-linguistic comparison.

4. Comparative Analysis Activity (25 minutes):

- Divide the class into small groups and assign each group a different typological category to focus on.
- Provide linguistic data sets representing languages with diverse structural features within each assigned category.
- Instruct students to analyze the data sets, compare the structural features across languages, and identify patterns and tendencies within their assigned category.

5. Group Presentations (15 minutes):

- Have each group present their findings to the class, summarizing the patterns observed within their assigned typological category.

- Encourage students to explain their analyses and discuss the implications of their findings for our understanding of language diversity.

6. Discussion and Reflection (10 minutes):

- Lead a class discussion on the insights gained from the comparative analysis activity.

- Encourage students to reflect on the significance of comparative typology in linguistics and its applications in various language-related fields.

- Discuss any questions or observations raised during the presentations.

7. Conclusion (5 minutes):

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson, emphasizing the importance of comparative typology in understanding language diversity and informing linguistic research.

- Encourage students to continue exploring the topic and its implications for their studies and interests in linguistics.

8. Follow-up Assignment:

- Assign students to research a specific typological category of interest (e.g., word order patterns, morphological types) and write a short paper summarizing their findings and discussing the implications for our understanding of language diversity.

By the end of the lesson, students should have a solid understanding of comparative typology and its significance in linguistics. They should also be able to analyze linguistic data sets and identify cross-linguistic patterns within specific typological categories.

Recommended activities to use during the lesson

1. Language Family Tree:

- Provide students with a linguistic family tree depicting the relationships between different language families.

- Ask students to research and identify languages within each language family that represent diverse typological features (e.g., word order patterns, morphological types).

- Have students present their findings and discuss how the typological characteristics of each language reflect its linguistic heritage.

2. Typological Treasure Hunt:

- Create a scavenger hunt activity where students search for linguistic data sets representing various typological categories.

- Provide clues or hints related to specific typological features (e.g., «Find a language with ergative-absolutive alignment»).

- As students find each linguistic data set, they analyze the typological features and record their observations on a worksheet.

3. Language Comparison Debate:

- Divide the class into two groups, with each group representing a different typological category (e.g., isolating languages vs. agglutinative languages).

- Assign each group a set of arguments supporting their typological category, such as simplicity vs. complexity or transparency vs. ambiguity.

- Have students engage in a debate, presenting their arguments and counterarguments while defending their assigned typological category.

4. Typological Typing Game:

- Create a game where students are given linguistic features of a mystery language and must guess its typological category (e.g., word order pattern, morphological type).

- Provide clues such as phonological characteristics, syntactic structures, or morphological complexities to help students make their guesses.

- Reward correct answers with points or small prizes to incentivize participation.

5. Language Profile Project:

- Assign each student a language from a different typological category (e.g., an isolating language like Mandarin Chinese, an agglutinative language like Turkish, a fusional language like Spanish).
- Task students with creating a language profile detailing the typological features of their assigned language, including word order patterns, morphological types, and syntactic alignment.
- Encourage students to present their language profiles to the class and compare the typological characteristics of different languages.

THEME 25. HISTORICAL TYPOLOGY AS ONE OF THE PERIODIZATION OF THE HISTORY OF THE LANGUAGE

Objective: Students will learn about historical typology as a periodization approach in the study of language history, identifying linguistic changes and developments over time.

Materials:

- Whiteboard or projector for visual aids
- Handouts with historical linguistic data
- Pen and paper for note-taking
- Internet access for research

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Begin the lesson by discussing the concept of language change and its significance in linguistic research.
- Introduce the topic of historical typology and its role in tracing the evolution of languages over time.
- Outline the objectives of the lesson.

Historical typology is a periodization approach in the study of language history that focuses on identifying and categorizing linguistic features based on their historical development and evolution over time. It involves examining how languages change over extended periods, often spanning centuries or millennia, and categorizing these changes into

distinct historical periods or stages. Here's some information about historical typology and its significance:

1. Overview: Historical typology analyzes language change through the lens of typological categories, tracing the development of linguistic features and structures over time. It seeks to identify patterns of change, continuity, and divergence within and across languages.

2. Periodization: Historical typology typically divides the history of a language or language family into different periods or stages based on significant linguistic changes or developments. These periods may be defined by phonological shifts, morphological innovations, syntactic changes, or other linguistic phenomena.

3. Comparative Method: Historical typology often employs comparative methods to compare linguistic features across different stages of a language's history or across related languages within a language family. By comparing linguistic data from different time periods or languages, linguists can identify regularities and patterns of change.

4. Diachronic Analysis: Historical typology involves diachronic analysis, which examines language change over time. Diachronic studies focus on identifying historical processes that shape linguistic change, such as language contact, migration, social factors, and cultural influences.

5. Example: For example, historical typology can be applied to the study of English to identify distinct historical periods, such as Old English (5th to 11th centuries), Middle English (11th to 15th centuries), and Modern English (16th century to present). Linguists analyze linguistic data from each period to identify changes in phonology, morphology, syntax, and lexicon.

6. Significance: Historical typology provides insights into the processes of language change and evolution, highlighting the dynamic nature of language over time. It helps linguists understand the historical roots of contemporary linguistic features and provides a framework for studying language variation and diversity.

7. Challenges: Historical typology faces challenges related to data availability, language documentation, and the reconstruction of linguistic

features from historical sources. Despite these challenges, advances in linguistic methods and technology have expanded our understanding of language history and evolution.

In summary, historical typology offers a systematic approach to studying language change over time, allowing linguists to categorize and analyze linguistic features within a historical framework. It provides valuable insights into the evolution of languages and their structural diversity.

2. Overview of Historical Typology (15 minutes):

- Provide an overview of historical typology, explaining its focus on categorizing linguistic features based on their historical development.

Historical typology analyzes language change through the lens of typological categories, tracing the development of linguistic features and structures over time. It seeks to identify patterns of change, continuity, and divergence within and across languages.

- Discuss the importance of periodization in studying language history and identifying distinct historical periods or stages.

Historical typology typically divides the history of a language or language family into different periods or stages based on significant linguistic changes or developments.

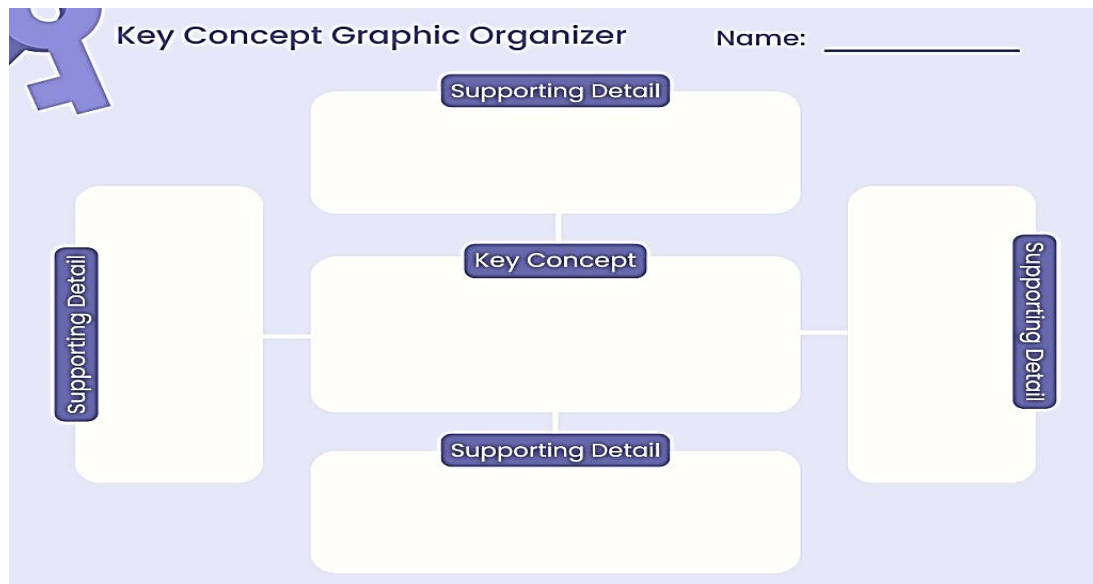
These periods may be defined by phonological shifts, morphological innovations, syntactic changes, or other linguistic phenomena.

3. Key Concepts in Historical Typology (20 minutes):

- Discuss key concepts in historical typology, such as sound change, morphological evolution, syntactic changes, and lexical innovations.

- Provide examples of each concept and explain how they contribute to language evolution and historical periodization.

Use this template



5. Case Studies (25 minutes):

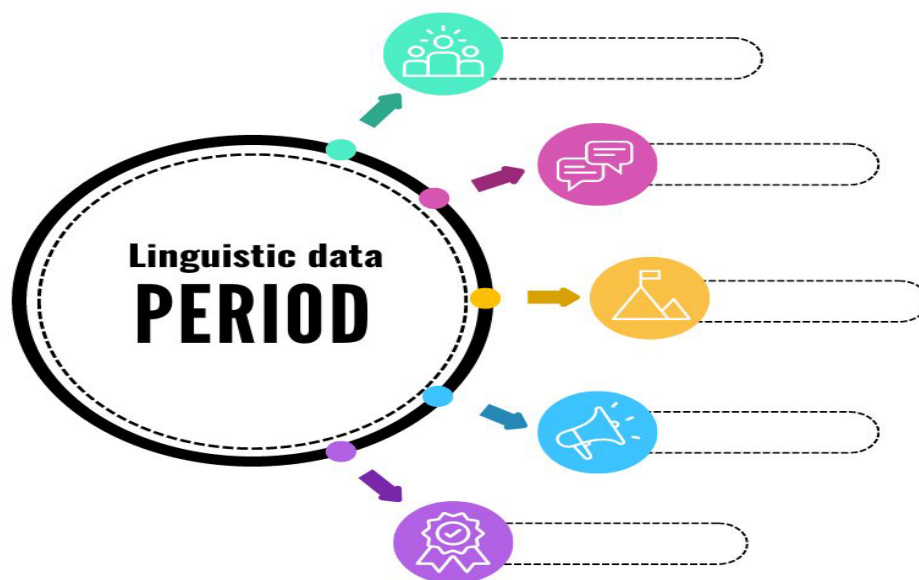
- Present case studies of language evolution, focusing on specific languages or language families.
- Provide linguistic data sets representing different historical periods or stages of the languages under study.
- Guide students through the analysis of linguistic changes and developments over time, highlighting key features and transitions.

Use this template



5. Group Activity: Comparative Analysis (20 minutes):

- Divide the class into small groups and assign each group a different historical period or linguistic change to focus on.
- Provide additional linguistic data sets or historical texts related to each assigned topic.
- Instruct students to analyze the linguistic data and identify patterns of change within their assigned period or topic.



6. Group Presentations (15 minutes):

- Have each group present their findings to the class, summarizing the linguistic changes and developments observed within their assigned period or topic.
- Encourage students to explain the significance of their findings in the context of language evolution and historical typology.

7. Discussion and Reflection (10 minutes):

- Lead a class discussion on the insights gained from the group presentations.
- Encourage students to reflect on the importance of historical typology in understanding language change and evolution.
- Discuss any questions or observations raised during the presentations.

8. Conclusion (5 minutes):

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson, emphasizing the role of historical typology in tracing language evolution.

- Encourage students to continue exploring the topic and its implications for their understanding of language history and linguistics.

Homework Assignment:

- Assign students to research a specific linguistic change or historical period in the evolution of a language of their choice.

- Task students with writing a short paper summarizing their research findings, analyzing the linguistic changes observed, and discussing the significance of their findings for our understanding of language evolution and historical typology.

Recommended activities to use during the lesson

1. Sound Change Simulation:

- Provide students with a list of words in their current form and their historical forms in an earlier stage of the language.

- Instruct students to simulate sound changes by applying phonological rules to the words (e.g., voicing assimilation, vowel shifts).

- Have students compare the original and modified forms of the words to observe the effects of sound change over time.

2. Morphological Evolution Timeline:

- Create a timeline representing different stages of a language's morphological evolution.

- Provide students with linguistic data sets showing changes in morphological patterns over time.

- Instruct students to place the linguistic data on the timeline and identify key morphological innovations and developments at each stage.

3. Syntactic Change Analysis:

- Present students with historical texts written in an earlier stage of the language.

- Guide students through the analysis of syntactic changes by comparing the sentence structures and word order patterns in the historical texts with those in contemporary texts.

- Encourage students to identify syntactic innovations and changes over time.

4. Lexical Innovations Exercise:

- Provide students with a list of words that have undergone semantic shifts or lexical innovations over time.

- Instruct students to research the etymology and historical usage of each word to understand its evolution in meaning.

- Have students present their findings and discuss the factors contributing to lexical change and innovation.

5. Language Family Tree Mapping:

- Provide students with a linguistic family tree representing the relationships between different language families.

- Assign each student or group a specific language family to research and analyze.

- Instruct students to map out the historical development and linguistic features of their assigned language family, highlighting key typological changes and developments.

6. Historical Text Analysis:

- Provide students with excerpts from historical texts written in earlier stages of the language.

- Instruct students to analyze the linguistic features of the texts, including phonological, morphological, and syntactic characteristics.

- Guide students through the identification of linguistic changes and developments observed in the historical texts.

THEME 26. THE ADJECTIVE AND ITS GRAMMATICAL CATEGORY OF THE DEGREES OF COMPARISON IN THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

Objective: Students will understand the concept of adjectives and their grammatical category of degrees of comparison in English and Uzbek languages, and they will be able to use adjectives in different degrees of comparison accurately.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers
- Handouts with examples of adjectives and their comparisons in English and Uzbek

- Exercises and worksheets for practice

- Audio recordings of adjectives being used in sentences (optional)

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Greet the students and introduce the topic of the lesson: adjectives and their degrees of comparison.

- Engage students by asking them to brainstorm examples of adjectives in English and Uzbek languages.

2. Explanation of Adjectives (15 minutes):

- Define adjectives as words that describe or modify nouns or pronouns.

- Discuss the role of adjectives in providing more information about nouns, such as size, color, shape, etc.

- Provide examples of adjectives in both English and Uzbek languages.

3. Degrees of Comparison in English (20 minutes):

- Explain the concept of degrees of comparison: positive, comparative, and superlative.

- Write examples of adjectives in each degree of comparison on the board and explain the formation rules.

- Practice forming comparatives and superlatives with regular and irregular adjectives.

- Provide exercises for students to practice identifying and forming degrees of comparison.

4. Degrees of Comparison in Uzbek (20 minutes):

- Discuss how degrees of comparison are expressed in Uzbek language, focusing on comparative and superlative forms.
- Compare and contrast the formation of degrees of comparison in English and Uzbek languages.
- Provide examples of adjectives in each degree of comparison in Uzbek language.
- Practice forming comparatives and superlatives in Uzbek with exercises and worksheets.

5. Comparison Exercises (15 minutes):

- Divide the class into small groups and give them a set of comparison exercises to complete.
- Encourage students to work collaboratively and discuss their answers.
- Review the exercises as a class and provide feedback on correct and incorrect answers.

6. Conclusion and Application (10 minutes):

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson about adjectives and degrees of comparison in English and Uzbek languages.
- Discuss practical applications of using adjectives with different degrees of comparison in everyday communication.
- Assign homework exercises or projects for further practice and reinforcement.

7. Wrap-Up (optional):

- Play audio recordings of sentences containing adjectives in both English and Uzbek languages for students to listen and identify the degrees of comparison.
- Allow students to ask any remaining questions or seek clarification on the topic.

Adjectives play a crucial role in both written and spoken English, as they modify nouns to provide additional description, limitation, or precision without altering the fundamental meaning of the noun they modify.

Here are some peculiarities of English adjectives:

1. Attributive Position: Adjectives can freely occur before the noun they modify, as in "a clever boy" or "a red flower."

2. Predicative Function: Adjectives can also function as the nominal part of a compound nominal predicate, as seen in sentences like "The flat is comfortable," "She looks young," or "She feels bad."

3. Intensification: Adjectives can be modified by the intensifier "very," as in "This teacher is very considerate."

4. Degrees of Comparison: Adjectives can exhibit degrees of comparison synthetically or analytically, depending on their morphological structure, such as "red-redder-the reddest" or "beautiful-more beautiful-the most beautiful."

5. Substantivization: Adjectives can be used as nouns, functioning as subjects or objects, as in "Have you read the book by Greg Palast 'How the rich are destroying the earth?'" or "The judge convicted the rich of a crime in destroying the nature."

6. Adverbial Modification: Adjectives can modify elliptical adverbial clauses, as seen in "When ripe, the apples are sweet" or "Whether right or wrong, the man ought to be treated fairly."

7. Exclamatory Sentences: Adjectives are often used to construct exclamatory sentences in which an adjective preceded by an interrogative word "how" is placed at the beginning of the sentence, such as "How beautiful your daughter is!" or "How nice is the weather today!"

8. Modification of Indefinite Pronouns: Adjectives can modify indefinite pronouns, as in "She wants to tell you something interesting" or "Anyone intelligent understands it."

Understanding and correctly using adjectives are essential for effective communication in English, as they provide crucial details and nuances to descriptions and statements.

There are the following peculiarities in Uzbek adjectives:

1. They can freely occur in attributive position to the noun : qizil gul, aqlli bola;

2. They can be used in the function of the nominal predicate:

Oppoq qordir tog'larning boshi,

Daryo **tiniq** , osmon **beg'ubor**. (H.O.)

3. Adjectives can be modified by the intensifiers **juda, behad, g'oyat, nihoyatda, cheksiz** : Ona oq ko'ylakda, oq doka ro'molda **cheksiz aziz, shavqatli, behad go'zal** tuyuldi O'ktamga. (O.)

4. Adjectives can be used in the function of the adverbial modifier: Xo'jalik madaniyatning, madaniyat xo'jalikning yana **chiroyliroq, kuchliroq** gullashiga sababchi bo'ladi.(O.)

5. Substantivised adjectives can be used in the functions of the subject, object and the attribute with the possessive case form : **G'oliblar** majlis to'ridan joy olishdi. (O.) - subject ; **Yomonni** tanqid qiladi, **yaxshiga** taqlid. (Saying) - object ; **Kattalarning g'ururi, yoshlarning shod qiyg'osi**, tashakkur aytmoqdadir qalbidan bu nahora. (G'G')-attribute with the possessive case form.

6. Adjectives can have the category of the degrees of comparison expressed synthetically in the positive and comparative degrees and analytically in the superlative degree: baland – balandroq – **eng baland**; yaxshi – yaxshiroq – **eng yaxshi**;

7. Adjectives can be used to build up exclamatory sentences in which an adjective preceded by interrogative word **qanday** is placed at the head of the sentence: **Qanday sokin** tun! **Qanday ajoyib** manzara!

8. Adjectives can modify indefinite pronouns: **Kimdir begona** sizni so'rayapi.

Adjectives in Uzbek, English, and Russian languages exhibit significant typological differences. In Russian, adjectives are categorized into three groups based on their structure:

1. Qualitative Adjectives: These adjectives describe qualities or attributes directly, such as "большой" (big), "маленький" (small), "высокий" (tall), "низкий" (short), "толстый" (thick), "тонкий" (thin).

2. Relative Adjectives: These adjectives are formed from nouns, indicating a relationship or association with the noun, such as "каменный" (stone), "весенний" (spring), "Московский" (Moscow).

3. Possessive Adjectives: These adjectives indicate possession or belonging, formed by combining a noun with a possessive marker, such as

"ОТЦОВ ДОМ" (father's house), "сестрина сумка" (sister's bag), "мамина школа" (mother's school).

In contrast, English primarily consists of qualitative adjectives, which directly describe attributes or qualities, such as "white," "large," "strong." There are relatively fewer relative adjectives in English, with many of them being scientific terms like "biological," "chemical," "industrial." The lack of a robust system of relative adjectives in English is compensated by the use of attributive constructions composed of two nouns, such as "a strong wall," "a gold watch," "Moscow streets."

Overall, while Russian exhibits a more elaborate system of adjective classification, English relies more heavily on qualitative adjectives and compound noun phrases to convey similar meanings.

The Uzbek language doesn't possess the characteristic of expressing superlative degree synthetically.

The superlative degree in the Uzbek language is expressed by pure analytical form : by the combination of the word **eng** with the adjective: **eng baland**, **eng aqli**, **eng katta**(where neither the auxiliary nor the notional word change its sound structure.

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

	English			Russian			Uzbek		
Degrees of comparison	Synthetically	Ana-liti-cally	Synthe-tical-analitically	Synthetically	Ana-liti-cally	Synthetical-analitically	Synthetically	Ana-liti-cally	Synthe-tical-analitically
Positive	big , tall , clever R+zero morpheme			большой , красивый R+af			katta , chiroyli , baland R+zero morpheme		
Comparative	bigger, taller, cleverer R+af			больше, красивее, выше R+fusion+af		более красивый, более высокий aux+R+af	kattaroq, chiroyliroq, balandroq R+aF		
Superlative			the biggest, the tallest, the cleverest aux+R+af	большущий, красивейший, высочайший R+fusion+af		самый большой, самый красивый, самый высокий aux+R+af		eng katta, eng chiroyli, eng baland aux+R	

Comparison Exercises (15 minutes):

- Divide the class into small groups and give them a set of comparison exercises to complete.

- Encourage students to work collaboratively and discuss their answers.

- Review the exercises as a class and provide feedback on correct and incorrect answers.

1. Complete the sentences with the appropriate form of the adjective:

a) She is _____ (tall) than her sister. b) U o'z oti (katta) emas.

(Translate into English)

2. Fill in the blanks with the correct form of the adjective to express comparison:

a) This book is _____ (interesting) than the one I read last week. b)

Ushbu kitob o'tgan haftaning esa shu haftadan _____ (qiziqroq).

(Translate into English)

3. Complete the sentences using the comparative form of the adjective:

a) This flower is _____ (beautiful) than the one in the garden. b) Bu

gul bog'dagi guldan _____ (chiroyli). (Translate into English)

4. Fill in the blanks with the appropriate form of the adjective to express comparison:

a) The weather today is _____ (bad) than yesterday. b) Bugungi ob-

havo kundan shu kun _____ (yomon). (Translate into English)

5. Complete the sentences with the correct form of the adjective:

a) He is _____ (fast) runner in his team. b) U o'z jamoatida eng

_____ (tez) farovon. (Translate into English)

6. Fill in the blanks with the appropriate form of the adjective to express comparison:

a) Her performance was _____ (good) than mine. b) Uning

ko'rsatkichi meningkidan _____ (yaxshi) edi. (Translate into English)

7. Complete the sentences using the comparative form of the adjective:

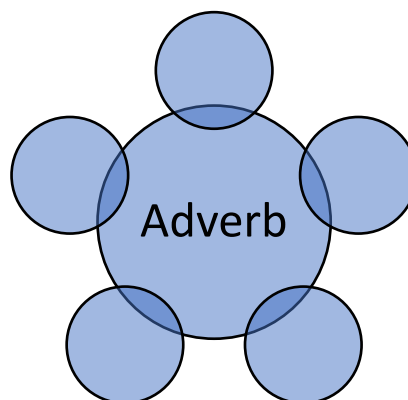
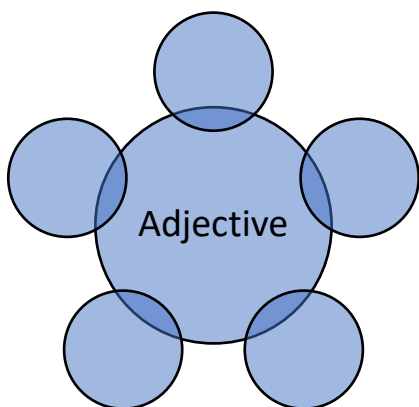
a) This car is _____ (expensive) than the one I saw last week. b) Ushbu avtomobil o'tgan haftaning esa shu haftadan _____ (qimmat). (Translate into English)

8. Fill in the blanks with the correct form of the adjective to express comparison:

a) Her grades are _____ (high) than mine. b) Uning baholari meningkidan _____ (yuqori). (Translate into English)

Brainstorming Activity (20 minutes):

- Provide each group with a set of questions to guide their exploration:
- How are comparative and superlative degrees formed in English and Uzbek?
- Are there any irregular adjectives in either language when it comes to forming degrees of comparison?
- How do English and Uzbek handle the comparison of adjectives with one, two, or more syllables?
- Are there specific rules or patterns unique to each language regarding the use of degrees of comparison?
- Encourage groups to brainstorm ideas, take notes, and exchange insights within their teams.



Homework Task:

1. Research and Compare:

- Research and identify five adjectives in English and their corresponding translations in Uzbek language.

- Compare the formation of degrees of comparison (positive, comparative, and superlative) for each adjective in both English and Uzbek languages.

- Create a chart or table to organize your findings, highlighting similarities and differences between the two languages.

2. Sentence Construction:

- Using the adjectives and their degrees of comparison identified in Task 1, construct five sentences in English and their corresponding translations in Uzbek language.

- Ensure that each sentence demonstrates the correct usage of adjectives in different degrees of comparison, following the grammatical rules of both languages.

3. Contextual Usage:

- Choose one adjective from your list and write a short paragraph (5-7 sentences) in both English and Uzbek languages.

- Incorporate the chosen adjective in different degrees of comparison (positive, comparative, and superlative) within the paragraph to describe a person, object, or situation.

4. Self-Assessment and Reflection:

- Reflect on your understanding of adjectives and their degrees of comparison in both English and Uzbek languages.

- Identify any challenges or areas of confusion encountered during the homework task, and make note of questions or topics you would like to discuss further in class.

Submission Instructions:

- Submit your completed homework assignment, including the chart/table, constructed sentences, and short paragraph, by [insert submission deadline].

- Ensure that your work is neatly organized, accurately completed, and written in clear and grammatically correct English and Uzbek languages.

THEME 27. DISTINCTIONS AND SIMILARITIES IN PRONOUNS OF THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

Objective: Students will understand the distinctions and similarities between pronouns in English and Uzbek languages, and they will be able to use pronouns accurately in different contexts.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers
- Handouts with examples of pronouns in English and Uzbek
- Exercises and worksheets for practice
- Audio recordings of pronouns being used in sentences (optional)

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Greet the students and introduce the topic of the lesson: pronouns in English and Uzbek languages.
- Engage students by asking them to brainstorm examples of pronouns they know in both languages.

2. Explanation of Pronouns (15 minutes):

- Define pronouns as words that can replace nouns in a sentence to avoid repetition.
- Discuss the different types of pronouns, including personal pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, possessive pronouns, reflexive pronouns, and relative pronouns.
- Provide examples of pronouns in both English and Uzbek languages.

3. Comparison of Personal Pronouns (20 minutes):

- Compare and contrast the personal pronoun systems in English and Uzbek languages, focusing on distinctions in person, number, gender, and case.

- Write examples of personal pronouns in each language on the board and explain their usage and forms.

- Provide exercises for students to practice identifying and using personal pronouns in English and Uzbek sentences.

4. Comparison of Demonstrative Pronouns (15 minutes):

- Explain the concept of demonstrative pronouns and their usage to indicate proximity or distance.

- Compare the demonstrative pronoun systems in English and Uzbek languages, highlighting any differences in form or usage.

- Provide examples of demonstrative pronouns in both languages and practice using them in sentences.

5. Comparison of Possessive Pronouns (15 minutes):

- Discuss possessive pronouns and their function to indicate ownership or possession.

- Compare the possessive pronoun systems in English and Uzbek languages, including differences in form and placement.

- Provide examples of possessive pronouns in both languages and practice using them in sentences.

6. Practice Exercises (15 minutes):

- Divide the class into pairs or small groups and give them a set of practice exercises to complete.

- Encourage students to work collaboratively and discuss their answers.

- Review the exercises as a class and provide feedback on correct and incorrect answers.

7. Conclusion and Application (10 minutes):

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson about pronouns in English and Uzbek languages.

- Discuss practical applications of using pronouns accurately in different communicative contexts.

- Assign homework exercises or projects for further practice and reinforcement.

8. Wrap-Up (optional):

- Play audio recordings of sentences containing pronouns in both English and Uzbek languages for students to listen and identify the pronouns used.

- Allow students to ask any remaining questions or seek clarification on the topic.

A pronoun is a linguistic element that refers to objects or qualities without explicitly naming them. It serves as a substitute for a noun or noun phrase. Traditionally, pronouns have been categorized as one of the parts of speech. However, modern linguistic theories may not consider them a single class due to the diverse range of functions they fulfill.

The use of pronouns often involves anaphora, where the meaning of the pronoun depends on a preceding antecedent. For instance, in the sentence "That poor man looks as if he needs a new coat," the antecedent of the pronoun "he" is "that poor man."

In contemporary linguistic approaches, pronouns are viewed as a unified word class due to their versatile syntactic roles.

For example, in the sentence "That's not the one I wanted," the phrase "the one" containing the word "one" functions as a pronominal with a pronoun.

A pronominal, similarly, refers to a word or phrase that acts as a pronoun. Pronouns are utilized in place of nouns to prevent repetition and enhance sentence clarity. Common examples of pronouns include "he," "you," "she," "it," "we," "they," and "this."

Pronouns encompass various types, each serving distinct grammatical functions:

1. **Personal Pronouns:** Refer to specific persons or things and vary in form to indicate person, number, gender, or case. Modern English retains some inflectional complexity from Old English and Middle English.

Subjective personal pronouns function as the subject of a sentence (e.g., I, you, she, he, it, we, you, they), while objective personal pronouns act as the object (e.g., me, you, her, him, it, us, you, them). Personal pronouns are used in subject, object, and predicative functions (e.g., "I want to be a teacher," "She called me up in the evening," "But I think that was him I spoke to").

2. Possessive Pronouns: Indicate ownership or possession, such as "mine," "yours," "hers," "his," "ours," and "theirs."

3. Reciprocal Pronouns: Express mutual action or relationship, like "each other" or "one another."

4. Demonstrative Pronouns: Point out specific persons, places, or things, such as "this," "that," "these," and "those."

5. Interrogative Pronouns: Used to ask questions, including "who," "whom," "whose," "what," and "which."

6. Relative Pronouns: Introduce relative clauses and connect them to the noun or pronoun they modify, such as "who," "whom," "whose," "which," and "that."

7. Indefinite Pronouns: Refer to non-specific persons or things, like "someone," "anyone," "everything," "nothing," "some," "any," "all," and "none."

8. Reflexive Pronouns: Reflect the action of the verb back onto the subject, like "myself," "yourself," "himself," "herself," "itself," "ourselves," "yourselves," and "themselves."

9. Intensive Pronouns: Emphasize a preceding noun or pronoun, often appearing immediately after it (e.g., "I myself," "She herself").

10. Conjunctive Pronouns: Connect clauses or sentences, such as "whoever," "whomever," "whatever," "whichever," and "that."

11. Defining Pronouns: Help to specify or define a noun, like "such" or "this."

12. Negative Pronouns: Denote negation, including "no one," "nothing," "none," and "neither."

In the Uzbek language, personal pronouns include "men," "sen," "u," "biz," "siz," and "ular." These pronouns can also substitute demonstrative

pronouns and are classified into two categories: pure personal pronouns (e.g., "men," "sen," "biz," "siz") and personal-demonstrative pronouns (e.g., "u," "ular"), which serve both personal and demonstrative functions and can substitute nouns: Baxtiyor keldi- **U** keldi ; Mehmonlarni kutayapmiz – **Ularni** kutayapmiz. Kitob bizning do'stimiz – **Uni** sevib o'qing.

In the Uzbek language differing from the English:

1) personal- demonstrative pronouns can substitute the noun expressing inanimate object for emotional purposes in poetry: Daraxtlar, bo'stonlar, **sizdan** so'rayman .(U.);

2) all the Uzbek personal pronouns are declined by all the Uzbek case forms : **men, meni, mening, menga, menda, mendan**;

3)in the second person singular affixal morpheme of plurality –**lar** is added to humiliate the person: Sen**larga** aytayapman;

4) in the third person singular –**lar** is added to the pronoun **u** to express respect towards the addressee: U (Botir) keldi – Ular(Botir) keldilar;

5) personal pronouns receive word-forming and word changing affixal morphemes expressing grammatical or some connotative meanings: - **cha, -day, -gina**: Mening**cha**, mehmonlar ertaga kelishadi (These kinds of words are introductory words); The addition of the affix – **day** to the personal pronoun serves for comparison or for emotional purposes: Siz**day** odam gapirdi; Biz**day** ishlang; The addition of the affix –**gina** to the personal pronoun expresses some limitation in the action carried out: Majlisga seng**gina** kechikding.

Demonstrative pronouns serve to point out and identify a noun or pronoun. In English, "this" and "these" refer to objects nearby in space or time, while "that" and "those" refer to things farther away in space or time. Demonstrative pronouns carry a number category and agree in number when combined with nouns. For example: "This is the dress I will wear now, and that is the one I wore yesterday," or "Please pay for those books."

Demonstrative pronouns are employed in various grammatical functions:

- Subject: "That is my book."
- Predicative: "This book is mine."
- Object: "Will you tell me how you did this?"
- Attribute: "Honest people were those who told the truth."

In Uzbek, demonstrative pronouns include "u," "bu," "shu," "o'sha," "mana shu," "ushbu," and others. They can exhibit noun characteristics, such as in the sentence "Yaxshi odam, o'shaning uyiga boramiz" (Good person, let's go to their house), where "o'sha" functions as a demonstrative pronoun modifying the noun "uy" (house).

Demonstrative pronouns in Uzbek can also behave like adjectives, serving as attributes, as in "Biz o'sha do'konga boramiz" (We are going to that store), where "o'sha" modifies the noun "do'kon" (store).

When repeated, demonstrative pronouns can take on adverbial characteristics, as seen in "O'sha-o'sha kampir bilan G'afforjon biznikida qolib ketdi" (Again and again, G'afforjon was left behind with a lantern).

Additionally, Uzbek demonstrative pronouns can be inflected with affixal morphemes and decline according to all Uzbek case forms. For instance, "bu" can become "buni," "buning," "bunga," "bunda," and "bundan."

Interrogative pronouns, such as "who," "whom," "which," and "what," are used to pose questions. "Who" and "whom" refer to people, while "which" refers to things or animals. "Who" acts as the subject, while "whom" acts as the object. For example: "Which is the best restaurant?", "What did he tell you?", "Whom should we invite?"

Interrogative pronouns also serve various grammatical functions:

- Subject: "What has happened to you?"
- Predicative: "What is your father?"
- Object: "What do you mean?"
- Attribute: "Whose book is it?"

The interrogative pronoun "who" also has possessive and objective case forms, preserved from ancient English, as seen in "Who has told you about it? - Whom did you tell about it? - Whose book have you taken?"

Uzbek interrogative pronouns are **qanday, qaysi, kim, nima, qayer, nega, nima uchun, necha, nechanchi, nechta, qancha, qachon, qani, qalay**.

Distinctive features of the Uzbek interrogative pronouns: pronouns **kim, nima, qayer, qaysi, qanday** have singular and plural forms: **kimlar/nimalar, qayer/qayerlar, qaysi/qaysilar**; these pronouns are declined by all Uzbek case forms: **kim- kimni-kimning- kimga- kimda- kimdan; qaysi-qaysini-qaysining-qaysiga-qaysida-qaysidan; kim** is only used for human beings, **nima-** for objects and non-humans : Kim keldi? -Karim keldi; Nima keldi?- Sigir keldi; Nima sotib oldingiz?- Kitob sotib oldim.

ACTIVITIES

Reading Passage: Please read the following passage carefully:

"Pronouns serve as versatile tools in language, allowing us to refer to people, objects, places, and concepts without repeating nouns. In English, pronouns are divided into several categories, including personal, possessive, reflexive, demonstrative, interrogative, relative, and indefinite pronouns. Personal pronouns, like 'I,' 'you,' 'he,' 'she,' 'it,' 'we,' and 'they,' take the place of specific individuals or groups in sentences. Possessive pronouns, such as 'mine,' 'yours,' 'his,' 'hers,' 'its,' 'ours,' and 'theirs,' indicate ownership or belonging. Reflexive pronouns, like 'myself,' 'yourself,' 'himself,' 'herself,' 'itself,' 'ourselves,' 'yourselves,' and 'themselves,' are used when the subject and object of a sentence refer to the same entity.

Similarly, in Uzbek, pronouns play a crucial role in communication. Uzbek pronouns are categorized into subject and object pronouns, possessive pronouns, and reflexive pronouns. Subject pronouns in Uzbek include 'men' (I), 'siz' (you), 'u' (he/she/it), 'biz' (we), 'sizlar' (you plural), and 'ular' (they). Object pronouns are formed by adding '-ni' suffix to subject pronouns, such as 'meni' (me), 'sizni' (you), 'uning' (him/her/its), 'bizni' (us), 'sizlarni' (you plural), and 'ularni' (them). Possessive pronouns in Uzbek, like 'mening' (my), 'sizning' (your), 'uning' (his/her/its), 'bizning'

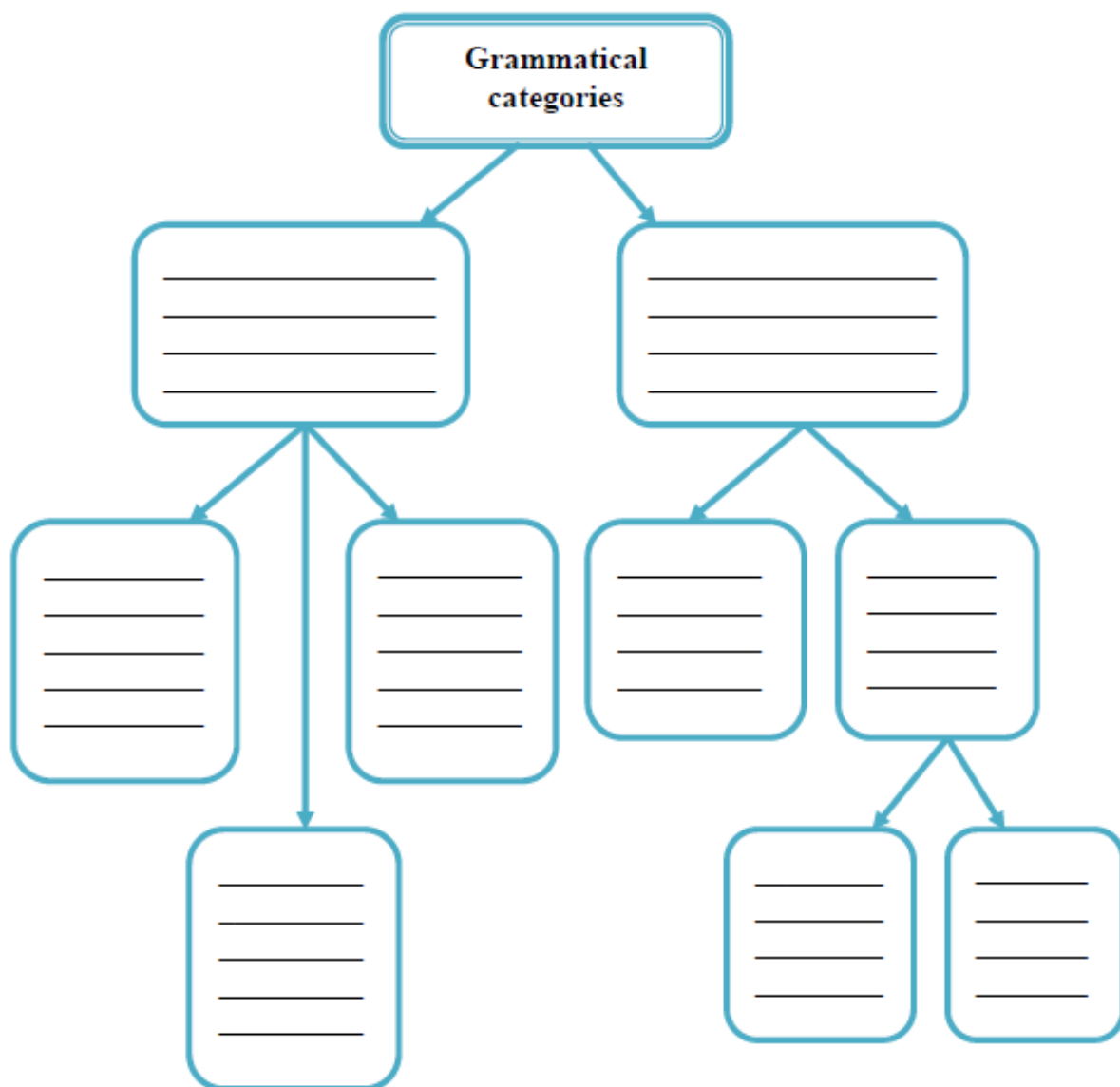
(our), 'sizlarning' (your), and 'ularning' (their), indicate possession. Reflexive pronouns are formed by adding the suffix '-oq' or '-ar' to possessive pronouns, such as 'o'zim' (myself), 'o'zing' (yourself), 'o'zi' (himself/herself/itself), 'o'zimiz' (ourselves), 'o'zingiz' (yourselves), and 'o'zlar' (themselves).

While English and Uzbek both have similar categories of pronouns, the forms and usage of these pronouns differ between the two languages. Understanding these distinctions is crucial for effective communication in both languages."

Task Questions:

1. What are the main categories of pronouns mentioned in the passage for both English and Uzbek?
2. Can you list three examples of possessive pronouns in English and their counterparts in Uzbek?
3. How are reflexive pronouns formed in English? Provide examples.
4. Explain the difference between subject and object pronouns, using examples from both English and Uzbek.
5. Why is it important to understand the distinctions between pronouns in different languages for effective communication?

Exercise #1. Complete the following chart with the divisions of Grammatical Categories according to prof. Buranov.



Home Task:

1. Comparison Chart:

- Create a comparison chart or table highlighting the differences and similarities between personal pronouns in English and Uzbek languages.
- Include columns for pronoun categories (e.g., first person, second person, third person), number (singular vs. plural), gender (if applicable), and case (nominative, accusative, genitive, dative, etc.).
- Provide examples of pronouns in each language for each category and label any distinctions or similarities observed.

2. Pronoun Practice:

- Write five sentences in English that contain personal pronouns, covering various pronoun categories (e.g., subject pronouns, object pronouns, possessive pronouns).
- Translate the sentences into Uzbek language, ensuring that the pronouns are accurately represented in the translation.
- Pay attention to differences in pronoun forms, placement, and usage between the two languages.

3. Cultural Context:

- Research and identify cultural nuances or differences related to pronoun usage in English and Uzbek-speaking communities.
- Write a short paragraph (5-7 sentences) discussing any cultural implications or social conventions associated with pronoun usage in each language.
- Reflect on how these cultural aspects may influence language use and communication within each community.

4. Reflective Journal Entry:

- Reflect on your learning experience about pronouns in English and Uzbek languages.
- Identify any challenges or insights gained from comparing pronouns between the two languages.
- Consider how understanding pronoun distinctions and similarities enhances your language proficiency and cultural awareness.

Submission Instructions:

- Submit your completed homework assignment, including the comparison chart, sentences with translations, cultural context paragraph, and reflective journal entry, by [insert submission deadline].
- Ensure that your work is neatly organized, accurately completed, and written in clear and grammatically correct English and Uzbek languages.

THEME 28. TYPOLOGY OF SIMPLE SENTENCE IN THE ENGLISH AND NATIVE LANGUAGES

Objective: Students will understand the typological features of simple sentences in English and Uzbek languages, including word order, verb morphology, noun phrases, and other grammatical elements. They will be able to identify similarities and differences between the two languages in forming simple sentences.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers
- Handouts with examples of simple sentences in English and Uzbek
- Exercises and worksheets for practice
- Audio recordings of simple sentences being spoken in both languages (optional)

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Greet the students and introduce the topic of the lesson: the typology of simple sentences in English and Uzbek languages.
- Engage students by asking them to share what they know about simple sentences and their components.

2. Explanation of Simple Sentences (15 minutes):

- Define simple sentences as sentences that contain a single independent clause with a subject and a predicate.
- Discuss the basic components of simple sentences, including subject, verb, and object (if present).
- Provide examples of simple sentences in both English and Uzbek languages.

3. Word Order (20 minutes):

- Explain how word order varies between English and Uzbek languages in simple sentences.

- Compare and contrast the typical word order patterns in English (Subject-Verb-Object) and Uzbek (Subject-Object-Verb).

- Write examples of simple sentences with different word orders on the board and discuss their meanings.

4. Verb Morphology (20 minutes):

- Discuss the differences in verb morphology between English and Uzbek languages within simple sentences.

- Explain how English verbs often have limited inflectional morphology, while Uzbek verbs may exhibit more complex inflections for tense, aspect, mood, and agreement.

- Provide examples of verb forms in simple sentences in both languages and highlight any differences in tense, aspect, or agreement markers.

5. Noun Phrases and Other Elements (15 minutes):

- Explore the structure and composition of noun phrases in simple sentences in English and Uzbek languages.

- Discuss the use of determiners, adjectives, and other modifiers within noun phrases in both languages.

- Provide examples of noun phrases in simple sentences and analyze their components.

6. Practice Exercises (15 minutes):

- Distribute worksheets or exercises with simple sentences in English and Uzbek languages.

- Encourage students to identify the subject, verb, object, and other elements in each sentence.

- Allow time for students to work individually or in pairs, and then review the answers as a class.

7. Reflection and Discussion (10 minutes):

- Facilitate a discussion on the similarities and differences observed in forming simple sentences between English and Uzbek languages.

- Encourage students to share their insights and reflections on the typological features discussed in the lesson.

- Address any questions or clarifications regarding the material covered.

8. **Conclusion (5 minutes):**

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson about the typology of simple sentences in English and Uzbek languages.
- Emphasize the importance of understanding typological differences for language learning and cross-cultural communication.

A simple sentence has only a single independent clause. Independent clauses are groups of words which contain a subject and a predicate - they express a complete thought. In other words, a simple sentence is a sentence that has one subject and one verb and expresses a complete idea.

Here's an example of a simple sentence: "She sings." This sentence contains one subject ("she") and one verb ("sings") and expresses a complete thought. It's important to note that a simple sentence can be longer than one word, but it must still only contain one independent clause.

Examples of Simple Sentence Structures

There are many ways to make a simple sentence. Here are a few examples:

- **Subject + Verb:** "He runs."
- **Subject + Verb + Object:** "She reads books."
- **Subject + Verb + Complement:** "He is tall."
- **Subject + Verb + Adverb:** "They eat quickly."

As you can see, the structure of a simple sentence can vary, but it must always contain one subject and one predicate.

Different Types of Simple Sentences

There are four types of simple sentences: declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory.

Declarative Sentences

Declarative sentences make statements or declarations. They end with a period.

Example: "They are eating dinner."

Interrogative Sentences

Interrogative sentences ask questions. They end with a question mark.

Example: "Are you coming to the party?"

Imperative Sentences

Imperative sentences give commands or make requests. They can end with a period or an exclamation mark.

Example: "Please pass the salt."

Exclamatory Sentences

Exclamatory sentences express strong emotion. They end with an exclamation mark.

Example: "What a beautiful day!"

How to Identify Simple Sentences in English

Identifying simple sentences in English is fairly straightforward. Look for sentences that contain one subject and one predicate and express a complete thought.

Here are a few examples:

- "I love pizza."
- "She dances well."
- "They play soccer every Saturday."

Each of these sentences contains one subject and one predicate and expresses a complete thought. Therefore, they are all examples of simple sentences.

Subject and Predicate

As we mentioned earlier, a simple sentence consists of one subject and one predicate. The subject is the person, idea, place, or thing that your sentence is about. The predicate is the action or state of being that the subject is performing or experiencing.

For example: "The dog barked." In this sentence, "The dog" is our subject and "barked" is the predicate. The subject informs us what the sentence is about, and the predicate tells us what the subject is doing.

Common Mistakes

When it comes to simple sentences, there are a few common mistakes that English learners often make. Here are a few to watch out for:

Run-On Sentences

A run-on sentence contains two or more clauses that are not properly connected. This can make the sentence confusing and difficult to read. To fix a run-on sentence, you can either separate the clauses into separate sentences or connect them with a conjunction.

Example of a run-on sentence: "She went to the store she bought some milk."

Fragments

A sentence fragment is a selection of words which does not form a complete sentence. It's important to remember that a sentence must contain one subject and one predicate and express a complete thought.

Example of a sentence fragment: "After school."

Missing Subjects or Predicates

Sometimes, English learners forget to include either a subject or a predicate in their sentences. This can make the sentence incomplete and confusing.

Example of a missing subject: "Runs fast." Example of a missing predicate: "The dog."

Summary

A simple sentence has only a single independent clause. It contains one subject and one predicate and expresses a complete thought. To identify simple sentences in English, look for sentences that contain one subject and one predicate and express a complete thought.

ACTIVITIES

Practice Exercises (15 minutes):

- Distribute worksheets or exercises with simple sentences in English and Uzbek languages.
- Encourage students to identify the subject, verb, object, and other elements in each sentence.
- Allow time for students to work individually or in pairs, and then review the answers as a class.

Exercise 1: Pronoun Identification

English Sentences:

1. She is reading a book.
2. They are playing in the park.
3. He has a red car.
4. We went to the beach yesterday.
5. It is raining outside.

Uzbek Sentences:

1. U kitob o'qiyapti.
2. Ular parkda o'ynayapti.
3. Uning oq mashinasi bor.
4. Biz kecha ko'chaga ketdik.

Exercise 2: Possessive Pronoun Matching

Match the English possessive pronouns with their corresponding Uzbek counterparts.

English Possessive Pronouns:

1. My
2. Your
3. His
4. Her
5. Our
6. Their

Uzbek Possessive Pronouns:

1. Men
2. Siz
3. Uning
4. Uning
5. Bizning
6. Ular

Exercise 3: Reflexive Pronoun Fill-in-the-Blanks

Fill in the blanks in the English and Uzbek sentences with the correct reflexive pronouns.

English Sentences:

1. She made lunch for _____.
2. He hurt _____ while playing.
3. We cleaned the house by _____.
4. They bought gifts for _____.
5. I will take care of _____.

Uzbek Sentences:

1. U nonushta tayyorladi _____.
2. U o'yinlashganida o'zini zarar berdi _____.
3. Biz uy o'zimizni tozaladik _____.
4. Ular sovg'alarni o'zlariga sotib oldilar _____.
5. Men o'zimni qo'riga olaman _____.

Exercise 4: Sentence Construction

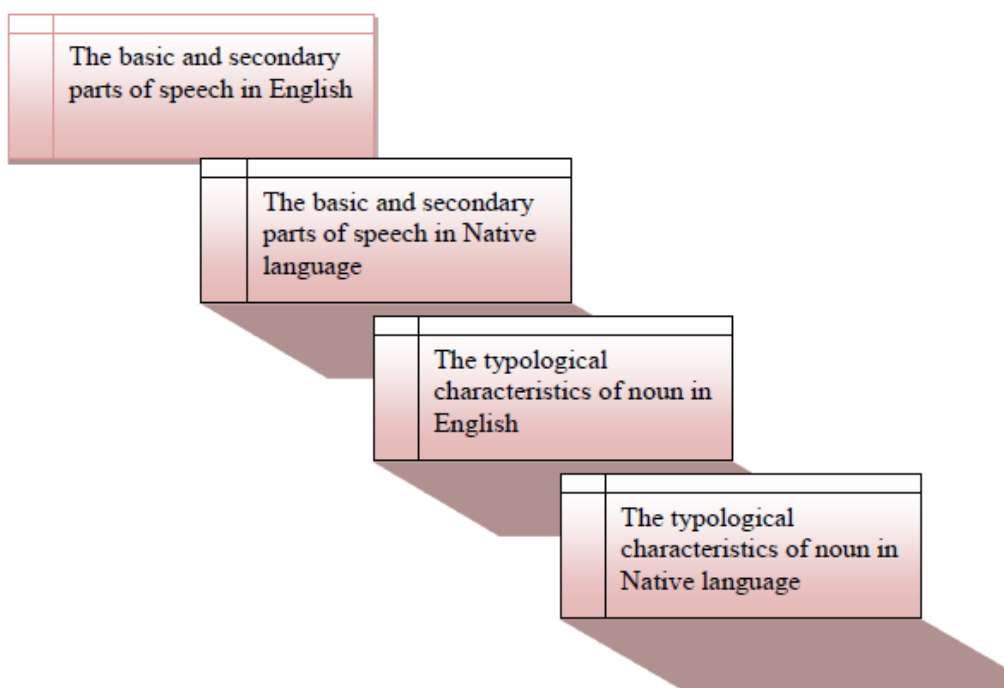
Construct sentences in both English and Uzbek using the provided pronouns.

Pronouns:

1. I
2. You
3. He
4. She
5. We
6. They

Example: English: She is my friend. Uzbek: U mening do'stim.

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



Homework Assignment: Typology of Simple Sentences in English and Uzbek Languages

Task 1: Sentence Analysis

1. Analyze five simple sentences in English and five in Uzbek languages.
2. Identify the subject, verb, and object (if present) in each sentence.
3. Note the word order used in each sentence and any differences between English and Uzbek languages.
4. Write a brief description of the typological features observed in each sentence, focusing on similarities and differences between the two languages.

Task 2: Translation Exercise

1. Translate three simple sentences from English to Uzbek language and three from Uzbek to English.
2. Pay attention to maintaining the correct word order and grammatical structure in the translation.

3. Compare the translated sentences to the original sentences and note any challenges or differences encountered.

Task 3: Create Your Own Sentences

1. Write five simple sentences in English and five in Uzbek languages.
2. Use a variety of subjects, verbs, and objects to demonstrate your understanding of sentence construction.

3. Apply the typological features discussed in class, such as word order, verb morphology, and noun phrases, in your sentences.

4. Include at least one sentence that highlights a distinct typological feature of each language.

Submission Instructions:

- Submit your completed homework assignment by [insert submission deadline].
- Ensure that your work is neatly organized, accurately completed, and written in clear and grammatically correct English and Uzbek languages.

THEME 29. DISTINCTIONS AND SIMILARITIES IN PRONOUNS OF ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

Lesson Plan: Distinctions and Similarities in Pronouns of English and Uzbek Languages

Objective: Students will understand the distinctions and similarities between pronouns in English and Uzbek languages. They will be able to identify and use pronouns accurately in different contexts.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers
- Handouts with examples of pronouns in English and Uzbek
- Exercises and worksheets for practice
- Audio recordings of pronouns being used in sentences (optional)

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Greet the students and introduce the topic of the lesson: distinctions and similarities in pronouns of English and Uzbek languages.

- Engage students by asking them to share their understanding of pronouns and their importance in language.

2. Explanation of Pronouns (15 minutes):

- Define pronouns as words that can replace nouns in a sentence to avoid repetition.

- Discuss the different types of pronouns, including personal pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, possessive pronouns, reflexive pronouns, and relative pronouns.

- Provide examples of pronouns in both English and Uzbek languages.

3. Comparison of Personal Pronouns (20 minutes):

- Compare and contrast the personal pronoun systems in English and Uzbek languages, focusing on distinctions in person, number, gender, and case.

- Write examples of personal pronouns in each language on the board and explain their usage and forms.

- Discuss any similarities and differences between the two languages in terms of pronoun forms and usage.

4. Comparison of Demonstrative Pronouns (15 minutes):

- Explain the concept of demonstrative pronouns and their usage to indicate proximity or distance.

- Compare the demonstrative pronoun systems in English and Uzbek languages, highlighting any differences in form or usage.

- Provide examples of demonstrative pronouns in both languages and practice using them in sentences.

5. Comparison of Possessive Pronouns (15 minutes):

- Discuss possessive pronouns and their function to indicate ownership or possession.

- Compare the possessive pronoun systems in English and Uzbek languages, including differences in form and placement.

- Provide examples of possessive pronouns in both languages and practice using them in sentences.

6. Practice Exercises (15 minutes):

- Distribute worksheets or exercises with pronoun-related activities in both English and Uzbek languages.
- Encourage students to identify and use pronouns correctly in sentences.
- Allow time for students to work individually or in pairs, and then review the answers as a class.

7. Reflection and Discussion (10 minutes):

- Facilitate a discussion on the similarities and differences observed in pronouns of English and Uzbek languages.
- Encourage students to share their insights and reflections on the topic.
- Address any questions or clarifications regarding the material covered.

8. Conclusion (5 minutes):

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson about pronouns in English and Uzbek languages.
- Emphasize the importance of understanding pronoun distinctions and similarities for effective communication in both languages.

Pronouns play a crucial role in language by replacing nouns to avoid repetition and convey meaning efficiently. While English and Uzbek languages both utilize pronouns, there are distinctions and similarities between them.

Distinctions in Pronouns between English and Uzbek:

Pronoun Categories:

English: English pronouns are typically categorized into personal pronouns (e.g., I, you, he, she, it, we, they), possessive pronouns (e.g., mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, theirs), reflexive pronouns (e.g., myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, themselves), demonstrative pronouns (e.g., this, that, these, those), and others.

Uzbek: Uzbek pronouns are also categorized into personal pronouns, possessive pronouns, reflexive pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, and interrogative pronouns (e.g., kim, nima, qanday).

Grammatical Gender:

English: English pronouns do not have grammatical gender distinctions, except for third-person singular pronouns (he, she, it).

Uzbek: Uzbek pronouns do not have grammatical gender distinctions either, and the same pronoun can be used for both masculine and feminine referents.

Number Agreement:

English: English pronouns have number agreement, distinguishing between singular (I, you, he/she/it) and plural forms (we, you, they).

Uzbek: Uzbek pronouns also exhibit number agreement, with distinct singular and plural forms.

Formality and Politeness:

English: English pronouns do not inherently convey formality or politeness distinctions, although variations exist in some contexts (e.g., "you" versus "thou" in archaic English).

Uzbek: Uzbek pronouns include formal and informal forms, such as "siz" (formal "you") and "sen" (informal "you").

Similarities in Pronouns between English and Uzbek:

Personal Pronouns:

Both English and Uzbek languages have personal pronouns that refer to individuals or groups.

English: I, you, he/she/it, we, they

Uzbek: Men, sen, u, biz, siz, ular

Possessive Pronouns:

Both languages have possessive pronouns used to indicate ownership or association.

English: My/mine, your/yours, his/her/hers, our/ours, their/theirs

Uzbek: Mening, meningki, sening, seningki, uning, uningki, bizning, bizningki, sizning, sizningki, ulaning, ularning, ularking, ularningki

Reflexive Pronouns:

Both English and Uzbek languages have reflexive pronouns used to refer back to the subject of the sentence.

English: Myself, yourself, himself/herself/itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves

Uzbek: O'zim, o'zing, o'zi, o'zimiz, o'zingiz, o'zlar

Demonstrative Pronouns:

Both languages have demonstrative pronouns used to point to specific objects or individuals.

English: This, that, these, those

Uzbek: Bu, shu, u, ulu

While English and Uzbek pronouns share some similarities in their functions and categories, there are also notable differences, particularly in terms of grammatical features like gender, formality, and number agreement. Understanding these distinctions is essential for effective communication in both languages.

ACTIVITIES

Title: Implementing Gender-Inclusive Pronouns: A Workplace Case Study

Introduction: In recent years, there has been increasing recognition of the importance of gender-inclusive language, particularly concerning the use of pronouns. Pronouns play a significant role in affirming individuals' gender identities and fostering inclusivity within organizations. This case study examines the challenges and strategies associated with implementing gender-inclusive pronouns in a workplace setting.

Objective: The objective of this case study is to analyze the impact of pronoun usage on workplace culture, employee morale, and inclusivity. By exploring real-life scenarios and organizational responses, participants will gain insights into the complexities of pronoun implementation and strategies for creating more inclusive workplaces.

Key Issues and Background:

- Overview of the importance of pronouns in affirming gender identities.
- Discussion of diverse gender identities beyond the binary.
- Challenges in implementing gender-inclusive language policies in workplaces.

Case Study Analysis:

Scenario: ABC Corporation, a mid-sized tech company, is committed to diversity and inclusion. However, some employees have expressed discomfort with the company's pronoun usage policy, arguing that it is unnecessary or confusing. Others have embraced the policy, seeing it as a positive step towards creating a more inclusive environment.

Tasks:

1. Analyze the potential benefits and challenges of implementing gender-inclusive pronouns in the workplace.
2. Evaluate the effectiveness of ABC Corporation's communication and training efforts regarding pronoun usage.
3. Propose strategies for addressing resistance to pronoun usage and fostering a culture of inclusivity within the organization.

Conclusion: Through this case study, participants have gained insights into the importance of pronoun usage in workplace diversity and inclusion initiatives. By addressing challenges and implementing effective strategies, organizations can create environments where all employees feel respected and valued for their gender identities.

Discussion Questions:

1. How can organizations effectively communicate the importance of pronoun usage to employees?
2. What role can leadership play in promoting gender-inclusive language policies within the workplace?
3. What are some potential benefits of implementing gender-inclusive pronouns beyond fostering inclusivity?

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

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

Homework Assignment: Distinctions and Similarities in Pronouns of English and Uzbek Languages

Task 1: Pronoun Comparison Chart

1. Create a comparison chart or table highlighting the differences and similarities between personal pronouns in English and Uzbek languages.
2. Include columns for pronoun categories (e.g., first person, second person, third person), number (singular vs. plural), gender (if applicable), and case (nominative, accusative, genitive, dative, etc.).
3. Provide examples of pronouns in each language for each category and label any distinctions or similarities observed.

Task 2: Translation Exercise

1. Translate five English sentences containing personal pronouns into Uzbek language and five Uzbek sentences into English.
2. Pay attention to maintaining the correct pronoun forms, including person, number, and case, in the translation.
3. Compare the translated sentences to the original sentences and note any challenges or differences encountered.

Task 3: Sentence Construction

1. Write three sentences in English and three in Uzbek languages, incorporating different types of pronouns (e.g., personal, possessive, demonstrative) into each sentence.

2. Ensure that the pronouns are used correctly and appropriately within the context of the sentence.

3. Pay attention to pronoun agreement, case, and placement in the sentence structure.

Task 4: Reflective Journal Entry

1. Reflect on your learning experience about pronouns in English and Uzbek languages.

2. Identify any challenges or insights gained from comparing pronouns between the two languages.

3. Consider how understanding pronoun distinctions and similarities enhances your language proficiency and cultural awareness.

Submission Instructions:

- Submit your completed homework assignment by [insert submission deadline].
- Ensure that your work is neatly organized, accurately completed, and written in clear and grammatically correct English and Uzbek languages.

THEME 30. TYPOLOGY OF GENDER LINGUISTICS IN COMPARATIVE LANGUAGES

Lesson Plan: Typology of Gender Linguistics in Comparative Languages

Objective: Students will understand the typological features of gender linguistics in comparative languages. They will be able to identify and analyze the different systems of gender marking, agreement, and categorization in various languages.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers
- Handouts with examples of gender linguistics in comparative languages
- Exercises and worksheets for practice

- Audio recordings of gender-marked words or phrases in different languages (optional)

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Greet the students and introduce the topic of the lesson: typology of gender linguistics in comparative languages.

- Engage students by asking them to share their understanding of gender in language and any languages they know that have gender systems.

2. Explanation of Gender Linguistics (15 minutes):

- Define gender linguistics as the study of how languages categorize nouns and pronouns into different gender classes.

- Discuss the different types of gender systems found in languages, including natural gender, grammatical gender, and semantic gender.

- Provide examples of gender-marked words or phrases in different languages and explain their significance.

3. Comparison of Gender Systems (20 minutes):

- Compare and contrast the gender systems of languages that exhibit different types of gender categorization, such as English (non-gendered), French (grammatical gender), and Swahili (semantic gender).

- Write examples of gender-marked words or phrases from each language on the board and discuss their gender assignment criteria.

4. Gender Agreement and Marking (20 minutes):

- Explain how gender agreement works in languages with grammatical gender, where adjectives, articles, and pronouns must agree with the gender of the noun they modify or refer to.

- Discuss how gender marking can vary in different languages, including through noun inflection, article placement, or adjectival agreement.

- Provide examples of gender agreement and marking in comparative languages and analyze their patterns.

5. Practice Exercises (15 minutes):

- Distribute worksheets or exercises with gender-related activities in comparative languages.
- Encourage students to identify gender-marked words or phrases, analyze their gender assignment, and determine patterns of gender agreement.
- Allow time for students to work individually or in pairs, and then review the answers as a class.

6. Reflection and Discussion (10 minutes):

- Facilitate a discussion on the typological features of gender linguistics in comparative languages.
- Encourage students to share their observations, insights, and questions about gender systems and their manifestations in different languages.
- Address any misconceptions or points of confusion raised during the discussion.

7. Conclusion (5 minutes):

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson about gender linguistics in comparative languages.
- Emphasize the importance of understanding gender typology for linguistic research, cross-cultural communication, and language learning.

The typological category of gender encompasses both natural (biological sex) and grammatical (formal) gender. In languages like English, the connection between grammatical gender and natural sex is primarily evident in the realm of animals and birds. This correlation is displayed through nouns and pronouns. However, in languages like Russian, gender can also be expressed through adjectives and the past tense forms of verbs.

In Uzbek grammar books, there is often no mention of the category of gender for Uzbek nouns, as many authors consider Uzbek nouns to lack this category altogether.

However, based on their lexical meanings, comparing nouns can be classified into masculine, feminine, and neuter genders. Names of male beings typically belong to the masculine gender, while names of female beings are feminine. Other nouns are considered neuter gender.

Gender in grammar finds formal expression in the replacement of nouns with personal pronouns in the third person singular, such as "she" or "it." However, there are some nouns in English and Uzbek that can be treated as either male or female, such as "friend," "cousin," "doctor," or "neighbor." These are considered of common (neuter) gender, and masculine pronouns are typically used when gender distinction is not necessary.

There are three main ways of expressing gender in comparing languages: morphological, syntactical, and lexical. Morphologically, Russian employs suffixes to indicate gender, such as consonants for masculine nouns, -a or -я for feminine nouns, and -o or -e for neuter nouns. In English, the suffix -ess is used to denote feminine gender, as seen in words like "hostess," "actress," or "waitress." Similarly, in Uzbek, the suffix -a, often of Arabic origin, is used for feminine gender, as in words like "raisa" (president), "vazira" (minister), or "shoir-a" (poetess).

Gender can also be denoted syntactically, where combinations of words are formed to indicate the sex of the head word. For example, "man servant" or "boy friend" in English, which can be expressed in Uzbek by syntactic combinations like "қарол" (man servant) or "ўғил бола уртоқ" (boy friend). Similarly, in English, "she goat" can be expressed as "она ечки" in Uzbek.

In most cases, gender can be expressed lexically, solely by the stem of the noun. For instance, "father" (ота), "uncle" (амаки), or "niece" (қиз жиян) in Uzbek. Names of animals, such as "mare" (бия), "tiger" (йўлбарс), or "ram" (қўчқор), also follow this pattern.

Additionally, personal names can often denote the gender of the person, such as male names like "Arthur," "Christopher," or "John" (Аҳмаджон, Баҳодир, Шаҳобиддин) and female names like "Mary," "Christine," or "Nelly" (Сайера, Мехринисо, Гулоим).

Some nouns, like various vessels (ship, boat, yacht, life-raft), the noun "car," and the names of countries, are sometimes referred to as feminine gender, using "she" to personify them. For instance: a. "Sam joined the famous whaler Globe. She was a ship on which any young man would be proud to sail." b. "England prides herself with her greenness and tidiness."

Conversely, nouns like "nature," "country," "mercy," "faith," "hope," and "modesty" are often used as masculine gender.

ACTIVITIES

Test 1: Multiple Choice

Instructions: Select the most appropriate answer for each question.

1. Which of the following languages typically employ grammatical gender?

- a) English
- b) Mandarin Chinese
- c) Spanish
- d) Arabic

2. In languages with grammatical gender, which of the following statements is true?

- a) All nouns have gender-specific markers.
- b) Gender is primarily based on biological sex.
- c) Adjectives and articles agree with nouns in gender.
- d) Gender is irrelevant in these languages.

3. Which language family is known for its extensive use of grammatical gender?

- a) Germanic
- b) Romance
- c) Slavic
- d) Sino-Tibetan

4. Which language is an example of a non-gendered language?

- a) French
- b) Finnish
- c) Italian
- d) Russian

5. In languages with natural gender, such as English, gender distinctions are primarily based on:

- a) Biological sex
- b) Social roles
- c) Phonological features
- d) Geographical regions

Test 2: Matching

Instructions: Match the term from Column A with its corresponding definition in Column B.

Column A	Column B
----------	----------

1. Grammatical Gender | a) A language where gender distinctions are based on biological sex.

2. Gender-neutral Language | b) The classification of nouns into different gender categories.

3. Natural Gender | c) A language that does not use grammatical gender markers.

4. Gendered Language | d) Language that distinguishes between masculine, feminine, and neuter genders.

5. Non-gendered Language | e) Language that does not assign gender to nouns.

Test 3: Short Answer

Instructions: Provide brief, concise answers to each question.

1. Explain the concept of grammatical gender and provide examples from at least two languages.

2. Contrast the typological differences between gendered and non-gendered languages, providing examples for each.

3. Discuss the challenges and benefits associated with the use of gender-neutral language in contemporary society.

4. Analyze the impact of grammatical gender on language structure and comprehension, citing specific linguistic features.

5. Evaluate the cultural implications of gender linguistics in comparative languages, considering historical, social, and political contexts.

Homework Assignment: Typology of Gender Linguistics in Comparative Languages

Task 1: Gender System Analysis

1. Choose three languages with different types of gender systems, such as English (non-gendered), French (grammatical gender), and Swahili (semantic gender).

2. Research and analyze the gender systems of each language, including the criteria for gender assignment, the types of gender categories, and the patterns of gender agreement and marking.

3. Write a comparative analysis highlighting the similarities and differences between the gender systems of the chosen languages.

Task 2: Gender Agreement Exercises

1. Create five sentences in English and five sentences in a language with grammatical gender (e.g., Spanish, German) that contain gender-marked nouns, adjectives, or pronouns.

2. Ensure that the gender agreement between nouns and modifying words (adjectives, articles) is correctly applied in both languages.

3. Identify and explain any challenges or differences encountered in applying gender agreement rules between the two languages.

Task 3: Gender Categorization Project

1. Choose a language known for its unique gender categorization system (e.g., Dyirbal, a language of Australia with four gender categories).

2. Research the gender categorization system of the chosen language, including the cultural and linguistic factors influencing gender assignment.

3. Create a presentation or poster illustrating the gender categories and providing examples of gender-marked words or phrases in the language.

4. Discuss the significance of gender categorization in the chosen language's culture and society.

Task 4: Reflective Journal Entry

1. Reflect on your learning experience about gender linguistics in comparative languages.

2. Identify any insights, challenges, or misconceptions you encountered while studying gender systems in different languages.

3. Consider how understanding the typology of gender linguistics enhances your linguistic knowledge and cultural awareness.

Submission Instructions:

- Submit your completed homework assignment by [insert submission deadline].

- Ensure that your work is neatly organized, accurately completed, and written in clear and grammatically correct language.

THEME 31. TYPOLOGY OF WORD FORMATION IN THE ENGLISH AND NATIVE LANGUAGES

Objective: Students will understand the typological features of word formation in English and native languages. They will be able to identify and analyze the different processes of word formation, including derivation, compounding, blending, and borrowing, in various languages.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers
- Handouts with examples of word formation processes in English and native languages
- Exercises and worksheets for practice
- Audio recordings of words formed through different processes (optional)

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Greet the students and introduce the topic of the lesson: typology of word formation in English and native languages.
- Engage students by asking them to share their understanding of how new words are created in language.

2. Explanation of Word Formation Processes (15 minutes):

- Define word formation as the creation of new words from existing ones through various linguistic processes.
- Discuss the different types of word formation processes, including derivation (adding affixes), compounding (combining words), blending (merging parts of words), and borrowing (adopting words from other languages).
- Provide examples of each word formation process in both English and native languages.

3. Comparison of Derivation (20 minutes):

- Compare and contrast the process of derivation in English and native languages, focusing on the use of prefixes, suffixes, and infixes to create new words.
- Write examples of derived words on the board and discuss their meanings and morphological structures in each language.

4. Comparison of Compounding (20 minutes):

- Explore the process of compounding in English and native languages, where words are formed by combining two or more existing words.
- Discuss any differences in compounding rules or patterns between the two languages.
- Provide examples of compound words and analyze their components and meanings.

5. Comparison of Blending (15 minutes):

- Explain the concept of blending, where parts of two or more words are combined to form a new word with a fused meaning.

- Compare the occurrence and prevalence of blending in English and native languages.

- Provide examples of blended words and discuss their origins and usage in each language.

6. Comparison of Borrowing (15 minutes):

- Discuss the process of borrowing words from other languages and its significance in English and native languages.

- Compare the types of loanwords and loanword integration strategies used in each language.

- Provide examples of loanwords and discuss their adaptation and assimilation into the lexicon of each language.

7. Practice Exercises (15 minutes):

- Distribute worksheets or exercises with word formation activities in English and native languages.

- Encourage students to identify and analyze examples of derivation, compounding, blending, and borrowing in different contexts.

- Allow time for students to work individually or in pairs, and then review the answers as a class.

8. Reflection and Discussion (10 minutes):

- Facilitate a discussion on the typological features of word formation in English and native languages.

- Encourage students to share their observations, insights, and questions about word formation processes.

- Address any misconceptions or points of confusion raised during the discussion.

9. Conclusion (5 minutes):

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson about typology of word formation in English and native languages.

- Emphasize the importance of understanding word formation processes for vocabulary acquisition and language proficiency.

The typology of word formation in the English and Uzbek languages encompasses various processes through which new words are created. While English and Uzbek belong to different language families and exhibit distinct linguistic features, they share common mechanisms of word formation while also displaying differences in their strategies. Here's a detailed exploration:

1. Word Formation Processes:

English:

- **Derivation:** In English, new words are often formed by adding prefixes or suffixes to existing words. For example, "un-" can be added to "happy" to form "unhappy."

- **Compounding:** English frequently forms compound words by combining two or more existing words. Examples include "blackboard," "football," and "airplane."

- **Conversion:** Conversion involves changing the grammatical category of a word without adding affixes. For instance, "email" can function as both a noun ("I received an email") and a verb ("I will email you").

- **Blending:** This process involves combining parts of two or more words to create a new word with a blended meaning. Examples include "brunch" (breakfast + lunch) and "smog" (smoke + fog).

Uzbek:

- **Agglutination:** Uzbek relies heavily on agglutination, where grammatical information is added to a root word through the attachment of affixes in a highly regular and systematic manner. For instance, "kitob" (book) + "-lar" (plural suffix) = "kitoblar" (books).

- **Compounding:** Similar to English, Uzbek forms compound words by combining two or more roots or stems. For example, "oy" (moon) + "chopon" (light) = "oychopon" (moonlight).

2. Typological Differences:

- English tends to have a more diverse array of word formation processes, including derivation, compounding, conversion, and blending.

- Uzbek relies heavily on agglutination, with extensive use of suffixes to convey grammatical and semantic information.

3. Comparative Analysis:

- While both languages utilize compounding to create new words, English compounding tends to be more flexible and productive, allowing for a wide range of combinations.

- English often relies on derivational suffixes to change the meaning or grammatical category of a word, whereas Uzbek achieves similar effects through agglutination.

4. Cross-Linguistic Examples:

- **English:** "Unhappiness" (derivation), "breakfast" (compounding), "email" (conversion), "smog" (blending).

- **Uzbek:** "Kitoblar" (agglutination), "oychopon" (compounding), "bormoq" (derivational suffix indicating future tense).

5. Implications and Applications:

- Understanding the typology of word formation in English and Uzbek facilitates language learning, translation, and cross-cultural communication.

- Comparative analysis sheds light on linguistic universals and language-specific features, contributing to a deeper understanding of linguistic diversity and language typology.

In conclusion, the typology of word formation in English and Uzbek languages involves analyzing the processes of derivation, compounding, conversion, and blending, while also considering the typological differences and similarities between the two languages. This exploration enhances our understanding of language structure and facilitates effective communication across linguistic contexts.

ACTIVITIES

1. Word Formation Identification: Provide a list of words in English and Uzbek and ask students to identify the word formation process used to create each word (e.g., derivation, compounding, agglutination). For example:

- English: happiness, football, email, brunch
- Uzbek: kitoblar, oychopon, bormoq, kelishuv

2. Comparative Analysis: Present pairs of words in English and Uzbek that share similar meanings but are formed through different word formation processes. Ask students to analyze the differences and similarities between the two languages. For example:

- English: happiness (derivation), joy (compounding)
- Uzbek: kitoblar (agglutination), o'qish (compounding)

3. Word Formation Crossword Puzzle: Create a crossword puzzle containing clues related to word formation processes in English and Uzbek. Students can fill in the puzzle with words formed through different processes. For example:

Across:

1. A word formed by combining two or more existing words (English)
2. A word formed by adding affixes to an existing word (Uzbek)

Down: 2. A word formed by merging parts of two or more words (English)

4. A word formed by attaching suffixes to a root word (Uzbek)

4. Word Formation Examples: Provide sentences containing words formed through various processes in English and Uzbek. Ask students to identify the word formation process used in each sentence and explain its meaning. For example:

- English: "She felt unhappiness after receiving the bad news." (Derivation)

- Uzbek: "Kitoblarimni bibliotekaga olib ketdim." (Agglutination)

5. Creative Word Formation: Encourage students to create new words in English and Uzbek using different word formation processes. They can then explain the meaning and usage of their newly formed words. For example:

- English: Create a compound word related to technology (e.g., "smartphone").

- Uzbek: Form a word using agglutination related to education (e.g., "o'quvchi" - student).

6. Discussion Questions: Engage students in a discussion about the advantages and disadvantages of different word formation processes in English and Uzbek. Encourage them to consider factors such as productivity, clarity, and cultural relevance.

Homework Assignment: Typology of Word Formation in English and Native Languages

Task 1: Derivation Analysis

1. Identify five words in English and five words in a native language (e.g., Spanish, Mandarin, Swahili) that are formed through derivation.

2. Analyze the morphological structure of each derived word, including the affixes (prefixes, suffixes) added to the base word and their meanings.

3. Write a brief explanation for each derived word, discussing its formation process and semantic relationship to the base word.

Task 2: Compounding Exercise

1. Create five compound words in English and five in a native language by combining two or more existing words.

2. Explain the meanings of the compound words and discuss the semantic relationships between their constituent parts.

3. Compare the compound word formation patterns between English and the native language, noting any similarities or differences observed.

Task 3: Blending Examples

1. Identify three blended words in English and three in a native language, where parts of two or more words are fused to form a new word.

2. Provide examples of blended words and explain their origins and meanings.

3. Discuss the prevalence of blending in each language and its impact on language evolution and lexicon enrichment.

Task 4: Borrowing Analysis

1. Research loanwords borrowed from other languages into English and the native language chosen for analysis.

2. Select five loanwords in each language and provide their original language of origin, meanings, and usage in the borrowing language.

3. Analyze the adaptation and assimilation of loanwords into the lexicon of English and the native language, including any changes in pronunciation or meaning.

Task 5: Reflective Essay

1. Write a reflective essay discussing the typology of word formation in English and the native language studied.

2. Reflect on the similarities and differences observed in word formation processes, including derivation, compounding, blending, and borrowing.

3. Consider the implications of word formation typology for language learning, cross-cultural communication, and linguistic diversity.

Submission Instructions:

- Submit your completed homework assignment by [insert submission deadline].

- Ensure that your work is neatly organized, accurately completed, and written in clear and grammatically correct language.

THEME 32. TYPOLOGY OF SIMPLE SENTENCE IN ENGLISH AND NATIVE LANGUAGES

Objective: Students will understand the typological features of simple sentences in English and Uzbek languages. They will be able to identify the structure, word order, and grammatical elements of simple sentences in both languages.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers
- Handouts with examples of simple sentences in English and Uzbek
- Exercises and worksheets for practice
- Audio recordings of simple sentences being spoken in both languages (optional)

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Greet the students and introduce the topic of the lesson: typology of simple sentences in English and Uzbek languages.
- Engage students by asking them to share what they know about simple sentences and their components.

2. Explanation of Simple Sentences (15 minutes):

- Define simple sentences as sentences that contain a single independent clause with a subject and a predicate.
- Discuss the basic components of simple sentences, including subject, verb, and object (if present).
- Provide examples of simple sentences in both English and Uzbek languages.

3. Comparison of Word Order (20 minutes):

- Explain how word order varies between English and Uzbek languages in simple sentences.
- Compare and contrast the typical word order patterns in English (Subject-Verb-Object) and Uzbek (Subject-Object-Verb).
- Write examples of simple sentences with different word orders on the board and discuss their meanings.

4. Comparison of Verb Morphology (20 minutes):

- Discuss the differences in verb morphology between English and Uzbek languages within simple sentences.
- Explain how English verbs often have limited inflectional morphology, while Uzbek verbs may exhibit more complex inflections for tense, aspect, mood, and agreement.
- Provide examples of verb forms in simple sentences in both languages and highlight any differences in tense, aspect, or agreement markers.

5. Comparison of Noun Phrases and Other Elements (15 minutes):

- Explore the structure and composition of noun phrases in simple sentences in English and Uzbek languages.
- Discuss the use of determiners, adjectives, and other modifiers within noun phrases in both languages.
- Provide examples of noun phrases in simple sentences and analyze their components.

6. Practice Exercises (15 minutes):

- Distribute worksheets or exercises with simple sentence activities in English and Uzbek languages.
- Encourage students to identify the subject, verb, object, and other elements in each sentence.
- Allow time for students to work individually or in pairs, and then review the answers as a class.

7. Reflection and Discussion (10 minutes):

- Facilitate a discussion on the typological features of simple sentences in English and Uzbek languages.
- Encourage students to share their observations, insights, and questions about sentence structure and word order.
- Address any misconceptions or points of confusion raised during the discussion.

8. Conclusion (5 minutes):

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson about typology of simple sentences in English and Uzbek languages.
- Emphasize the importance of understanding sentence structure for effective communication in both languages.

The typology of simple sentences in English and Uzbek languages involves analyzing the structural components, word order patterns, and syntactic features that characterize basic sentence constructions in each language.

Here's a detailed overview:

1. Definition of Simple Sentence: A simple sentence is a sentence containing a single independent clause, which typically consists of a subject and a predicate. It expresses a complete thought or idea and can stand alone as a complete sentence.

2. Structural Components:

- Subject: The subject of a sentence is the entity performing the action or being described.
- Predicate: The predicate contains the verb and provides information about the subject, including what the subject is doing or experiencing.
- Verb: The verb expresses the action or state of being and is central to the meaning of the sentence.
- Objects, Complements, and Modifiers: These elements provide additional information about the subject or verb and may include direct objects, indirect objects, complement clauses, adjectives, adverbs, and prepositional phrases.

3. Word Order Patterns:

English:

- English typically follows a subject-verb-object (SVO) word order in declarative sentences. For example, "The cat (subject) chased (verb) the mouse (object)."
- In questions, English often uses an inverted word order, with the verb preceding the subject. For example, "Did (verb) you (subject) see the movie?"
- English allows for variations in word order for emphasis or stylistic reasons, such as placing adverbs or adverbial phrases at the beginning or end of the sentence.

Uzbek:

- Uzbek generally follows a subject-object-verb (SOV) word order in declarative sentences. For example, "Qiz (subject) kitobni (object) o'qidi (verb)" (The girl read the book).

- In questions, Uzbek also uses an inverted word order, with the verb preceding the subject. For example, "Kitobni (object) qiz (subject) o'qdimi (verb)?" (Did the girl read the book?)

- Similar to English, Uzbek allows for variations in word order for emphasis or stylistic purposes.

4. Syntactic Features:

- Agreement: Both English and Uzbek exhibit agreement between the subject and verb in terms of person and number. For example, in English, "He runs," "They run," while in Uzbek, "U yuradi" (He runs), "Ular yurishadi" (They run).

- Case Marking: Uzbek uses case endings to indicate the grammatical function of nouns within the sentence. For example, "kitob" (book) becomes "kitobni" (the book, accusative case) when it functions as the direct object.

- Verb Morphology: Uzbek verbs exhibit complex morphology, including tense, aspect, mood, and voice markers, which can change based on the subject and object of the sentence.

5. Comparative Analysis:

- Comparative analysis involves comparing the structural and syntactic features of simple sentences in English and Uzbek.

- Differences in word order, agreement patterns, case marking, and verb morphology highlight the typological diversity between the two languages.

6. Implications and Applications:

- Understanding the typology of simple sentences in English and Uzbek facilitates language learning, translation, and cross-cultural communication.

- Comparative analysis contributes to a deeper understanding of linguistic diversity and language typology, enhancing our appreciation for different language structures and systems.

In conclusion, the typology of simple sentences in English and Uzbek languages encompasses a range of structural and syntactic features that

reflect the unique characteristics of each language. Exploring these features enhances our understanding of language structure and facilitates effective communication across linguistic contexts.

ACTIVITIES

Creative Writing: Have students write their own simple sentences in both English and Uzbek, incorporating vocabulary and grammar concepts learned. Encourage them to be creative and to experiment with different sentence structures and word orders.

Case Marking Practice: Present students with sentences in Uzbek containing nouns in different cases. Ask them to identify the case of each noun and explain its grammatical function within the sentence. For example:

- Sentence: "Men kitobni o'qiyman."
- Answer: "Kitobni" is in the accusative case, indicating it is the direct object of the verb "o'qiyman" (to read).

•

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

Uzbek	Russian	English

Homework Assignment: Typology of Simple Sentences in English and Uzbek Languages

Task 1: Sentence Analysis

1. Identify five simple sentences in English and five in Uzbek languages from authentic sources (e.g., books, articles, online resources).
2. Analyze the structure of each sentence, including the subject, verb, and object (if present), and any other grammatical elements.
3. Compare the word order patterns between English (Subject-Verb-Object) and Uzbek (Subject-Object-Verb) sentences.
4. Write a brief explanation for each sentence, discussing its typological features and any differences observed between the two languages.

Task 2: Translation Exercise

1. Translate three simple sentences from English to Uzbek language and three from Uzbek to English.
2. Pay attention to maintaining the correct word order and grammatical structure in the translation.
3. Compare the translated sentences to the original sentences and note any challenges or differences encountered.

Task 3: Create Your Own Sentences

1. Write five simple sentences in English and five in Uzbek languages.
2. Use a variety of subjects, verbs, and objects to demonstrate your understanding of sentence construction.
3. Apply the typological features discussed in class, such as word order, verb morphology, and noun phrases, in your sentences.
4. Include at least one sentence that highlights a distinct typological feature of each language.

Task 4: Reflective Journal Entry

1. Reflect on your learning experience about typology of simple sentences in English and Uzbek languages.
2. Identify any insights, challenges, or misconceptions you encountered while studying sentence structure and word order.

3. Consider how understanding typological features enhances your language proficiency and cross-cultural communication skills.

Submission Instructions:

- Submit your completed homework assignment by [insert submission deadline].
- Ensure that your work is neatly organized, accurately completed, and written in clear and grammatically correct language.

THEME 33. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE SYNTACTIC SYSTEMS OF MODERN ENGLISH

Objective: Students will understand the syntactic structures and features of Modern English and compare them with those of other languages. They will be able to identify similarities and differences in syntactic patterns and analyze their implications for language comprehension and production.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers
- Handouts with examples of syntactic structures in Modern English and other languages
- Exercises and worksheets for practice
- Audio recordings of sentences in English and other languages (optional)

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Greet the students and introduce the topic of the lesson: comparative analysis of syntactic systems in Modern English.
- Engage students by asking them to share their understanding of syntax and its importance in language.

2. Explanation of Syntactic Systems (15 minutes):

- Define syntax as the study of sentence structure and word order in language.

- Discuss the basic elements of syntactic analysis, including phrases, clauses, and sentence types.

- Provide examples of syntactic structures in English and explain their components.

3. Comparison of Sentence Types (20 minutes):

- Compare and contrast the types of sentences in Modern English with those of other languages, such as declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory sentences.

- Write examples of each sentence type on the board and discuss their syntactic features.

4. Comparison of Word Order (20 minutes):

- Explore the word order patterns in Modern English and compare them with those of other languages.

- Discuss the typical word order (Subject-Verb-Object) in English and variations in other languages.

- Provide examples of different word order patterns and analyze their syntactic implications.

5. Comparison of Clause Structure (15 minutes):

- Discuss the structure of clauses in Modern English, including main clauses, subordinate clauses, and relative clauses.

- Compare clause structures in English with those of other languages, focusing on differences in subordination and relative clause formation.

- Provide examples of complex sentences and analyze their clause structure.

6. Practice Exercises (15 minutes):

- Distribute worksheets or exercises with syntactic analysis activities in English and other languages.

- Encourage students to identify sentence types, word order patterns, and clause structures in the provided sentences.

- Allow time for students to work individually or in pairs, and then review the answers as a class.

7. Reflection and Discussion (10 minutes):

- Facilitate a discussion on the comparative analysis of syntactic systems in Modern English.
- Encourage students to share their observations, insights, and questions about syntactic structures and patterns.
- Address any misconceptions or points of confusion raised during the discussion.

8. Conclusion (5 minutes):

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson about the syntactic systems of Modern English.
- Emphasize the importance of understanding syntactic differences for language comprehension and communication.

Comparative analysis of the syntactic systems of Modern English involves examining the structural and functional aspects of English syntax across different varieties or periods of the language. Here, we'll compare the syntactic features of Modern English with earlier stages such as Early Modern English (16th-17th century) and Middle English (11th-15th century), focusing on key aspects like word order, sentence structure, and grammatical constructions.

1. Word Order:

- Modern English typically follows a Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) word order in declarative sentences, as in "The cat (subject) chased (verb) the mouse (object)."
- Early Modern English had a similar SVO word order but exhibited more flexibility, allowing for variations like object-fronting or subject-verb inversion for emphasis or stylistic reasons.
- Middle English had a more flexible word order compared to Modern English, often following a Subject-Object-Verb (SOV) or Verb-Subject-Object (VSO) order, influenced by its Germanic roots.

2. Sentence Structure:

- Modern English employs a relatively fixed sentence structure with clear subject-verb-object relationships.
- Early Modern English introduced more complex sentence structures, including the use of subordinate clauses and participial phrases, contributing to longer and more intricate sentences.
- Middle English had a more fluid sentence structure with extensive use of inflectional endings and case markings to indicate grammatical relations, allowing for more variation in word order and sentence structure.

3. Grammatical Constructions:

- Modern English relies on auxiliary verbs and word order to convey grammatical information such as tense, aspect, and mood.
- Early Modern English saw the development of standardized verb conjugations and the emergence of progressive and perfect tenses.
- Middle English featured a rich system of inflectional morphology, including noun declensions, verb conjugations, and case markings, which gradually simplified in the transition to Modern English.

4. Syntactic Complexity:

- Modern English tends to exhibit less syntactic complexity compared to earlier stages, with shorter sentences and simpler clause structures.
- Early Modern English witnessed a peak in syntactic complexity, characterized by the use of elaborate syntactic constructions, extensive subordination, and nominalization.
- Middle English displayed a wide range of syntactic constructions, influenced by both Germanic and Romance languages, with variable word order and extensive use of inflectional morphology.

5. Influence of Contact Languages:

- Modern English has been influenced by contact with other languages, especially through borrowings and calques from languages like Latin, French, and Spanish, impacting its syntactic structures.

- Early Modern English experienced significant influence from Latin and classical rhetoric, leading to the adoption of Latin syntax and stylistic conventions in written discourse.

- Middle English underwent profound changes due to contact with Old Norse and Norman French, resulting in lexical borrowings and syntactic innovations.

In summary, while Modern English shares many syntactic features with earlier stages, it also exhibits distinct characteristics influenced by historical, social, and linguistic factors. Understanding the comparative analysis of syntactic systems helps illuminate the evolution of English syntax over time.

ACTIVITIES

1. Word Order Identification: Provide sentences in various word orders (SVO, SOV, VSO) and ask students to identify the word order used in each sentence. For example:

- The dog chased the cat. (SVO)
- Chased the cat the dog. (SOV)
- Chased the dog the cat. (VSO)

2. Sentence Structure Analysis: Give students sentences of varying complexity and ask them to analyze the sentence structure, identifying the main clause, subordinate clauses, and any participial phrases. For example:

- After the rain stopped, the sun came out, and the birds began to sing.
- Main clause: The sun came out
- Subordinate clause: After the rain stopped
- Participial phrase: beginning with "singing"

3. Tense and Aspect Identification: Provide sentences with different tenses and aspects and ask students to identify the tense and aspect of each verb. For example:

- She has been studying for hours. (Present perfect progressive)
- They will have arrived by now. (Future perfect)
- He sang in the choir when he was younger. (Past simple)

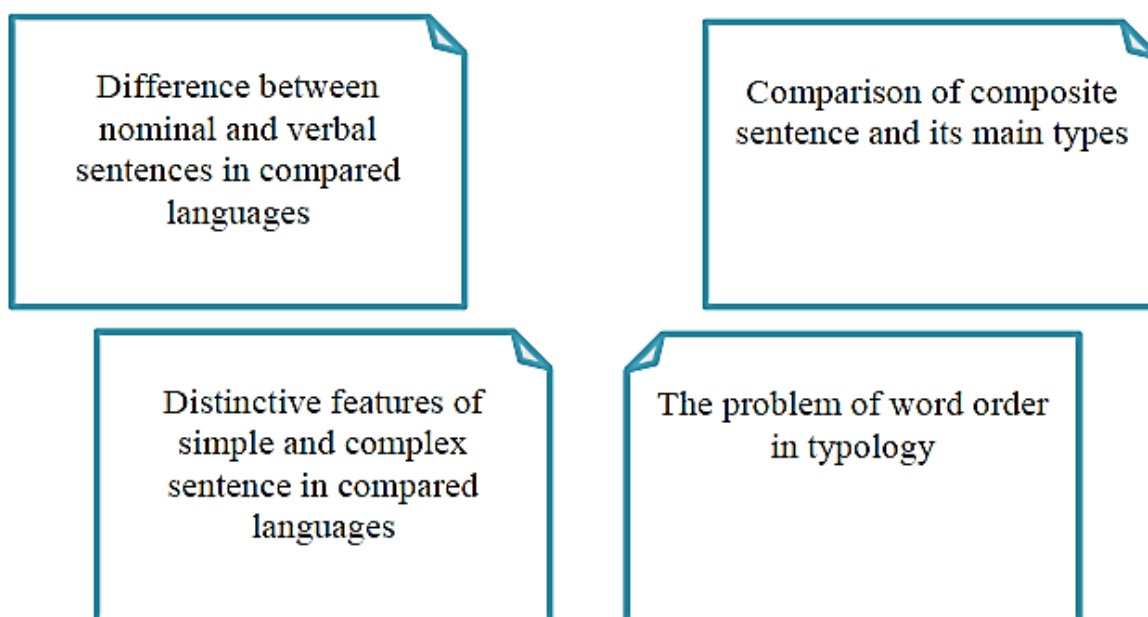
4. Syntactic Complexity Comparison: Give pairs of sentences, one from Modern English and one from Middle or Early Modern English, and ask students to compare the syntactic complexity of each pair, identifying differences in sentence structure, length, and complexity. For example:

- Modern English: The cat chased the mouse. Middle English: þe catte chacede þe mous.
- Modern English: After the rain stopped, the sun came out. Middle English: After þe reyn stope, þe sonne cam oute.

5. Influence of Contact Languages: Present sentences containing loanwords or syntactic structures influenced by contact languages, and ask students to identify the foreign influence. For example:

- The restaurant served hors d'oeuvres before the main course. (French loanword)
- He was given carte blanche to make decisions. (French loanword)
- In media res, the story begins. (Latin loanphrase)

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



Homework Assignment: Comparative Analysis of Syntactic Systems

Task 1: Sentence Identification

1. Identify five sentences in Modern English and five sentences in another language (e.g., Spanish, French, German).
2. Analyze the syntactic structures of each sentence, including sentence types (declarative, interrogative, imperative, exclamatory), word order, and clause structures.
3. Write a brief description for each sentence, highlighting its syntactic features and any differences observed between the two languages.

Task 2: Sentence Transformation Exercise

1. Choose three sentences from Modern English and rewrite them in the form of different sentence types (e.g., declarative to interrogative, affirmative to negative).
2. Translate the transformed sentences into another language, maintaining the same syntactic structures and word order.
3. Compare the original sentences with their transformed versions and note any changes in meaning or syntactic features.

Task 3: Syntactic Analysis

1. Select two complex sentences from Modern English and two from another language.
2. Analyze the syntactic structures of each sentence, including main clauses, subordinate clauses, and relative clauses.
3. Provide a breakdown of the clause structures and identify any differences in subordination patterns between the two languages.

Task 4: Reflective Essay

1. Write a reflective essay discussing the comparative analysis of syntactic systems in Modern English and another language.
2. Reflect on the similarities and differences observed in sentence types, word order, and clause structures.
3. Consider the implications of syntactic differences for language learning, translation, and cross-cultural communication.

Submission Instructions:

- Submit your completed homework assignment by [insert submission deadline].
- Ensure that your work is neatly organized, accurately completed, and written in clear and grammatically correct language.
- If you have any questions or require clarification on the homework task, feel free to reach out to [insert contact information].

THEME 34. TYPOLOGY OF SUPER SEGMENTAL MEANS OF MODERN ENGLISH

Objective: Students will learn about the suprasegmental features of Modern English, including stress, intonation, and rhythm. They will analyze how these features contribute to meaning and communication in spoken English.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers
- Handouts with examples of suprasegmental features in English
- Audio recordings of spoken English with varied suprasegmental features (optional)
- Exercises and worksheets for practice

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Greet the students and introduce the topic of the lesson: typology of suprasegmental features in Modern English.
- Explain the concept of suprasegmental features and their importance in spoken language.

2. Explanation of Suprasegmental Features (15 minutes):

- Define suprasegmental features as aspects of speech that extend over more than one segment, such as stress, intonation, and rhythm.
- Discuss the role of stress in English, including its placement in words and sentences and its impact on meaning and emphasis.

- Provide examples of stress patterns in English words and sentences.

3. Analysis of Intonation (20 minutes):

- Explain intonation as the variation in pitch or melody in spoken language, used to convey grammatical and pragmatic meaning.

- Discuss rising and falling intonation patterns in English, and their functions in signaling questions, statements, and emotions.

- Play audio recordings of English sentences with varied intonation patterns and ask students to identify the intended meaning.

4. Exploration of Rhythm (20 minutes):

- Define rhythm as the pattern of stressed and unstressed syllables in spoken language, contributing to fluency and naturalness.

- Discuss different rhythmic patterns in English, such as stress-timed and syllable-timed rhythms, and their implications for speech production.

- Provide examples of rhythmic patterns in English sentences and practice speaking them aloud with correct stress and rhythm.

5. Practice Exercises (15 minutes):

- Distribute worksheets or exercises with practice activities focusing on stress, intonation, and rhythm in English.

- Encourage students to mark stress patterns, identify intonation contours, and practice speaking sentences with appropriate rhythm.

- Allow time for students to work individually or in pairs, and then review the answers as a class.

6. Discussion and Analysis (10 minutes):

- Facilitate a discussion on the role of suprasegmental features in communication and meaning in English.

- Encourage students to share their observations and experiences with stress, intonation, and rhythm in spoken English.

- Discuss how awareness of suprasegmental features can improve listening comprehension and spoken communication skills.

7. Conclusion (5 minutes):

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson about suprasegmental features in Modern English.
- Emphasize the importance of mastering stress, intonation, and rhythm for effective spoken communication.

The suprasegmental features of language, also known as prosody, refer to elements such as stress, intonation, rhythm, and pitch that extend over more than one segment or individual sound in speech. In Modern English, these suprasegmental features play crucial roles in conveying meaning, mood, and emphasis. Here's a typology of some of the key suprasegmental means in Modern English:

1. Stress Patterns:

- English is a stress-timed language, meaning that stressed syllables occur at regular intervals, and the time between stressed syllables tends to be fairly constant, regardless of the number of unstressed syllables in between.
- Stress patterns can distinguish between nouns and verbs (e.g., 'RE-cord' (noun) vs. 're-CORD' (verb)).
- Stress also plays a role in distinguishing between compound words or phrases and their constituent parts (e.g., 'blackboard' vs. 'black board').

2. Intonation:

- Intonation refers to the variation in pitch across a stretch of speech.
- Rising intonation is often used in English to indicate questions ('Is it raining?') or uncertainty ('Maybe?').
- Falling intonation typically marks the end of a statement or declarative sentence ('It is raining.').

3. Pitch:

- Pitch refers to the perceived frequency of sound vibrations and can convey various aspects of meaning and emotion.
- High pitch can indicate excitement, surprise, or emphasis ('Wow!').
- Low pitch can convey seriousness, sadness, or emphasis ('Stop!').

4. Rhythm:

- English has a stress-timed rhythm, with stressed syllables occurring at regular intervals.
- Rhythm can affect the overall flow and cadence of speech, influencing how words and phrases are perceived by listeners.
- Variations in rhythm can also convey emotions, attitudes, or cultural nuances.

5. Tempo:

- Tempo refers to the speed or pace of speech.
- Faster tempo is often associated with excitement, urgency, or nervousness ('Hurry up!').
- Slower tempo can convey relaxation, contemplation, or emphasis ('Let me think...').

6. Pauses:

- Pauses play a crucial role in shaping the rhythm and structure of speech.
- Short pauses can indicate hesitation, clarification, or emphasis ('I'm not sure, but...').
- Longer pauses can signal a change in topic, allow for turn-taking in conversation, or create dramatic effect.

7. Voice Quality:

- Voice quality refers to the characteristic sound of an individual's voice and can convey emotions, attitudes, or social characteristics.
- Variations in voice quality, such as breathiness, creakiness, or nasality, can add nuance and expressiveness to speech.

Understanding and effectively utilizing these suprasegmental means is essential for effective communication in spoken English, as they contribute significantly to the richness and expressiveness of the language.

ACTIVITIES

1. True or False: In English, stress-timing means that syllables are pronounced with equal duration.
2. True or False: Rising intonation is typically used at the end of statements in English.
3. True or False: Pitch variation in speech cannot convey emotions or attitudes.
4. True or False: Tempo refers to the perceived frequency of sound vibrations.
5. True or False: Pauses in speech do not affect the overall rhythm and structure of speech.
6. True or False: Voice quality, such as breathiness or nasality, does not play a role in spoken English.
7. True or False: English is a syllable-timed language, meaning that each syllable is pronounced with equal stress and duration.

Homework Assignment: Typology of Suprasegmental Features in Modern English

Task 1: Stress Analysis

1. Choose five English words with varying syllable structures (e.g., monosyllabic, disyllabic, polysyllabic).
2. Analyze the stress patterns of each word, indicating which syllable is stressed and whether it follows the rules of stress placement in English.
3. Provide examples of sentences containing the analyzed words and explain how stress affects the meaning and emphasis of each sentence.

Task 2: Intonation Exercise

1. Transcribe three English sentences, each with a different intonation pattern (e.g., rising, falling, rising-falling).
2. Describe the intended meaning or context conveyed by each intonation pattern.
3. Practice reading the transcribed sentences aloud with the appropriate intonation contours to convey the intended meanings.

Task 3: Rhythm Analysis

1. Listen to audio recordings of three English sentences with different rhythmic patterns (e.g., stress-timed, syllable-timed).
2. Identify and mark the stressed and unstressed syllables in each sentence.
3. Reflect on the rhythmic patterns observed and their implications for spoken fluency and naturalness in English.

Task 4: Application Exercise

1. Record yourself reading a short passage or paragraph in English, paying attention to stress, intonation, and rhythm.
2. Listen to the recording and evaluate your performance, noting any areas where you can improve your suprasegmental features.
3. Write a brief reflection on the experience, discussing the challenges and strategies for improving your spoken English proficiency.

Submission Instructions:

- Submit your completed homework assignment by [insert submission deadline].
- Ensure that your work is neatly organized, accurately completed, and written in clear and grammatically correct language.

THEME 35. METHODS OF COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY AND NOTIONS OF A TYPE OF A LANGUAGE AND A TYPE IN A LANGUAGES

Objective: Students will explore methods used in comparative typology to analyze and classify languages, focusing on the notions of language type and language typology. They will learn about different approaches to comparing languages and identifying typological patterns.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers
- Handouts with examples of language typology methods
- Exercises and worksheets for practice

- Audio recordings of language samples (optional)

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Greet the students and introduce the topic of the lesson: methods of comparative typology and notions of language type.
- Explain the importance of comparative typology in linguistics and its role in understanding language diversity and universals.
- Provide examples of language types and typological features to pique students' interest.

2. Overview of Comparative Typology (15 minutes):

- Define the concept of comparative typology and its objectives.
- Discuss the methods used in comparative typology, including structural comparison, areal typology, and genealogical comparison.
- Provide examples of each method and its application in linguistic research.

3. Notions of Language Type (20 minutes):

- Define the notion of language type and discuss different approaches to defining language types, such as isolating, agglutinating, and fusional languages.
- Explain how typological features are used to classify languages into different types.
- Provide examples of languages representing each type and discuss their typological characteristics.

4. Comparative Analysis Exercise (20 minutes):

- Divide students into small groups and assign each group a set of typological features to analyze in different languages.
- Have groups compare languages based on their assigned typological features and identify patterns or similarities.
- Encourage students to discuss their findings and share examples with the class.

5. Typological Patterns Discussion (15 minutes):

- Facilitate a class discussion on typological patterns observed in the comparative analysis exercise.

- Encourage students to identify common typological features across languages and discuss their implications for language classification and typology.

- Discuss how typological patterns can reveal language universals and language contact phenomena.

6. Practice Exercises (10 minutes):

- Distribute worksheets or exercises with practice activities focusing on identifying typological features in language samples.

- Encourage students to apply their knowledge of comparative typology to analyze language structures and patterns.

- Allow time for students to work individually or in pairs, and then review the answers as a class.

7. Conclusion (5 minutes):

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson about methods of comparative typology and notions of language type.

- Emphasize the importance of understanding language diversity and typological patterns for linguistic research and language documentation.

Comparative typology is a linguistic approach that involves comparing the structural features of languages across different language families or language groups to identify common patterns, tendencies, and universals. This comparative analysis aims to uncover similarities and differences in the typological properties of languages and to understand how these properties are distributed and organized cross-linguistically.

Here are some methods of comparative typology and notions related to types of languages and language types:

1. Language Typology:

- Language typology classifies languages based on their structural properties, such as word order, case marking, phonological systems, and morphological complexity.

- Typological classifications include categories like isolating languages (with little to no morphology), agglutinative languages (with morphemes added in a linear fashion), fusional languages

(with morphemes expressing multiple functions), and polysynthetic languages (with highly complex word forms).

- Comparative typologists analyze these typological categories across languages to identify recurrent patterns and tendencies.

2. Comparative Method:

- The comparative method is a fundamental tool in historical linguistics used to establish genetic relationships between languages and reconstruct their common ancestor (proto-language).

- By comparing cognates (words with common etymological origins) across related languages, linguists can infer sound changes and systematic correspondences, enabling the reconstruction of the phonological, morphological, and lexical features of proto-languages.

- The comparative method allows researchers to trace the historical development of languages and uncover their shared linguistic heritage.

3. Language Universals:

- Language universals are linguistic features or patterns that are found across a wide range of languages, often regardless of their genetic or geographical relationships.

- Universals can include tendencies such as the presence of nouns and verbs, the distinction between consonants and vowels, or the existence of subject-object-verb (SOV) word order.

- Comparative typologists investigate language universals to identify fundamental properties of human language and to understand the constraints and possibilities of linguistic structure.

4. Language Types:

- Language types refer to broad categories or groupings of languages based on shared structural characteristics.

- For example, English is classified as an SVO (subject-verb-object) language typologically, indicating its basic word order pattern in declarative sentences.

- Other language types include SOV (subject-object-verb), VSO (verb-subject-object), and VOS (verb-object-subject) languages, among others, based on their predominant word order patterns.

- Comparative typologists investigate language types to understand the distribution of linguistic features and to explore the diversity of structural organization across languages.

In summary, comparative typology involves the systematic comparison of languages to uncover typological patterns, establish genetic relationships, identify language universals, and classify languages into different types based on their structural properties. These methods and notions contribute to our understanding of the diversity and universality of human language.

ACTIVITIES

Match the Term with its Definition:

<i>Isolating language</i>	A. Language type characterized by the presence of many affixes that each express a single grammatical function.
<i>Agglutinative language</i>	B. Linguistic approach involving comparing the structural features of languages across different language families or language groups to identify common patterns and tendencies.
<i>Fusional language</i>	C. Broad categories or groupings of languages based on shared structural characteristics
<i>Polysynthetic language</i>	D. Linguistic feature or pattern found across a wide range of languages, often regardless of their genetic or geographical relationships.
<i>Comparative typology</i>	E. Language type characterized by minimal morphology and a reliance on word order and context to convey grammatical relationships.

► Activities for self-improvement

Exercise#1. Complete the text with the right word from a box.

Linguaculturology	Cognitive science	phenomenon	mechanism	of transformation
-------------------	-------------------	------------	-----------	-------------------

Cognitive linguistics investigates language as _____ and codification of it. The aim of this linguistics covers the cognition of the world from one's point of view and ways of appearing of receiving processes, categorization, and classification of it. The term of "Cognitive science" includes learning processes jointly, receiving them and reworking, saving and using, organizing the structure of knowledge and collection, furthermore, it arranges collection of a certain scientific thought which is joint for forming the mental activity of these structures. _____ is closely connected with mathematics, logic, philosophy, anthropology and linguistics. However, _____ is a complex scientific science direction appeared in the basis of inter reaction of linguistics and culturology. This direction investigates interconnection between culture and language, and researches the language as a _____ of culture. It shows the observation of the world in the certain view by the cultural prism and by a certain nation's mind and culture.

Homework Assignment: Methods of Comparative Typology and Notions of Language Type

Task 1: Comparative Typology Research

1. Choose two languages from different language families.
2. Research and identify typological features that distinguish these languages, focusing on phonological, morphological, syntactic, and lexical aspects.
3. Write a comparative analysis highlighting the typological differences and similarities between the selected languages.

Task 2: Language Typology Worksheet

1. Complete a language typology worksheet, categorizing languages into different types based on their typological features (isolating, agglutinating, fusional, etc.).
2. Provide examples of languages representing each type and describe their typological characteristics.

3. Reflect on the diversity of language types and their implications for linguistic research and language classification.

Task 3: Typological Patterns Essay

1. Write an essay discussing typological patterns observed in a specific language family or geographical area.

2. Analyze common typological features shared among languages within the chosen group and their significance for understanding language relationships and language evolution.

3. Provide examples and evidence to support your analysis, drawing from linguistic literature and research.

Task 4: Comparative Analysis Exercise

1. Analyze a set of language samples provided by your instructor, focusing on phonological, morphological, and syntactic structures.

2. Identify typological patterns and differences between the languages, noting any unique features or characteristics.

3. Write a brief report summarizing your findings and observations from the comparative analysis exercise.

Submission Instructions:

- Submit your completed homework assignment by [insert submission deadline].

- Ensure that your work is neatly organized, accurately completed, and written in clear and grammatically correct language.

THEME 36. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF VOWEL SYSTEMS OF MODERN ENGLISH, UZBEK AND RUSSIAN

Objective: Students will compare and analyze the vowel systems of Modern English, Uzbek, and Russian. They will identify similarities and differences in vowel phonemes, phonetic realizations, and distribution patterns in the three languages.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers
- Handouts with vowel charts for English, Uzbek, and Russian

- Audio recordings of vowel sounds in each language (optional)
- Exercises and worksheets for practice

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Greet the students and introduce the topic of the lesson: comparative analysis of vowel systems in Modern English, Uzbek, and Russian.

- Explain the importance of vowels in language and their role in distinguishing words and conveying meaning.

2. Explanation of Vowel Systems (15 minutes):

- Define vowel systems as the set of vowel sounds used in a language, including their phonetic realizations and distribution patterns.

- Discuss the concept of vowel phonemes and the differences between phonemes and allophones.

- Provide examples of vowel sounds in English, Uzbek, and Russian to illustrate their phonetic variability.

3. Comparison of Vowel Inventories (20 minutes):

- Compare and contrast the vowel inventories of Modern English, Uzbek, and Russian.

- Discuss the number of vowel phonemes, their qualities (e.g., height, backness, rounding), and any unique phonetic features in each language.

- Present vowel charts for each language and highlight the differences in vowel systems.

4. Analysis of Vowel Distribution (20 minutes):

- Analyze the distribution patterns of vowel sounds in words and syllables in English, Uzbek, and Russian.

- Discuss factors such as vowel reduction, vowel harmony, and syllable structure constraints that influence vowel distribution in each language.

- Provide examples of words or syllables demonstrating vowel distribution patterns in each language.

5. Practice Exercises (15 minutes):

- Distribute worksheets or exercises with practice activities focusing on vowel sounds in English, Uzbek, and Russian.
- Encourage students to transcribe words containing various vowel sounds and identify their phonetic realizations.
- Allow time for students to work individually or in pairs, and then review the answers as a class.

6. Discussion and Analysis (10 minutes):

- Facilitate a discussion on the comparative analysis of vowel systems in the three languages.
- Encourage students to share their observations, insights, and questions about vowel phonemes and distribution patterns.
- Discuss the implications of vowel system differences for language learning and cross-linguistic communication.

7. Conclusion (5 minutes):

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson about the vowel systems of Modern English, Uzbek, and Russian.
- Emphasize the importance of understanding vowel phonology for accurate pronunciation and linguistic analysis.

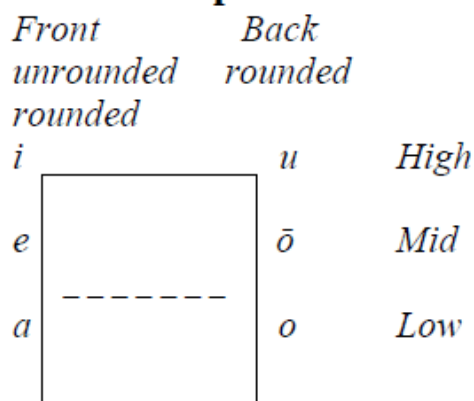
The first comparative tables of languages emerged in the 19th century, primarily with the goal of demonstrating the shared ancestry of certain modern languages within the same language family. These tables were not initially developed for pedagogical purposes, but rather to illustrate linguistic relationships.

In the early 20th century, Professor D. Jones introduced a classification system based on the principle of "cardinal vowels." This principle was proposed to address the limitations of an individualized approach to determining the relative positions of vowels in different languages. Instead, it aimed to establish a universal foundation for vowel classification and comparison in phonetics. By adopting this principle, linguists could develop a more standardized approach to analyzing vowel

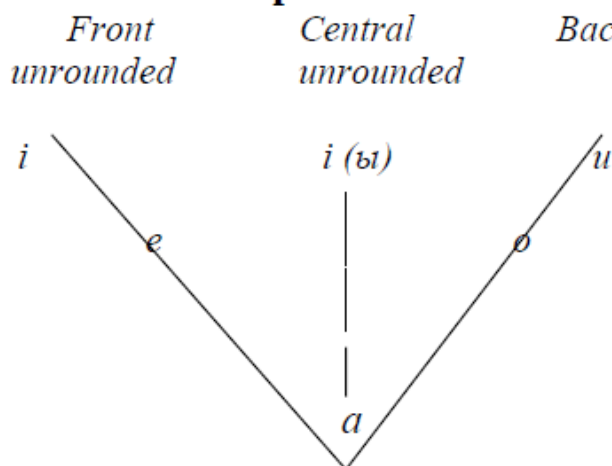
sounds across languages, facilitating clearer comparisons and classifications.

Professor A. Abduazizov asserts that, in the production of Russian and Uzbek vowels, only tongue and lip positions are essential factors. Based on the horizontal and vertical movements of the tongue and the position of the lips, Uzbek and Russian vowels can be classified as depicted in the following table:

The vowel phonemes of Uzbek



The vowel phonemes of Russian



English and Uzbek Vowel Phonemes

According to the Part of the tongue According to the Height of the tongue		Front vowels		Central (mixed) vowels		Back vowels	
		Front proper	Front retracted	Central proper	Central retracted	Back advanced	Back retracted
Close vowels	narrow	ɪ i:				y	U:
	broad		ɪ			u	
Mid (medial) vowels	narrow	e ə(e)		ə:			ʏ
	broad				ə		
Open vowels	narrow				ʌ		ɔ:
	broad	æ			a		ɑ:

The main differences and partial similarities between the articulatory features of English monophthongs, diphthongoids, and Uzbek vowels can be summarized as follows:

1. All English, Uzbek, and Russian vowel phonemes are formed orally; none of the compared languages include nasal vowel phonemes.

2. By comparing X-ray images, one can observe the positions of the tongue and lips during the articulation of English and Uzbek vowels. Establishing certain acoustic types of vowels that exist relatively in both languages, such as /i/, /e/, /a/, /ɔ/, /u/, and /ə/, facilitates easy comparison. This method allows for describing the phonemic interference between English and Uzbek vowels based on their articulatory, acoustic, and auditory properties.

3. English vowels may be categorized based on the horizontal movement of the tongue into front, front-retracted, mixed, back-advanced, and back, while Uzbek vowels are exclusively front or back.

4. In terms of tongue height and variations (narrow, broad), English vowels encompass all height levels and variations, whereas Uzbek vowels primarily fall into three levels: high (/i/, /u/), mid (/e/, /ō/), and low (/a/, /o/). However, a comparative-typological classification can be achieved by examining X-ray photos. For example, Uzbek /i/ and /u/ belong to the narrow variation of close vowels, /e/ and /ō/ to the narrow variation of mid-open vowels, and /a/ and /o/ to the broad variation of open vowels.

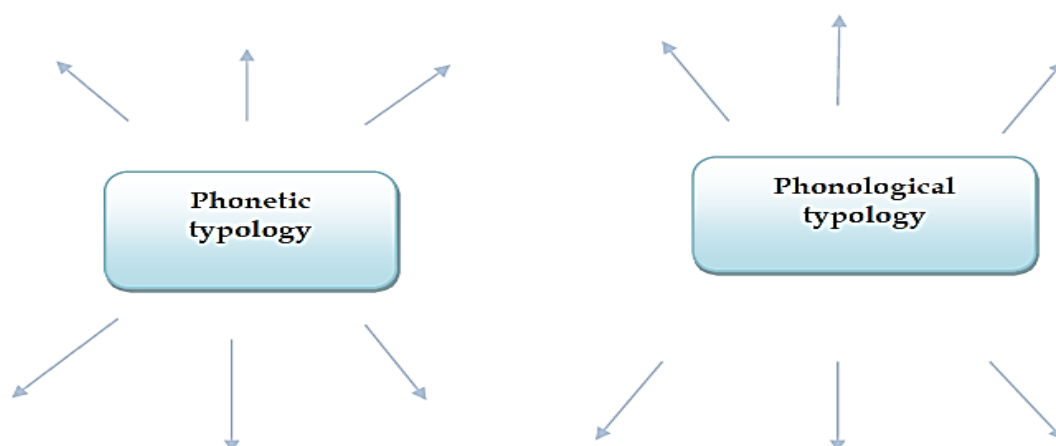
5. English back vowels, excluding /ɑ:/ and /ʌ/, are typically rounded, although they are less rounded and protruded compared to Uzbek back vowels. The pronunciation of English unrounded vowels with neutral and spread lips is significant, whereas this is not essential for Uzbek vowels, with only /e/ articulated with spread lips.

6. Additionally, besides qualitative differences, there is a distinction based on quantitative features, such as tense-lax and checked-free. Uzbek vowels typically exhibit a "middle" sound quality, neither being long nor short.

7. Uzbek vowels maintain relatively stable articulation, with no presence of diphthongoids.

ACTIVITIES

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



Exercise#2. Read and fill in the gaps:

Comparative phonetics, Segmental phonology, Specific phonetics, Suprasegmental phonology and General phonetics.

Phonetics can be divided into several types like:

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

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

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

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

4..... studies phonemes realized in avarious speech sound. So it may be called phonemics.

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

Homework Assignment: Comparative Analysis of Vowel Systems

Task 1: Vowel Inventory Comparison

1. Compare the vowel inventories of Modern English, Uzbek, and Russian.
2. Create a chart or table listing the vowel phonemes for each language, including their phonetic realizations and any unique features.
3. Identify similarities and differences in vowel systems between the three languages, noting any patterns or trends.

Task 2: Vowel Distribution Analysis

1. Analyze the distribution patterns of vowel sounds in words and syllables in English, Uzbek, and Russian.
2. Choose three words in each language and transcribe their vowel sounds, indicating their positions in stressed and unstressed syllables.
3. Discuss any factors influencing vowel distribution in each language, such as vowel reduction, vowel harmony, or syllable structure constraints.

Task 3: Phonetic Transcription Exercise

1. Transcribe five words from each language phonetically, focusing on accurately representing their vowel sounds.
2. Pay attention to any phonetic differences or nuances in vowel pronunciation between the languages.
3. Compare the phonetic transcriptions and identify any similarities or differences in vowel realization across the languages.

Task 4: Reflection Essay

1. Write a reflective essay discussing the comparative analysis of vowel systems in Modern English, Uzbek, and Russian.
2. Reflect on the similarities and differences observed in vowel inventories, distribution patterns, and phonetic realizations.
3. Consider the implications of vowel system differences for language learning, pronunciation, and cross-linguistic communication.

Submission Instructions:

- Submit your completed homework assignment by [insert submission deadline].

- Ensure that your work is neatly organized, accurately completed, and written in clear and grammatically correct language.

THEME 37. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF CONSONANT SYSTEMS OF MODERN ENGLISH, UZBEK AND RUSSIAN

Objective: Students will compare and analyze the consonant systems of Modern English, Uzbek, and Russian. They will identify similarities and differences in consonant phonemes, phonetic realizations, and distribution patterns in the three languages.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers
- Handouts with consonant charts for English, Uzbek, and Russian
- Audio recordings of consonant sounds in each language (optional)

- Exercises and worksheets for practice

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Greet the students and introduce the topic of the lesson: comparative analysis of consonant systems in Modern English, Uzbek, and Russian.

- Explain the importance of consonants in language and their role in distinguishing words and conveying meaning.

2. Explanation of Consonant Systems (15 minutes):

- Define consonant systems as the set of consonant sounds used in a language, including their phonetic realizations and distribution patterns.

- Discuss the concept of consonant phonemes and the differences between phonemes and allophones.

- Provide examples of consonant sounds in English, Uzbek, and Russian to illustrate their phonetic variability.

3. Comparison of Consonant Inventories (20 minutes):

- Compare and contrast the consonant inventories of Modern English, Uzbek, and Russian.

- Discuss the number of consonant phonemes, their places and manners of articulation, and any unique phonetic features in each language.

- Present consonant charts for each language and highlight the differences in consonant systems.

4. Analysis of Consonant Distribution (20 minutes):

- Analyze the distribution patterns of consonant sounds in words and syllables in English, Uzbek, and Russian.

- Discuss factors such as voicing, aspiration, and syllable structure constraints that influence consonant distribution in each language.

- Provide examples of words or syllables demonstrating consonant distribution patterns in each language.

5. Practice Exercises (15 minutes):

- Distribute worksheets or exercises with practice activities focusing on consonant sounds in English, Uzbek, and Russian.

- Encourage students to transcribe words containing various consonant sounds and identify their phonetic realizations.

- Allow time for students to work individually or in pairs, and then review the answers as a class.

6. Discussion and Analysis (10 minutes):

- Facilitate a discussion on the comparative analysis of consonant systems in the three languages.

- Encourage students to share their observations, insights, and questions about consonant phonemes and distribution patterns.

- Discuss the implications of consonant system differences for language learning and cross-linguistic communication.

7. Conclusion (5 minutes):

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson about the consonant systems of Modern English, Uzbek, and Russian.

- Emphasize the importance of understanding consonant phonology for accurate pronunciation and linguistic analysis.

According to Professor A. Abduazizov, when comparing the consonant systems of two languages, it is appropriate to start with the inventories of phonemes established in both languages.

The inventory of English consonant phonemes comprises 24 phonemes: /p/, /b/, /t/, /s/, /k/, /g/, /n/, /ŋ/, /l/, /m/, /h/, /v/, /d/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /tʃ/, /dʒ/, /w/, /r/, /j/, /θ/, /ð/, /f/, and the facultative or optional phoneme /ʌ/.

On the other hand, the inventory of Uzbek consonants consists of 23 phonemes: /p/, /b/, /f/, /v/, /s/, /z/, /t/, /d/, /sh/, /j/, /k/, /g/, /x/, /ɣ/, /q/, /h/, /n/, /l/, /r/, /j/, /tʃ/, /m/, /ŋ/.

Some English consonants, such as /θ, ð, w/, do not exist in Uzbek, while Uzbek consonants /x, ɣ, q/ are absent in English. These differences in the inventories of consonant phonemes between both languages can be organized into a single table.

Observing the table of consonants, we notice disparities in the number and articulation of certain consonants. For instance, Uzbek consonants /t, d/ are articulated more frontally, being dental and dorsal, compared to English consonants /t, d/, which have an alveolar and apical articulation. Additionally, Uzbek plosive (stop) consonants are pronounced further back than the backlingual consonants in English.

According to Professor A. Abduazizov, a comparison of the consonant systems of two languages should commence by examining the inventories of phonemes in each language.

The English consonant phoneme inventory consists of 24 phonemes: /p/, /b/, /t/, /s/, /k/, /g/, /n/, /ŋ/, /l/, /m/, /h/, /v/, /d/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /tʃ/, /dʒ/, /w/, /r/, /j/, /θ/, /ð/, /f/, and the facultative or optional phoneme /ʌ/.

In contrast, the inventory of Uzbek consonants comprises 23 phonemes: /p/, /b/, /f/, /v/, /s/, /z/, /t/, /d/, /sh/, /j/, /k/, /g/, /x/, /ɣ/, /q/, /h/, /n/, /l/, /r/, /j/, /tʃ/, /m/, /ŋ/.

Certain English consonants, such as /θ, ð, w/, are not present in Uzbek, while Uzbek consonants /x, ɣ, q/ are not found in English. These differences in consonant phoneme inventories can be summarized in a single table.

Upon examining the consonant table, disparities in the number and articulation of certain consonants become apparent. For example, Uzbek consonants /t, d/ are articulated in a more frontal position, being dental and dorsal, in contrast to English consonants /t, d/, which have an alveolar and apical articulation. Furthermore, Uzbek plosive (stop) consonants are articulated further back compared to the backlingual consonants in English.

Table of English and Uzbek Consonants

According to the active organ of speech		Labial		Lingual								Back lingual	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Glottal
According to manner of production	According to place of obstruction	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Forelingual			Central lingual			Velar					
				Inter-dental	Dental	Alveo-lar	Post al-veolar	Palato-alveolar	Palatalized		Palatal				
Consonants of complete obstruction	Of voice	Plosives	p, b П, б		Т, д	t, d					k, g К, г, к				
	Of voice	Affricates			тс(ц)			ʃ, ʤ ТШ(ч),ДЖ							
		Nasals	m М			н	п			[e]	ŋ НГ				
Consonants of incomplete obstruction	Of voice	Fricatives	[M] Ф, в	f, v [ф, в]	θ, ð	C, ɜ	S, z	ɾ Ш, ж	ʃ, ʒ	[ж]	й	X, F	h х	[ʔ]	
	Of voice	Laterals				Л	L[e]					[e]			
		Semi volves	w								J, [ju:]	[w]			
Consonants of incomplete obstruction	Of voice	Rolled (or trilled) consonants					[r] р					[R]			

ACTIVITIES

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

Differences between tone and stress languages

Segmental and suprasegmental phonology

Comparison of English and Native languages vowel phonemes

Comparison of English and Native languages consonant phonemes

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

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

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

	narrow	mid	Broad
Uzbek			
Russian			
English			

Homework Assignment: Comparative Analysis of Consonant Systems

Task 1: Consonant Inventory Comparison

1. Compare the consonant inventories of Modern English, Uzbek, and Russian.
2. Create a chart or table listing the consonant phonemes for each language, including their places and manners of articulation.
3. Identify similarities and differences in consonant systems between the three languages, noting any patterns or trends.

Task 2: Consonant Distribution Analysis

1. Analyze the distribution patterns of consonant sounds in words and syllables in English, Uzbek, and Russian.
2. Choose three words in each language and transcribe their consonant sounds, indicating their positions in initial, medial, and final positions within syllables.
3. Discuss any factors influencing consonant distribution in each language, such as voicing assimilation, syllable structure constraints, or phonotactic rules.

Task 3: Phonetic Transcription Exercise

1. Transcribe five words from each language phonetically, focusing on accurately representing their consonant sounds.
2. Pay attention to any phonetic differences or nuances in consonant pronunciation between the languages.
3. Compare the phonetic transcriptions and identify any similarities or differences in consonant realization across the languages.

Task 4: Application Exercise

1. Record yourself pronouncing a series of words containing various consonant sounds from each language.
2. Listen to the recording and evaluate your pronunciation, noting any areas where you can improve your articulation of consonant phonemes.
3. Write a brief reflection on the experience, discussing the challenges and strategies for improving your pronunciation skills in each language.

Submission Instructions:

- Submit your completed homework assignment by [insert submission deadline].
- Ensure that your work is neatly organized, accurately completed, and written in clear and grammatically correct language.

THEME 38. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF TYPOLOGICAL CATEGORIES OF WORD ORDER IN MODERN ENGLISH, UZBEK AND RUSSIAN

Objective: Students will compare and analyze the typological categories of word order in Modern English, Uzbek, and Russian. They will identify similarities and differences in word order patterns and analyze their implications for sentence structure and meaning in the three languages.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers
- Handouts with examples of word order patterns in English, Uzbek, and Russian
- Exercises and worksheets for practice
- Audio recordings of sentences in each language (optional)

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Greet the students and introduce the topic of the lesson: comparative analysis of typological categories of word order.
- Explain the importance of word order in language and its impact on sentence structure and meaning.

2. Explanation of Typological Categories (15 minutes):

- Define typological categories of word order as the patterns of arrangement of words in sentences, including subject-verb-object (SVO), subject-object-verb (SOV), and verb-subject-object (VSO).
- Discuss the different word order typologies found in languages and their implications for syntax and communication.
- Provide examples of word order patterns in English, Uzbek, and Russian to illustrate typological variations.

3. Comparison of Word Order Patterns (20 minutes):

- Compare and contrast the typical word order patterns in Modern English, Uzbek, and Russian.

- Discuss the prevalence of SVO, SOV, and VSO word orders in each language and any variations or exceptions.

- Write examples of sentences with different word order patterns on the board and discuss their meanings and syntactic structures.

4. Analysis of Sentence Structure (20 minutes):

- Analyze the syntactic structures of sentences in English, Uzbek, and Russian, focusing on the arrangement of subject, verb, and object.

- Discuss how word order affects sentence meaning and emphasis in each language.

- Provide examples of sentences with varied word order patterns and analyze their syntactic and semantic implications.

5. Practice Exercises (15 minutes):

- Distribute worksheets or exercises with practice activities focusing on word order patterns in English, Uzbek, and Russian.

- Encourage students to identify the word order typology of each sentence and analyze its syntactic structure.

- Allow time for students to work individually or in pairs, and then review the answers as a class.

6. Discussion and Analysis (10 minutes):

- Facilitate a discussion on the comparative analysis of typological categories of word order in the three languages.

- Encourage students to share their observations, insights, and questions about word order patterns and their syntactic functions.

- Discuss the implications of word order differences for language learning and cross-linguistic communication.

7. Conclusion (5 minutes):

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson about typological categories of word order in Modern English, Uzbek, and Russian.

- Emphasize the importance of understanding word order for sentence construction and interpretation in different languages.

Comparative analysis of typological categories of word order in Modern English, Uzbek, and Russian reveals interesting differences and similarities among these languages. Here's a breakdown of their typological categories:

1. **Modern English:**

- **Basic Word Order:** Subject-Verb-Object (SVO)
- **Modifiers:** Typically precede the noun they modify (e.g., "the big house").
- **Adpositions:** Prepositions (e.g., "in the house") are used to indicate relationships between nouns and other elements in a sentence.
- **Subordinate Clauses:** Generally follow the main clause (e.g., "I know that he is coming").

2. **Uzbek:**

- **Basic Word Order:** Subject-Object-Verb (SOV)
- **Modifiers:** Follow the noun they modify (e.g., "ko'ylak yirik" meaning "big house").
- **Adpositions:** Postpositions (e.g., "uyda" meaning "in the house") are used to indicate relationships between nouns and other elements in a sentence.
- **Subordinate Clauses:** Typically precede the main clause (e.g., "He is coming, I know").

3. **Russian:**

- **Basic Word Order:** Subject-Verb-Object (SVO), but flexible due to rich inflectional system.
- **Modifiers:** Generally precede the noun they modify (e.g., "bolshoj dom" meaning "big house").
- **Adpositions:** Both prepositions (e.g., "в доме" meaning "in the house") and postpositions are used in Russian.
- **Subordinate Clauses:** Usually follow the main clause (e.g., "Я знаю, что он идет" meaning "I know that he is coming").

Comparative Analysis:

- **Word Order:** English exhibits a fixed SVO word order, while Uzbek and Russian both have SOV as their basic word order. However, Russian's word order is more flexible due to its inflectional system.

- **Modifiers:** In English, modifiers typically precede the noun, whereas in Uzbek, they follow the noun. Russian is similar to English in this aspect, with modifiers usually preceding the noun.

- **Adpositions:** English and Russian use prepositions, whereas Uzbek uses postpositions. Russian employs both prepositions and postpositions.

- **Subordinate Clauses:** English and Russian generally have subordinate clauses following the main clause, while Uzbek typically places subordinate clauses before the main clause.

Conclusion:

While Modern English, Uzbek, and Russian belong to different language families and exhibit distinct typological features, they also share some similarities, such as the use of prepositions/postpositions and the placement of modifiers. Understanding these typological categories helps elucidate the structural differences and commonalities among these languages.

ACTIVITIES

Exercise 1: Word Order Identification

Instructions: For each sentence, identify the basic word order (SVO, SOV) and the language it belongs to (Modern English, Uzbek, or Russian).

1. The cat chased the mouse.
2. Qo'ylak katta.
3. Я знаю, что он придет.

Exercise 2: Modifier Placement

Instructions: Determine whether the modifiers precede or follow the noun they modify in each language (English, Uzbek, or Russian).

1. Big house
2. Уйда кичик китоблар бор.
3. Красивая девушка

Exercise 3: Adposition Usage

Instructions: Identify whether the adpositions are prepositions or postpositions, and match them with their respective languages.

1. In the house
2. Биндамида ёзаман
3. на столе

Exercise 4: Subordinate Clause Positioning

Instructions: Determine the position of the subordinate clause in each sentence and match it with the correct language.

1. He knows that she is coming.
2. Мен сизнинг келгангизни биламан.
3. Я думаю, что он забыл.

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

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

Homework Assignment: Comparative Analysis of Typological Categories of Word Order

Task 1: Sentence Analysis

1. Identify five sentences in Modern English, five in Uzbek, and five in Russian.
2. Analyze the word order typology of each sentence, identifying whether it follows the SVO, SOV, or VSO pattern.

3. Write a brief explanation for each sentence, discussing its word order typology and any syntactic or semantic implications.

Task 2: Translation Exercise

1. Translate three sentences from Modern English to Uzbek and three from Modern English to Russian.

2. Pay attention to maintaining the correct word order typology in the translation.

3. Compare the translated sentences to the original sentences and note any differences in word order between the languages.

Task 3: Sentence Construction

1. Write five sentences in Modern English, five in Uzbek, and five in Russian.

2. Experiment with different word order typologies, including SVO, SOV, and VSO patterns.

3. Include a variety of subjects, verbs, and objects to demonstrate your understanding of word order and sentence construction.

Task 4: Reflective Essay

1. Write a reflective essay discussing the comparative analysis of typological categories of word order in Modern English, Uzbek, and Russian.

2. Reflect on the similarities and differences observed in word order patterns and their implications for sentence structure and communication.

3. Consider how understanding word order variations enhances your understanding of syntax and facilitates cross-linguistic communication.

Submission Instructions:

- Submit your completed homework assignment by [insert submission deadline].

- Ensure that your work is neatly organized, accurately completed, and written in clear and grammatically correct language.

THEME 39. THE GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES OF MOOD ENGLISH, UZBEK AND RUSSIAN

Objective: Students will learn about the grammatical category of mood in languages, focusing on Modern English, Uzbek, and Russian. They will explore the different moods and their functions in sentence construction and communication.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers
- Handouts with examples of mood categories in English, Uzbek, and Russian
- Exercises and worksheets for practice
- Audio recordings of sentences in each language (optional)

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Greet the students and introduce the topic of the lesson: the grammatical category of mood in languages.
- Explain the concept of mood as a grammatical category that indicates the speaker's attitude or the factualness of a statement.
- Provide examples of moods in English, such as indicative, imperative, and subjunctive.

2. Explanation of Mood Categories (15 minutes):

- Define the mood categories found in languages, including indicative, imperative, subjunctive, and conditional.
- Discuss the functions and usage of each mood category in sentence construction and communication.
- Provide examples of mood categories in English, Uzbek, and Russian to illustrate their usage.

3. Comparison of Mood Categories (20 minutes):

- Compare and contrast the mood categories in Modern English, Uzbek, and Russian.

- Discuss how each language expresses mood through different grammatical constructions and verb forms.

- Write examples of sentences with different mood categories on the board and discuss their meanings and syntactic structures.

4. Analysis of Sentence Structure (20 minutes):

- Analyze the syntactic structures of sentences in English, Uzbek, and Russian, focusing on the expression of mood.

- Discuss how mood affects sentence meaning and pragmatics in each language.

- Provide examples of sentences with varied mood categories and analyze their syntactic and semantic implications.

5. Practice Exercises (15 minutes):

- Distribute worksheets or exercises with practice activities focusing on mood categories in English, Uzbek, and Russian.

- Encourage students to identify the mood category of each sentence and analyze its syntactic structure.

- Allow time for students to work individually or in pairs, and then review the answers as a class.

6. Discussion and Analysis (10 minutes):

- Facilitate a discussion on the comparative analysis of mood categories in the three languages.

- Encourage students to share their observations, insights, and questions about mood usage and their syntactic functions.

- Discuss the implications of mood category differences for language learning and cross-linguistic communication.

7. Conclusion (5 minutes):

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson about the grammatical categories of mood in English, Uzbek, and Russian.

- Emphasize the importance of understanding mood for expressing attitudes, conveying information, and interpreting meaning in different languages.

The grammatical category of mood refers to the speaker's attitude toward the action expressed by the verb. In English, Uzbek, and Russian, mood is expressed through various forms and constructions. Let's explore the grammatical categories of mood in each of these languages:

1. English:

In English, the primary grammatical categories of mood include:

1. **Indicative Mood:** Used to make statements or ask questions about factual events or states.

- Example: "She is reading a book."
- Example: "Are you coming to the party?"

2. **Imperative Mood:** Used to give commands or make requests.

- Example: "Close the door."
- Example: "Please sit down."

3. **Subjunctive Mood:** Used to express wishes, hypothetical situations, or unreal conditions. The subjunctive mood is often indicated by specific verb forms, such as the base form of the verb (without "to") for present subjunctive and "were" for past subjunctive.

- Example (Present Subjunctive): "It's important that she be here on time."
- Example (Past Subjunctive): "If I were you, I would apologize."

2. Uzbek:

In Uzbek, the grammatical categories of mood are expressed in a similar manner:

1. **Indicative Mood:** Used for statements about real actions or states.

- Example: "U kitobni o'qidi." (He is reading the book.)

2. **Imperative Mood:** Used for commands or requests.

- Example: "Kitobni o'q!" (Read the book!)

3. **Potential Mood:** Used to express possibility or permission.

- Example: "U yurishi mumkin." (He may walk.)

4. **Optative Mood:** Used to express wishes or desires.

- Example: "Ishlar yaxshi bo'lsin!" (Let things go well!)

3. Russian:

In Russian, mood is also expressed through different grammatical forms and constructions:

1. **Indicative Mood:** Used for statements of fact or reality.

- Example: "Она читает книгу." (She is reading a book.)

2. **Imperative Mood:** Used for commands, requests, or prohibitions.

- Example: "Прочитай эту книгу." (Read this book.)

3. **Subjunctive Mood:** Used for expressing wishes, hypothetical situations, or conditions contrary to fact. Subjunctive mood in Russian is often expressed through specific verb forms and constructions.

- Example: "Если бы я был богат, я купил бы этот дом." (If I were rich, I would buy this house.)

Comparison:

- English, Uzbek, and Russian all have indicative and imperative moods for making statements and giving commands.

- Subjunctive mood in English and Russian is used for expressing hypothetical or unreal situations, while in Uzbek, potential and optative moods serve similar functions.

- Each language may have specific verb forms or constructions to convey different nuances of mood.

Understanding the grammatical categories of mood in English, Uzbek, and Russian is essential for accurate expression and interpretation of statements, commands, wishes, and hypothetical situations in each language.

ACTIVITIES

Task: Case Study - Analyzing Mood in English, Uzbek, and Russian

Introduction: You are a linguistics researcher tasked with conducting a case study on the grammatical category of mood in three different languages: English, Uzbek, and Russian. Your objective is to analyze how mood is expressed in each language, identify similarities and differences, and draw conclusions about the role of mood in linguistic expression.

Case Study Guidelines:

1. Data Collection:

Gather a corpus of texts in English, Uzbek, and Russian containing various types of sentences to analyze mood usage.

- Include a diverse range of sources, such as literature, newspapers, online articles, and conversational dialogues.

2. Data Analysis:

Identify examples of indicative, imperative, and subjunctive (or equivalent) moods in each language.

- Analyze the grammatical structures and verb forms used to express mood in different contexts.
- Pay attention to any unique features or constructions specific to each language.

3. Comparison and Contrast:

- Compare the ways mood is expressed in English, Uzbek, and Russian.
- Identify similarities and differences in the usage of indicative, imperative, and subjunctive (or equivalent) moods.
- Consider factors such as verb forms, sentence structure, and pragmatics.

4. Case Study Report:

- Prepare a comprehensive report summarizing your findings.

Include a detailed analysis of mood usage in each language, supported by examples from the collected data.

Discuss any patterns, trends, or notable features observed in the expression of mood. Provide insights into the role of mood in linguistic communication and its impact on language structure and usage.

Conclusion: Through this case study, you will gain a deeper understanding of how mood is expressed in English, Uzbek, and Russian, and how it influences language use and communication. Your analysis will contribute to the broader field of linguistics by shedding light on the grammatical category of mood across different languages.

Homework Assignment: Grammatical Categories of Mood

Task 1: Mood Identification

1. Identify five sentences in Modern English, five in Uzbek, and five in Russian.

2. Analyze the mood category of each sentence, identifying whether it is indicative, imperative, subjunctive, or conditional.

3. Write a brief explanation for each sentence, discussing its mood category and any syntactic or semantic implications.

Task 2: Translation Exercise

1. Translate three sentences from Modern English to Uzbek and three from Modern English to Russian.
2. Pay attention to maintaining the correct mood category in the translation.
3. Compare the translated sentences to the original sentences and note any differences in mood expression between the languages.

Task 3: Mood Construction

1. Write five sentences in Modern English, five in Uzbek, and five in Russian, each representing a different mood category.
2. Experiment with different grammatical constructions and verb forms to express each mood accurately.
3. Include a variety of subjects, verbs, and contexts to demonstrate your understanding of mood usage.

Task 4: Reflective Essay

1. Write a reflective essay discussing the grammatical categories of mood in Modern English, Uzbek, and Russian.
2. Reflect on the similarities and differences observed in mood expression and their implications for sentence structure and communication.
3. Consider how understanding mood categories enhances your ability to interpret and produce language in different contexts.

Submission Instructions:

- Submit your completed homework assignment by [insert submission deadline].
- Ensure that your work is neatly organized, accurately completed, and written in clear and grammatically correct language.

THEME 40. THE NOUN AND ITS GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES IN THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

Objective: Students will learn about the noun and its grammatical categories in both English and Uzbek languages. They will explore the various categories such as gender, number, case, and articles, and understand how they function in sentence construction.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers
- Handouts with examples of nouns and their grammatical categories in English and Uzbek
- Exercises and worksheets for practice
- Audio recordings of nouns being used in sentences (optional)

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Greet the students and introduce the topic of the lesson: the noun and its grammatical categories in English and Uzbek.
- Explain the importance of nouns in language and their role as the building blocks of sentences.
- Provide examples of nouns in both English and Uzbek to familiarize students with the concept.

2. Explanation of Noun Categories (15 minutes):

- Define the grammatical categories associated with nouns, including gender, number, case, and articles.
- Discuss how these categories function in both English and Uzbek languages and their role in determining noun forms and usage.
- Provide examples of nouns demonstrating each category in both languages.

3. Comparison of Noun Categories (20 minutes):

- Compare and contrast the noun categories in English and Uzbek.
- Discuss any similarities and differences in gender assignment, pluralization, case marking, and article usage between the two languages.

- Write examples of nouns with different grammatical categories on the board and discuss their forms and functions.

4. Analysis of Noun Usage (20 minutes):

- Analyze the usage of nouns in sentences in both English and Uzbek.

- Discuss how grammatical categories influence noun agreement, word order, and sentence meaning in each language.

- Provide examples of sentences containing nouns with varied grammatical categories and analyze their syntactic structures.

5. Practice Exercises (15 minutes):

- Distribute worksheets or exercises with practice activities focusing on nouns and their grammatical categories in English and Uzbek.

- Encourage students to identify and classify nouns based on their gender, number, case, and article usage.

- Allow time for students to work individually or in pairs, and then review the answers as a class.

6. Discussion and Analysis (10 minutes):

- Facilitate a discussion on the comparative analysis of noun categories in English and Uzbek.

- Encourage students to share their observations, insights, and questions about noun usage and their grammatical features.

- Discuss the implications of noun category differences for language learning and cross-linguistic communication.

7. Conclusion (5 minutes):

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson about the noun and its grammatical categories in English and Uzbek.

- Emphasize the importance of understanding noun categories for accurate sentence construction and interpretation in both languages.

A noun, derived from the Latin word "nomen" meaning "name," is a word that serves as the identifier for a specific object or group of objects. These objects can include living beings, locations, actions, qualities, states of being, or abstract ideas. Nouns constitute a fundamental grammatical category.

Nouns are not characterized solely by their meaning, as actions and states of being can also be conveyed by verbs, qualities by adjectives, and locations by adverbs. Linguistically, nouns belong to a broad and expansive part of speech, allowing them to function as the primary word in the subject of a clause, the object of a verb, or the object of a preposition.

In English, nouns are identified as words that can be accompanied by articles and attributive adjectives. Some modern authors use the term "substantive" to encompass both single-word nouns and noun phrases (multiword units), also referred to as noun equivalents. This term is also used to differentiate between a noun being the head (main word) of a noun phrase and a noun being used as a noun adjunct. For example, the noun "knee" can be described as used "substantively" in the sentence "my knee hurts," but as used "attributively" in "the patient needed knee replacement."

Nouns constitute a significant portion of both the English and Uzbek vocabularies. They can refer to various entities, including individuals (such as Albert Einstein, doctor, mother), places (such as Disneyland, England, bedroom), objects, actions, concepts, processes, and even hypothetical or imaginary phenomena.

In English, nouns possess grammatical categories such as case, number, and definiteness/indefiniteness. These categories help to determine the role of nouns within sentences and their relationships with other words.

1. **Case:** Nouns in English can be marked for case, although this is less prevalent compared to some other languages. The primary cases in English are the subjective (nominative) case and the objective (accusative) case. The subjective case is used for nouns functioning as subjects in

sentences, while the objective case is used for nouns functioning as objects.

2. **Number:** Nouns in English can be singular or plural, indicating whether they refer to one entity or multiple entities.

3. **Definiteness/Indefiniteness:** Nouns in English can be definite (referring to a specific entity) or indefinite (referring to any one of a group or class).

In Uzbek, nouns have categories of case, number, and possession. Possession refers to the relationship between the noun and something that belongs to it.

In English, nouns can fulfill various grammatical functions within sentences:

- **Subject:** Nouns can serve as the subject of a sentence, indicating the entity performing the action or being described. For example, "The cat chased the mouse."

- **Object:** Nouns can also function as objects, either direct objects (receiving the action of the verb) or indirect objects (affected by the action indirectly). For example, "She gave him a gift" (him is the indirect object).

- **Attribute:** Nouns can act as attributes, providing additional information about another noun in the sentence. For example, "The red car is mine."

- **Part of the Compound Nominal Predicate:** In certain sentence structures, nouns can form part of the compound nominal predicate, helping to describe or identify the subject further. For example, "She is a doctor."

- **Adverbial Modifier:** Nouns combined with prepositions can function as adverbial modifiers, providing information about the manner, time, place, or reason of an action or event. For example, "He went to the store," where "to the store" acts as an adverbial modifier indicating the direction of the action.

In English:

-ment	-er	-ist	-ship	-hood
management	teacher	socialist	friendship	childhood
movement	driver	labourist	membership	

In Uzbek :

-lik	-zor	-dosh	-kor	-don
bolalik	gulzor	sinf dosh	paxtakor	shamdon

In English nouns may express the functions of the subject, object, attribute, the part of the compound nominal predicate, and the nouns in combination with prepositions perform the function of the adverbial modifier in English:

1. **Dilbar** studies at the university - subject
2. I saw **Dilbar** at the university - object
3. This **gold** watch is very expensive – attribute
4. His father is a **teacher** – part of the compound nominal predicate(predicative)

5. She studies **at the University**- adverbial modifier of place

In Uzbek the nouns may express the functions of the subject, object, attribute, nominal predicate and adverbial modifier:

1. **Kamola** maktabda o'qiydi - subject

2. Men **Kamolani** maktabda ko'rdim - object

3. Onam tug'ilgan kunimda **tilla** soat sovg'a qildilar - attribute

4. Kamola **o'quvchi** - nominal predicate

5. Kamola **kutubxonada** dars tayyorlayapti - adverbial modifier of place

Nouns in English have the right hand and the left-hand combinability:

1) right - hand combinability with nouns, adjectives, articles, pronouns and numerals:

2) left - hand combinability with verbs, attributes:

1. Mother gave her daughter **a new watch** on her birthday(adjective);
The book is on the table (article); **My mother** works at school (pronoun);
Two students were absent at the lesson (numeral); My mother gave me a **gold watch** on my birthday (noun)

2. **Kamola speaks** English fluently(verb); The **boy working** in the garden is my son(attribute expressed by participle1);

ACTIVITIES

Exercise 1: Noun Identification

Instructions: Identify the nouns in the following sentences in English and Uzbek.

1. English:

- "The cat is sleeping on the mat."

2. Uzbek:

- "Uyda do'stim bilan kitob o'qiyapman."

Exercise 2: Noun Gender Recognition

Instructions: Determine the gender of the nouns provided in English and Uzbek.

1. English:

- Book
- Chair
- Teacher

2. Uzbek:

- Kitob
- Ota-onam
- Do'st

Exercise 3: Plural Formation

Instructions: Form the plural of the nouns provided in English and Uzbek.

1. English:

- Dog
- Child
- Box

2. Uzbek:

- Kitob
- Qalam
- Uy

Exercise 4: Noun Case Identification

Instructions: Identify the case of the nouns provided in Uzbek.

1. "Men do'stim bilan kitob o'qiyapman."
2. "Uyda do'stim bilan gaplashiyapman."

Exercise 5: Possessive Noun Formation

Instructions: Form the possessive form of the nouns provided in English and Uzbek.

1. English:

- Cat
- Friend
- Car

2. Uzbek:

- Qalam
- Kitob
- Xona

Exercise 6: Noun Function Recognition

Instructions: Identify the function (subject, object, etc.) of the nouns provided in English and Uzbek within the given sentences.

1. English:

- "She gave the book to her friend."

2. Uzbek:

- "U kitobni o'qidi."

Exercise 7: Translation Practice

Instructions: Translate the following sentences from English to Uzbek and vice versa, paying attention to the nouns.

1. English: "The students are studying in the classroom."
2. Uzbek: "Uyda kitob o'qiyapman."

Homework Assignment: The Noun and its Grammatical Categories

Task 1: Noun Identification

1. Identify ten nouns in Modern English and ten in Uzbek.
2. Classify each noun according to its grammatical categories, including gender (if applicable), number, case (if applicable), and article usage (if applicable).

3. Write a brief explanation for each noun, discussing its grammatical categories and any specific rules or patterns observed.

Task 2: Translation Exercise

1. Translate five English sentences into Uzbek and five Uzbek sentences into English, focusing on maintaining the correct noun forms and grammatical categories.

2. Pay attention to gender, number, case, and article usage in the translation process.

3. Compare the translated sentences to the original sentences and note any differences or challenges encountered.

Task 3: Noun Analysis

1. Analyze the usage of nouns in three English and three Uzbek sentences.

2. Identify the grammatical categories of each noun in the sentences, including gender, number, case, and article usage.

3. Discuss how these grammatical categories affect the overall structure and meaning of the sentences in each language.

Task 4: Reflective Essay

1. Write a reflective essay discussing the grammatical categories of nouns in English and Uzbek.

2. Reflect on the similarities and differences observed in noun usage and their grammatical features between the two languages.

3. Consider how understanding noun categories enhances your ability to communicate effectively in both languages and the challenges you encountered during the homework tasks.

Submission Instructions:

- Submit your completed homework assignment by [insert submission deadline].

- Ensure that your work is neatly organized, accurately completed, and written in clear and grammatically correct language.

THEME 41. THE VERB AND ITS GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES IN THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

Objective: Students will learn about the verb and its grammatical categories in both English and Uzbek languages. They will explore the various categories such as tense, aspect, mood, voice, and agreement, and understand how they function in sentence construction.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers
- Handouts with examples of verbs and their grammatical categories in English and Uzbek
- Exercises and worksheets for practice
- Audio recordings of verbs being used in sentences (optional)

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Greet the students and introduce the topic of the lesson: the verb and its grammatical categories in English and Uzbek.
- Explain the importance of verbs in language and their role as the main predicates of sentences.
- Provide examples of verbs in both English and Uzbek to familiarize students with the concept.

2. Explanation of Verb Categories (15 minutes):

- Define the grammatical categories associated with verbs, including tense, aspect, mood, voice, and agreement.
- Discuss how these categories function in both English and Uzbek languages and their role in determining verb forms and usage.
- Provide examples of verbs demonstrating each category in both languages.

3. Comparison of Verb Categories (20 minutes):

- Compare and contrast the verb categories in English and Uzbek.
- Discuss any similarities and differences in tense, aspect, mood, voice, and agreement between the two languages.

- Write examples of verbs with different grammatical categories on the board and discuss their forms and functions.

4. Analysis of Verb Usage (20 minutes):

- Analyze the usage of verbs in sentences in both English and Uzbek.

- Discuss how grammatical categories influence verb agreement, tense marking, aspectual distinctions, and voice in each language.

- Provide examples of sentences containing verbs with varied grammatical categories and analyze their syntactic structures.

5. Practice Exercises (15 minutes):

- Distribute worksheets or exercises with practice activities focusing on verbs and their grammatical categories in English and Uzbek.

- Encourage students to identify and classify verbs based on their tense, aspect, mood, voice, and agreement.

- Allow time for students to work individually or in pairs, and then review the answers as a class.

6. Discussion and Analysis (10 minutes):

- Facilitate a discussion on the comparative analysis of verb categories in English and Uzbek.

- Encourage students to share their observations, insights, and questions about verb usage and their grammatical features.

- Discuss the implications of verb category differences for language learning and cross-linguistic communication.

7. Conclusion (5 minutes):

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson about the verb and its grammatical categories in English and Uzbek.

- Emphasize the importance of understanding verb categories for accurate sentence construction and interpretation in both languages.

In English and Uzbek languages, verbs play a central role in expressing actions, states, and events. Let's explore the verb and its grammatical categories in both languages:

1. English Language:

Grammatical Categories of Verbs in English:

1. **Tense:** Verbs in English can express different tenses to indicate when an action takes place. The primary tenses in English include:

- Present tense (e.g., "I eat.")
- Past tense (e.g., "I ate.")
- Future tense (e.g., "I will eat.")

2. **Aspect:** Aspect refers to the temporal quality of the verb, indicating the nature of the action. English has two primary aspects:

- Simple aspect (e.g., "I eat.")
- Progressive aspect (e.g., "I am eating.")

3. **Mood:** Mood expresses the speaker's attitude or the certainty of the action. English has three primary moods:

- Indicative mood (e.g., "He eats.")
- Imperative mood (e.g., "Eat!")
- Subjunctive mood (e.g., "If I were you, I would go.")

4. **Voice:** Voice indicates the relationship between the subject and the action of the verb. English has two voices:

- Active voice (e.g., "The dog chased the cat.")
- Passive voice (e.g., "The cat was chased by the dog.")

2. Uzbek Language:

Grammatical Categories of Verbs in Uzbek:

1. **Tense:** Similar to English, Uzbek verbs indicate when an action occurs. However, Uzbek primarily distinguishes between two tenses:

- Present tense (e.g., "Men yemish yurayman." - I walk now.)
- Past tense (e.g., "Men yemish yurgan edim." - I walked.)

2. **Aspect:** Uzbek verbs can express aspectual distinctions, particularly between completed (perfective) and ongoing (imperfective) actions:

- Perfective aspect (e.g., "Men uyga keldim." - I came home.)
- Imperfective aspect (e.g., "Men uyda o'ynayman." - I am playing at home.)

3. **Mood:** While English has subjunctive and imperative moods, Uzbek generally lacks formal mood distinctions. However, modal verbs and particles can convey similar meanings:

- Potential mood (e.g., "Ishga keldim bo'lsam..." - If I were to come to work...)
- Imperative mood (e.g., "Qidir!" - Search!)

4. **Voice:** Uzbek also has active and passive voices, but passive constructions are less common and are usually expressed using the reflexive form of the verb:

- Active voice (e.g., "Usta ishlaydi." - The master is working.)
- Reflexive voice (e.g., "Ish olib ketildi." - The work was done (by itself).)

Comparison:

- English and Uzbek both express tense distinctions to indicate when an action occurs, but English has a more elaborate system of tense, aspect, mood, and voice.

- Uzbek verbs primarily distinguish between perfective and imperfective aspects, while English verbs also mark progressive and perfect aspects.

- While English has distinct subjunctive and imperative moods, Uzbek typically conveys similar meanings using modal verbs and particles.

- Both languages have active and passive voice constructions, but passive voice is less common in Uzbek and is often expressed through reflexive constructions.

ACTIVITIES

1. Verb Tense Identification:

Instructions: Provide sentences in English and Uzbek, and ask students to identify the tense of the verb used in each sentence.

English:

1. She is singing.
2. They will eat dinner tomorrow.
3. I have finished my homework.

Uzbek:

1. Ular yurishadi.
2. Biz kechqurun ovqat ichamiz.
3. Men darsni tugatdim.

2. Aspect Practice:

Instructions: Give sentences in English and Uzbek, and ask students to determine whether the verbs express perfective or imperfective aspect.

English:

1. She has cooked dinner.
2. They were playing soccer.
3. I will read a book.

Uzbek:

1. U kechani pishirgan.
2. Ular futbol o'ynagan.
3. Men kitob o'qishga tayyorman.

3. Mood Analysis:

Instructions: Present sentences in English and Uzbek, and have students identify the mood of the verbs (indicative, imperative, potential, etc.).

English:

1. If I were you, I would go.
2. Eat your vegetables!
3. She might come to the party.

Uzbek:

1. Agar men siz bo'lsam, bormiman.
2. Sabzavotlaringni yey.
3. U partiyaga kelishi mumkin.

4. Voice Transformation:

Instructions: Provide sentences in English and Uzbek in active voice, and ask students to rewrite them in passive voice.

English:

1. The cat chased the mouse.
2. They are building a house.
3. He will finish the work tomorrow.

Uzbek:

1. Qo'ylak mushukni urdi.
2. Ular uy qurmoqda.
3. U ertaga ishni tugatadi.

5. Translation Practice:

Instructions: Give sentences in English and ask students to translate them into Uzbek, and vice versa.

English:

1. I am studying English.
2. They have already eaten lunch.
3. She will write a letter to her friend.

Uzbek:

1. Men ingliz tilini o'rganaman.
2. Ular allaqachon tushlikni yedilar.
3. U do'stiga xat yozadi.

Homework Assignment: The Verb and its Grammatical Categories

Task 1: Verb Identification

1. Identify ten verbs in Modern English and ten in Uzbek.
2. Classify each verb according to its grammatical categories, including tense, aspect, mood, voice, and agreement.
3. Write a brief explanation for each verb, discussing its grammatical categories and any specific rules or patterns observed.

Task 2: Translation Exercise

1. Translate five English sentences into Uzbek and five Uzbek sentences into English, focusing on maintaining the correct verb forms and grammatical categories.
2. Pay attention to tense, aspect, mood, voice, and agreement in the translation process.

3. Compare the translated sentences to the original sentences and note any differences or challenges encountered.

Task 3: Verb Analysis

1. Analyze the usage of verbs in three English and three Uzbek sentences.

2. Identify the grammatical categories of each verb in the sentences, including tense, aspect, mood, voice, and agreement.

3. Discuss how these grammatical categories affect the overall structure and meaning of the sentences in each language.

Task 4: Reflective Essay

1. Write a reflective essay discussing the grammatical categories of verbs in English and Uzbek.

2. Reflect on the similarities and differences observed in verb usage and their grammatical features between the two languages.

3. Consider how understanding verb categories enhances your ability to communicate effectively in both languages and the challenges you encountered during the homework tasks.

Submission Instructions:

- Submit your completed homework assignment by [insert submission deadline].

- Ensure that your work is neatly organized, accurately completed, and written in clear and grammatically correct language.

THEME 42. THE TYPOLOGICAL CATEGORY OF PERSONALITY AND PLURALITY

Objective: Students will learn about the typological category of personality and plurality in linguistics. They will explore how languages categorize nouns based on their animacy and plurality, and understand the implications for sentence structure and meaning.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers
- Handouts with examples of nouns categorized by personality and plurality in various languages

- Exercises and worksheets for practice
- Audio recordings of sentences demonstrating personality and plurality distinctions (optional)

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Greet the students and introduce the topic of the lesson: the typological category of personality and plurality.
- Explain the concept of animacy and how languages categorize nouns based on their animacy and plurality.
- Provide examples of nouns categorized by personality and plurality in different languages to familiarize students with the concept.

2. Explanation of Typological Categories (15 minutes):

- Define the typological categories of personality and plurality in linguistics.
- Discuss how personality refers to the degree of animacy or humanness attributed to nouns, while plurality refers to the number of entities represented by a noun.
- Provide examples of nouns demonstrating different levels of personality and plurality in various languages.

3. Comparison of Personality and Plurality Categories (20 minutes):

- Compare and contrast how different languages categorize nouns based on personality and plurality.
- Discuss any similarities and differences in how languages mark animacy distinctions and pluralization.
- Write examples of nouns categorized by personality and plurality on the board and discuss their forms and functions.

4. Analysis of Sentence Structure (20 minutes):

- Analyze how personality and plurality categories affect sentence structure and meaning in different languages.
- Discuss how the choice of nouns with specific personality and plurality categories influences verb agreement, word order, and sentence interpretation.

- Provide examples of sentences containing nouns with varied personality and plurality categories and analyze their syntactic structures.

5. Practice Exercises (15 minutes):

- Distribute worksheets or exercises with practice activities focusing on personality and plurality categories in linguistics.
- Encourage students to identify and classify nouns based on their animacy and plurality, and to analyze their grammatical implications.
- Allow time for students to work individually or in pairs, and then review the answers as a class.

6. Discussion and Analysis (10 minutes):

- Facilitate a discussion on the importance of personality and plurality categories in linguistics.
- Encourage students to share their observations, insights, and questions about how these categories influence language structure and communication.
- Discuss the implications of personality and plurality distinctions for language learning and cross-linguistic communication.

7. Conclusion (5 minutes):

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson about the typological category of personality and plurality in linguistics.
- Emphasize the importance of understanding these categories for analyzing language structure and interpreting meaning in different languages.

The typological categories of personality and plurality are important linguistic features that help categorize and distinguish entities within a language. Let's explore each category and its significance:

1. Personality:

a. Singular vs. Plural:

- **Singular:** Refers to a single entity or individual.
- **Plural:** Refers to more than one entity or individual.

b. Grammatical Marking:

- In many languages, including English, nouns, pronouns, and verbs are often marked for singular or plural agreement.

- For example, in English, singular nouns typically take singular verb forms, while plural nouns take plural verb forms. Pronouns also show agreement in number with the nouns they replace.

c. Importance in Communication:

- Understanding the distinction between singular and plural is crucial for accurate communication and agreement within a sentence.

- It helps speakers convey whether they are referring to one entity or multiple entities.

2. Plurality:

a. Types of Plurality:

- **Dual:** Refers to exactly two entities.

- **Trial:** Refers to exactly three entities.

- **Paucal:** Refers to a small, but not precisely defined, number of entities.

- **Plural:** Refers to more than three entities or a non-specific number.

b. Grammatical Marking:

- Some languages have specific markers or affixes to indicate dual, trial, paucal, or plural forms.

- Other languages may use context or modifiers to convey the quantity of entities.

c. Cultural and Linguistic Variations:

- The expression of plurality can vary significantly across languages and cultures.

- Some languages have distinct forms for dual and trial, while others only distinguish between singular and plural.

- Cultural factors, such as counting systems or social norms, may influence how plurality is expressed and perceived.

d. Importance in Communication:

- Plurality is essential for expressing quantity and specifying the number of entities involved in an action or state.

- It allows speakers to provide clear and precise information about the objects, people, or concepts they are referring to.

3. Typological Variation:

- Different languages exhibit varying degrees of complexity in their systems of personality and plurality.

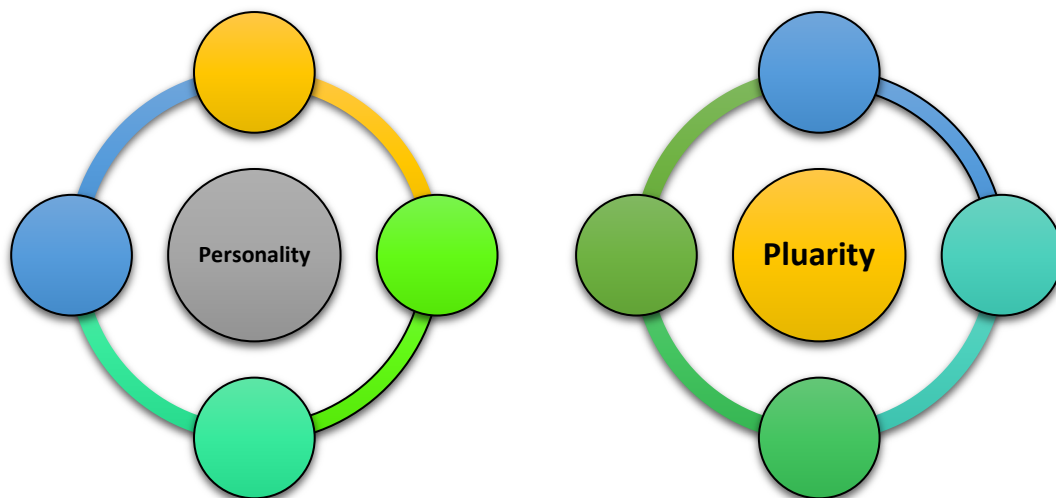
- Some languages, such as English, have relatively simple systems with singular and plural distinctions.

- Others, like Arabic or Russian, may have more elaborate systems that include dual, trial, or paucal forms in addition to singular and plural.

In summary, the typological categories of personality and plurality are fundamental aspects of language structure and play a crucial role in communication. Understanding how these categories are expressed and marked in different languages provides valuable insights into linguistic diversity and the ways in which languages encode and convey information about quantity and number.

ACTIVITIES

Make a brainstorm based on this scheme



Homework Assignment: Typological Category of Personality and Plurality

Task 1: Personality Analysis

1. Identify ten nouns in Modern English and ten in Uzbek.
2. Classify each noun based on its level of personality, categorizing them as animate or inanimate, human or non-human.
3. Write a brief explanation for each noun, discussing its personality category and any specific rules or patterns observed.

Task 2: Plurality Identification

1. Identify five sentences in Modern English and five in Uzbek.
2. Analyze the plurality of nouns in each sentence, identifying whether they are singular or plural.
3. Write a brief explanation for each sentence, discussing the plurality of nouns and any grammatical implications.

Task 3: Translation Exercise

1. Translate three sentences from Modern English to Uzbek and three from Uzbek to Modern English.
2. Pay attention to maintaining the correct personality and plurality distinctions in the translation process.
3. Compare the translated sentences to the original sentences and note any differences or challenges encountered.

Task 4: Sentence Construction

1. Write five sentences in Modern English and five in Uzbek, each containing nouns with varied personality and plurality categories.
2. Experiment with different noun combinations to demonstrate your understanding of personality and plurality distinctions.
3. Include a variety of subjects, verbs, and contexts to showcase the influence of personality and plurality on sentence structure.

Submission Instructions:

- Submit your completed homework assignment by [insert submission deadline].
- Ensure that your work is neatly organized, accurately completed, and written in clear and grammatically correct language.

THEME 43. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF WORD – BUILDING TYPES IN COMPARATIVE LANGUAGES

Objective: Students will explore the word-building processes in different languages and conduct a comparative analysis of various word-building types. They will understand how languages create new words through derivation, compounding, and other morphological processes.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers
- Handouts with examples of word-building types in different languages
- Exercises and worksheets for practice
- Audio recordings of words being formed through different processes (optional)

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Greet the students and introduce the topic of the lesson: comparative analysis of word-building types.
- Explain the importance of word-building processes in language and their role in expanding vocabulary.
- Provide examples of words formed through derivation, compounding, and other morphological processes in various languages.

2. Explanation of Word-Building Types (15 minutes):

- Define the different word-building types, including derivation, compounding, blending, clipping, and conversion.
- Discuss how each type creates new words and their specific characteristics and rules.
- Provide examples of words formed through each word-building type in different languages.

3. Comparison of Word-Building Types (20 minutes):

- Compare and contrast the word-building types in different languages.

- Discuss any similarities and differences in how languages employ derivation, compounding, and other morphological processes.

- Write examples of words formed through different word-building types on the board and discuss their structures and meanings.

4. Analysis of Word Formation (20 minutes):

- Analyze the process of word formation in different languages, focusing on the underlying morphological principles.

- Discuss how word-building types affect word meaning, pronunciation, and usage in various linguistic contexts.

- Provide examples of words demonstrating different word-building processes and analyze their morphological structures.

5. Practice Exercises (15 minutes):

- Distribute worksheets or exercises with practice activities focusing on word-building types in different languages.

- Encourage students to identify and analyze words formed through derivation, compounding, and other morphological processes.

- Allow time for students to work individually or in pairs, and then review the answers as a class.

6. Discussion and Analysis (10 minutes):

- Facilitate a discussion on the comparative analysis of word-building types in different languages.

- Encourage students to share their observations, insights, and questions about how languages create new words.

- Discuss the implications of word-building processes for language learning and cross-linguistic communication.

7. Conclusion (5 minutes):

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson about comparative analysis of word-building types.

- Emphasize the importance of understanding word formation processes for vocabulary expansion and linguistic analysis.

Comparative analysis of word-building types in comparative languages involves examining how words are formed and constructed across different languages. Word-building processes contribute to the expansion and enrichment of vocabulary within a language. Let's explore some common word-building types and their comparative analysis:

1. Affixation:

- Definition:** Affixation involves adding prefixes, suffixes, infixes, or circumfixes to base words to create new words or modify existing ones.

- Example:** In English, the prefix "un-" can be added to the base word "happy" to form "unhappy."

2. Compounding:

- Definition:** Compounding involves combining two or more separate words to create a new word with a distinct meaning.

- Example:** In German, the words "Fernsehen" (television) and "Programm" (program) are combined to form "Fernsehprogramm" (television program).

3. Conversion (Zero Derivation):

- Definition:** Conversion involves changing the grammatical category of a word without adding any affixes. It is also known as zero derivation.

- Example:** In English, the noun "book" can be converted into the verb "to book" without adding any affixes.

4. Derivation:

- Definition:** Derivation involves adding affixes to base words to create new words with different grammatical categories or meanings.

- Example:** In Russian, the noun "дом" (dom) meaning "house" can be derived into the adjective "домашний" (domashniy) meaning "domestic."

5. Clipping:

- Definition:** Clipping involves shortening a longer word to create a new word.

- Example:** In American English, "advertisement" is clipped to form "ad."

6. Blending:

•**Definition:** Blending involves combining parts of two or more words to create a new word with a combined meaning.

•**Example:** In English, "breakfast" and "lunch" are blended to form "brunch."

7. Borrowing:

•**Definition:** Borrowing involves adopting words or phrases from one language and incorporating them into another language.

•**Example:** In English, the word "karaoke" is borrowed from Japanese.

Comparative Analysis:

•Analyzing word-building types across languages reveals similarities and differences in how languages expand their vocabulary.

•Some word-building processes may be more prevalent or productive in certain languages due to linguistic or cultural factors.

•Comparative analysis helps identify commonalities and shared patterns of word formation as well as unique features specific to individual languages.

•It also provides insights into language contact, borrowing, and the evolution of vocabulary over time.

In summary, comparative analysis of word-building types in comparative languages offers valuable insights into the diverse ways in which languages create and expand their lexicons, reflecting the rich linguistic diversity and complexity of human communication.

ACTIVITIES

Exercise 1: Affixation

Instructions: Identify the affixes used in the following words in English and another language of your choice. Determine whether they are prefixes or suffixes.

1. English: "Unhappiness"

2. Other Language: (Provide a word in your chosen language)

Exercise 2: Compounding

Instructions: Create compound words using two or more separate words in English and another language. Provide the meanings of the compound words you create.

1. English: (e.g., "television" + "remote" = "television remote" - a remote control for the television)
2. Other Language: (Provide a compound word in your chosen language)

Exercise 3: Conversion (Zero Derivation)

Instructions: Identify examples of conversion in English and another language. Provide the base word and its converted form.

1. English: (e.g., "book" (noun) → "to book" (verb))
2. Other Language: (Provide an example of conversion in your chosen language)

Exercise 4: Derivation

Instructions: Form derivatives of the given base words using appropriate affixes in English and another language. Provide the meanings of the derived words.

1. English: Base word - "happy"
 - Derivative: "unhappy" (Adding the prefix "un-" to form the opposite meaning)
2. Other Language: Base word - (Provide a base word in your chosen language)
 - Derivative: (Form a derivative using an appropriate affix)

Exercise 5: Clipping

Instructions: Shorten the following words to create clipped forms in English and another language.

1. English: "advertisement"
 - Clipped form: "ad"
2. Other Language: (Provide a word in your chosen language)
 - Clipped form: (Create a clipped form in your chosen language)

Exercise 6: Blending

Instructions: Create blended words by combining parts of two or more words in English and another language. Provide the meanings of the blended words.

1. English: (e.g., "breakfast" + "lunch" = "brunch" - a meal eaten between breakfast and lunch)
2. Other Language: (Provide blended words in your chosen language)

Exercise 7: Borrowing

Instructions: Identify borrowed words in English and another language. Determine the language of origin for each borrowed word.

1. English: "karaoke" (Borrowed from Japanese)
2. Other Language: (Provide a borrowed word in your chosen language and its language of origin)

Homework Assignment: Comparative Analysis of Word-Building Types

Task 1: Word Identification

1. Identify ten words in Modern English and ten in another language of choice.
2. Classify each word according to its word-building type, such as derivation, compounding, blending, clipping, or conversion.
3. Write a brief explanation for each word, discussing its word-building type and any specific rules or patterns observed.

Task 2: Translation Exercise

1. Translate five English words into the chosen language and five words from the chosen language into English.
2. Pay attention to maintaining the correct word-building type in the translation process.
3. Compare the translated words to the original words and note any differences or challenges encountered.

Task 3: Word Analysis

1. Analyze the formation of words in three English and three words from the chosen language.

2. Identify the word-building type of each word and discuss how it affects its meaning, pronunciation, and usage.

3. Provide examples of words formed through different word-building processes and analyze their morphological structures.

Task 4: Reflective Essay

1. Write a reflective essay discussing the comparative analysis of word-building types in English and the chosen language.

2. Reflect on the similarities and differences observed in word formation processes and their implications for vocabulary expansion.

3. Consider how understanding word-building types enhances your understanding of language structure and facilitates cross-linguistic communication.

Submission Instructions:

- Submit your completed homework assignment by [insert submission deadline].

- Ensure that your work is neatly organized, accurately completed, and written in clear and grammatically correct language.

THEME 44. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE TYPOLOGICAL CATEGORIES OF WORD ORDER IN MODERN ENGLISH

Objective: Students will explore the typological categories of word order in Modern English and compare them with other languages. They will understand how word order influences sentence structure and meaning in different linguistic contexts.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers
- Handouts with examples of word order in Modern English and other languages
- Exercises and worksheets for practice
- Audio recordings of sentences demonstrating different word orders (optional)

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Greet the students and introduce the topic of the lesson: comparative analysis of word order.
- Explain the importance of word order in language and its role in determining sentence structure and meaning.
- Provide examples of different word orders in Modern English and other languages to familiarize students with the concept.

2. Explanation of Word Order Typology (15 minutes):

- Define the typological categories of word order, including subject-verb-object (SVO), subject-object-verb (SOV), verb-subject-object (VSO), and other variations.
- Discuss how word order typology varies across languages and its implications for sentence construction.
- Provide examples of sentences demonstrating different word orders in Modern English and other languages.

3. Comparison of Word Order Categories (20 minutes):

- Compare and contrast the typological categories of word order in Modern English with those of other languages.
- Discuss any similarities and differences in how languages organize words in sentences.
- Write examples of sentences with different word orders on the board and discuss their structures and meanings.

4. Analysis of Sentence Structure (20 minutes):

- Analyze the sentence structure of sentences in Modern English and other languages, focusing on the word order typology.
- Discuss how word order affects subject-verb agreement, noun-adjective agreement, and other grammatical features.
- Provide examples of sentences with varied word orders and analyze their syntactic structures.

5. Practice Exercises (15 minutes):

- Distribute worksheets or exercises with practice activities focusing on word order typology in Modern English and other languages.
- Encourage students to identify and analyze sentences with different word orders and their grammatical implications.
- Allow time for students to work individually or in pairs, and then review the answers as a class.

6. Discussion and Analysis (10 minutes):

- Facilitate a discussion on the comparative analysis of word order categories in Modern English and other languages.
- Encourage students to share their observations, insights, and questions about how word order influences sentence structure and meaning.
- Discuss the implications of word order typology for language learning and cross-linguistic communication.

7. Conclusion (5 minutes):

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson about the typological categories of word order in Modern English.
- Emphasize the importance of understanding word order typology for analyzing sentence structure and interpreting meaning in different languages.

1. Basic Word Order:

- Modern English typically follows a Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) word order in declarative sentences. For example, "The cat (subject) chased (verb) the mouse (object)."
- This word order is considered canonical and is used in the majority of sentences in English.

2. Variations in Word Order:

- While SVO is the most common word order in Modern English, there are several variations that occur for emphasis, stylistic effect, or to convey specific meanings.

- In questions, the word order may change to Verb-Subject-Object (VSO) or Subject-Verb (SV) inversion. For example, "Did you see the movie?" or "Never have I seen such a sight."

- In imperative sentences, the subject is often omitted, resulting in a Verb-Object (VO) order. For example, "Eat your vegetables."

3. Fronting and Dislocation:

- Fronting involves moving elements of the sentence to the beginning for emphasis or focus. For example, "On the table, he found a book."

- Dislocation occurs when an element is moved out of its canonical position for pragmatic reasons, such as topic or focus marking. For example, "The book, he found it on the table."

4. Inversion:

- Inversion is commonly used in certain constructions such as conditional sentences, after negative adverbs, and in formal writing.

- For example, "Had I known, I would have acted differently." (conditional inversion)

- "Never before have I seen such beauty." (inversion after a negative adverb)

5. Coordination:

- Modern English allows for coordination of elements within sentences, with conjunctions like "and," "but," and "or."

- For example, "I like tea and coffee."

6. Subordination:

- Subordination involves the use of dependent clauses within sentences, which are typically marked by subordinating conjunctions or relative pronouns.

- For example, "She sang a song that brought tears to my eyes."

7. Relative Clause Placement:

- Relative clauses in Modern English typically follow the noun they modify.

- For example, "The book that I bought yesterday is interesting."

8. Prepositional Phrases:

- Prepositional phrases in English usually occur after the noun they modify or describe.

- For example, "The book on the table is mine."

In summary, Modern English primarily follows an SVO word order, but it also exhibits flexibility and variation in word order for emphasis, coordination, subordination, and stylistic effect. Understanding these typological categories helps elucidate the structural organization of English sentences.

ACTIVITIES

Exercise 1: Sentence Transformation

Instructions: Rearrange the following sentences to change their word order while maintaining their original meaning.

1. "She always reads books."

- Transformation: "Books, she always reads."

2. "The cat chased the mouse."

- Transformation: "The mouse, the cat chased."

Exercise 2: Question Formation

Instructions: Turn the following statements into questions by inverting the word order.

1. Statement: "He is going to the store."

- Question: "Is he going to the store?"

2. Statement: "They have finished their homework."

- Question: "Have they finished their homework?"

Exercise 3: Fronting and Dislocation

Instructions: Rewrite the following sentences using fronting or dislocation for emphasis.

1. "I found the key under the mat."

- Emphasized Element: "Under the mat, I found the key."

2. "The children played happily in the park."

- Emphasized Element: "Happily, the children played in the park."

Exercise 4: Coordination and Subordination

Instructions: Combine the following pairs of sentences using coordination or subordination.

1. Sentences:

- "She likes to read novels."
- "She also enjoys watching movies."
- Combined Sentence (Coordination): "She likes to read novels, and she also enjoys watching movies."

2. Sentences:

- "The book was interesting."
- "I couldn't put it down."
- Combined Sentence (Subordination): "The book was so interesting that I couldn't put it down."

Exercise 5: Comparative Analysis

Instructions: Compare the word order patterns in Modern English to those in another language you are familiar with. Identify similarities and differences in sentence structure.

1. English Sentence: "He is reading a book."

- Comparative Analysis: (Compare to the word order pattern in the other language)

2. English Sentence: "She will go to the store tomorrow."

- Comparative Analysis: (Identify similarities and differences in word order with the other language)

Homework Assignment: Comparative Analysis of Word Order Typology

Task 1: Sentence Analysis

1. Identify ten sentences in Modern English.
2. Analyze the word order typology of each sentence, categorizing them as subject-verb-object (SVO), subject-object-verb (SOV), verb-subject-object (VSO), or other variations.
3. Write a brief explanation for each sentence, discussing its word order typology and any specific grammatical implications.

Task 2: Translation Exercise

1. Translate five English sentences into another language of your choice.
2. Pay attention to maintaining the correct word order typology in the translation process.
3. Compare the translated sentences to the original sentences and note any differences or challenges encountered.

Task 3: Word Order Comparison

1. Compare and contrast the word order typology of Modern English with that of another language.
2. Discuss any similarities and differences in how the two languages organize words in sentences.
3. Provide examples of sentences demonstrating different word orders in both languages and analyze their syntactic structures.

Task 4: Reflective Essay

1. Write a reflective essay discussing the comparative analysis of word order typology in Modern English and another language.
2. Reflect on the similarities and differences observed in word order patterns and their implications for sentence structure and meaning.
3. Consider how understanding word order typology enhances your understanding of language structure and facilitates cross-linguistic communication.

Submission Instructions:

- Submit your completed homework assignment by [insert submission deadline].
- Ensure that your work is neatly organized, accurately completed, and written in clear and grammatically correct language.

THEME 45. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH, UZBEK AND RUSSIAN LANGUAGES WORDS

Objective: Students will conduct a comparative analysis of words in English, Uzbek, and Russian languages. They will explore similarities and differences in vocabulary, word formation, and cultural influences, fostering cross-linguistic awareness and understanding.

Materials Needed:

- Whiteboard and markers
- Handouts with vocabulary lists in English, Uzbek, and Russian
- Exercises and worksheets for practice
- Audio recordings of words being pronounced in each language (optional)

Lesson Plan:

1. Introduction (10 minutes):

- Greet the students and introduce the topic of the lesson: comparative analysis of words in English, Uzbek, and Russian languages.

- Explain the importance of studying languages from different language families and understanding their lexical and cultural differences.

- Provide examples of words in each language to familiarize students with the linguistic diversity.

2. Vocabulary Comparison (15 minutes):

- Distribute vocabulary lists containing words in English, Uzbek, and Russian languages.

- Have students compare the words in each list and identify similarities and differences in vocabulary across the languages.

- Discuss any loanwords, cognates, and unique terms specific to each language.

3. Word Formation Analysis (20 minutes):

- Analyze the word formation processes in English, Uzbek, and Russian languages.

- Discuss how words are formed through derivation, compounding, borrowing, and other morphological processes in each language.

- Provide examples of words demonstrating different word formation processes in each language.

4. Cultural Context Discussion (20 minutes):

- Discuss the cultural context behind certain words and expressions in English, Uzbek, and Russian languages.

- Explore how cultural values, historical events, and societal norms influence language usage and vocabulary selection.

- Encourage students to share their insights and experiences related to language and culture.

5. Practice Exercises (15 minutes):

- Distribute worksheets or exercises with practice activities focusing on vocabulary and word formation in English, Uzbek, and Russian languages.

- Encourage students to identify cognates, analyze word meanings, and explore cultural nuances in language usage.

- Allow time for students to work individually or in pairs, and then review the answers as a class.

6. Discussion and Analysis (10 minutes):

- Facilitate a discussion on the comparative analysis of words in English, Uzbek, and Russian languages.

- Encourage students to share their observations, insights, and questions about language similarities and differences.

- Discuss the importance of linguistic diversity and cross-cultural understanding in today's interconnected world.

7. Conclusion (5 minutes):

- Summarize the key points covered in the lesson about the comparative analysis of English, Uzbek, and Russian language words.

- Emphasize the value of learning languages and exploring their rich linguistic and cultural heritage.

To conduct a comparative analysis of English, Uzbek, and Russian languages, we can examine various aspects of their vocabulary, including word origins, loanwords, cognates, and semantic fields. Here's an overview of each aspect:

1. Word Origins:

- English: English vocabulary has roots in Anglo-Saxon (Old English), Latin, French, Germanic languages, and more recently, words borrowed from languages around the world due to historical events and cultural exchanges.
- Uzbek: Uzbek vocabulary is primarily derived from Turkic languages, with influences from Persian, Arabic, and Russian.
- Russian: Russian vocabulary has its roots in Slavic languages, particularly Old Church Slavonic, with additional influences from Greek, Latin, Turkic languages, French, and German.

2. Loanwords:

- English: English has borrowed extensively from other languages throughout its history, including Latin (e.g., "television"), French (e.g., "restaurant"), and German (e.g., "kindergarten").
- Uzbek: Uzbek has borrowed words from Persian (e.g., "qalam" - pen), Arabic (e.g., "ilmiy" - scientific), and Russian (e.g., "telefon" - telephone).
- Russian: Russian has borrowed words from Old Church Slavonic (e.g., "церковь" - church), Greek (e.g., "философия" - philosophy), and French (e.g., "ресторан" - restaurant).

3. Cognates:

- English, Uzbek, and Russian may share cognates due to historical and linguistic connections.
- Example: English "mother" - Uzbek "ona" - Russian "мать" (mat')
- Example: English "water" - Uzbek "su" - Russian "вода" (voda)

4. Semantic Fields:

- Certain semantic fields may have similar vocabulary across languages due to shared cultural concepts or universal human experiences.

- Example: Vocabulary related to family and kinship (mother, father, brother, sister) may show similarities across English, Uzbek, and Russian.

Comparative Analysis:

- English, Uzbek, and Russian exhibit both similarities and differences in their vocabulary due to historical, cultural, and linguistic factors.

- Loanwords and borrowings reflect the historical interactions and influences between these languages and other linguistic traditions.

- Cognates provide insights into shared linguistic roots and historical connections between languages.

- Semantic fields reveal commonalities in cultural concepts and human experiences across diverse linguistic communities.

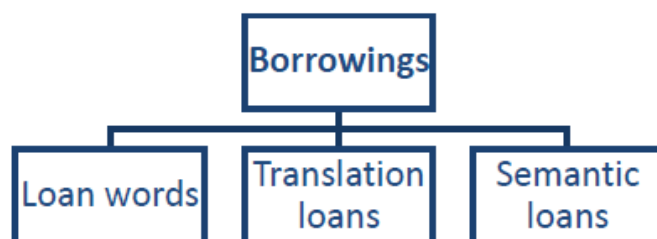
In conducting a comparative analysis, researchers can delve deeper into specific lexical domains, etymological histories, and sociolinguistic contexts to gain a comprehensive understanding of the vocabulary of English, Uzbek, and Russian languages.

ACTIVITIES

Exercise#1. Match the definitions.

Typology	deals with the units of lexical levels. It studies inter-lingual paradigms of words, inter-lingual invariance of meanings expressed by words and
Lexical typology	is the study of patterns that occur systematically across languages phrases.
Semantic typology	is the systematic cross-linguistic study of how languages express meaning by way of signs

Exercise#2. As we know according to the nature of borrowings can be classified in all languages into:



Give your own examples:

- A loan word taken over from another proper language can be modified in phonetic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the language. Example:

Russian→Uzbek: журнал, театр, роман, армия, сюжет, автобус.

English→Russian→Uzbek: _____

- A translation loans are the words and expressions formed I one language after the patterns characteristic of it but under the influence of some foreign words and expressions. For example:

Latin: - "tinge maternal" → mother tongue;

English: _____

Russian: _____

Uzbek: _____

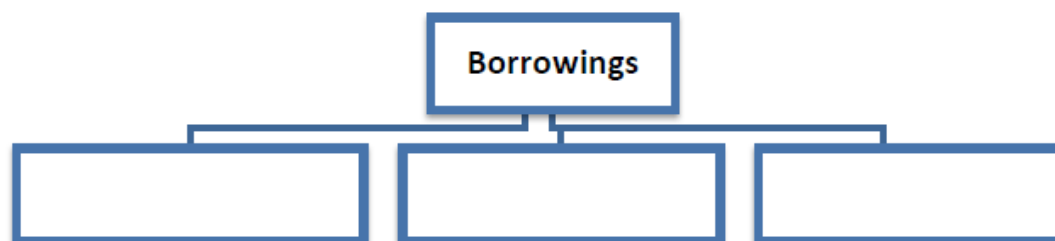
- Semantic borrowings are the appearance of a new meaning due to the influence of a related word in another language. For instance:

English: mother → Mutter (German) → Madre (Spanish).

Russian: _____

Uzbek: _____

Exercise#3. Fill the cluster. According to the nature of borrowings, they can be classified in all languages into:



Exercise#4. True/False statements.

1. _____ Word is the smallest language unit which can stand alone as a complete utterance.
2. _____ Morphologically words can be distinguished monomorphemic and polysemantic.
3. _____ The word “polysemy” means “plurality of meanings” it exists only in speech, not in the language.
4. _____ Antonyms in all languages can be subdivided into absolute and derivational.
5. _____ According to the structure English words are divided into three main types.
6. _____ Compounds that contain particles are hyphenated.
7. _____ according to the structure Uzbek words subdivided into two major types.
8. _____ There are 4 types of compound words in Uzbek.
9. _____ Compound words consist of two or more root morphemes and an inflexion.
10. _____ “man”, “mankind”, “human”, “person” is polysemantic words.

Homework Assignment: Comparative Analysis of English, Uzbek, and Russian Language Words

Task 1: Vocabulary Comparison

1. Compile a list of 20 words from English, Uzbek, and Russian languages, focusing on common themes or topics (e.g., animals, food, professions).

2. Identify similarities and differences in vocabulary across the three languages, paying attention to loanwords, cognates, and unique terms specific to each language.

3. Write a brief analysis highlighting any patterns or trends observed in the comparison of vocabulary.

Task 2: Word Formation Analysis

1. Select five words from each language (English, Uzbek, and Russian).

2. Analyze the word formation processes of each word, considering derivation, compounding, borrowing, and other morphological processes.

3. Write a short explanation for each word, discussing its etymology and any interesting linguistic features.

Task 3: Cultural Context Exploration

1. Choose three words from each language that have cultural significance or unique connotations.

2. Research the cultural context behind each word, including historical events, societal norms, and cultural values associated with the word.

3. Write a reflective essay discussing the cultural implications of the selected words in English, Uzbek, and Russian languages.

Task 4: Translation Exercise

1. Translate five English sentences into Uzbek and five into Russian.

2. Translate five Uzbek sentences into English and five into Russian.

3. Translate five Russian sentences into English and five into Uzbek.

4. Pay attention to preserving the meaning and cultural nuances of the original sentences in the translations.

Submission Instructions:

- Submit your completed homework assignment by [insert submission deadline].

- Ensure that your work is neatly organized, accurately completed, and written in clear and grammatically correct language.

APPENDIX

Mustaqil ta'lim mavzulari va ularni bajarish bo'yicha tavsiyalar/ Self-study topics and recommendations for their implementation

1. Typology of Parts of speech different approaches done by Aristotel, Aristark and etc.
2. Typological category of case of nouns
3. Typological category of number of nouns
4. Typological category of gender in nouns
5. Comparative typology and Methodology of teaching foreign languages
6. Outstanding Scientist: their contribution to Comparative Linguistics
7. Cultural “concepts” in comparable languages
8. The Understanding of universals and their means

Reading Assignments:

Select academic articles, book chapters, or research papers on specific topics within comparative typology.

Take notes while reading to summarize key points, identify important concepts, and note any questions or areas for further exploration.

Data Analysis Exercises:

Analyze linguistic data sets from different languages, focusing on typological features such as word order, morphological structures, or phonological patterns.

Practice identifying and categorizing linguistic phenomena based on typological principles.

Comparative Language Studies:

Choose pairs or groups of languages from different language families and compare their typological features.

Create language profiles highlighting similarities and differences in phonology, morphology, syntax, and other linguistic aspects.

Problem-Solving Tasks:

Pose hypothetical linguistic problems or scenarios related to typological phenomena.

Work through these problems step-by-step, applying typological concepts and reasoning to find solutions.

Quiz and Test Yourself:

Create quizzes or flashcards to test your knowledge of typological concepts, language families, and linguistic universals.

Challenge yourself with practice tests or sample exam questions to assess your understanding and retention of the material.

Writing Assignments:

Write essays or research papers on specific topics in comparative typology, synthesizing information from various sources and presenting your analysis and insights.

Practice explaining complex typological concepts in clear and concise language, focusing on effective communication of ideas.

Language Documentation Projects:

Explore resources for documenting endangered or understudied languages and engage in language documentation activities.

Collect data on linguistic features, analyze language samples, and contribute to efforts to preserve and document linguistic diversity.

Online Resources and Multimedia:

Explore online courses, lectures, and educational videos on comparative typology.

Participate in virtual seminars, webinars, or discussion forums to engage with experts and fellow learners.

Case Studies and Real-World Applications:

Investigate case studies or real-world examples of linguistic phenomena, such as language contact, creole formation, or language change.

Analyze how typological principles apply to specific linguistic contexts and contribute to understanding language variation and change.

Self-Assessment and Reflection:

Regularly assess your progress and understanding of comparative typology through self-assessment exercises.

Reflect on your learning experiences, identify areas for improvement, and set goals for further study and exploration.

ACTIVITIES/EXERCISES

Activity 1. *Put the proper letter where it is required.*

a) that predicativity is the structural basis and the meaning of the sentence while intonation is the structural form of it;

b) the completeness and independence of a sentence, being able to exist alone and having a complete utterance;

c) that the sentence is the minimal syntactic structure used in communication and characterized by its predicativity which expresses thought and has its intonation pattern;

d) the sentence is the central syntactic construction used as the minimal communicative unit that has its primary predication, actualizes a definite structural scheme and possesses definite intonation characteristics;

e) thoroughly analyzed one-member sentences in the structure of the Uzbek language, classified them in the following way.

1) Otto Jespersen;

2) B.A.Ilyish;

3) Professor M.I. Rasulova;

4) G.Pochepstov's interpretation;

5) The linguist I.Rasulov.

Activity 2. *Table completion with sentences according to the purpose of utterance.*

Declarative sentences		Interrogative sentences		Exclamatory sentences		Imperative sentences.	
Eng	Uzb	Eng	Uzb	Eng	Uzb	Eng	Uzb

Activity 3. *Matching Terms and Definitions*

Instructions: Match each term with its correct definition.

1. Agglutinating language
2. Fusional language
3. Isolating language
4. Typology
5. Language family
6. Phonology
7. Morphology
8. Syntax
9. Inflection
10. Word order

Definitions:

- A. The arrangement of words in a sentence, especially as governed by grammatical rules and as affecting meaning.
- B. A language which tends to express one meaning per morpheme.
- C. The study of the structure of words.
- D. A subfield of linguistics that studies and classifies languages according to their structural and functional features.
- E. A group of languages related through descent from a common ancestor.
- F. A language in which words tend to consist of a single morpheme.
- G. The system of contrastive relationships among the speech sounds that constitute the fundamental components of a language.
- H. The branch of linguistics that deals with sentence structure.
- I. Conceptual categories that do not create new stems but add specific grammatical information to existing stems.
- J. A language in which morphemes are easily divided, and each tends to express only one meaning per morpheme.

Activity 4. *Fill in the Blanks*

Instructions: Fill in the blanks with the appropriate vocabulary terms from the word bank.

Word Bank: agglutinating, fusional, isolating, typology, phonology, morphology, syntax, inflection, language family, word order

1. Mandarin Chinese is an example of an _____ language because its words typically consist of a single morpheme.
2. In linguistic _____, languages are categorized based on their structural features.
3. Spanish is a _____ language, where a single morpheme can convey multiple grammatical meanings.
4. The study of sounds in a language is called _____.
5. _____ examines the structure and formation of words.
6. SVO (Subject-Verb-Object) is a common _____ in English sentences.
7. _____ languages use clear and separable affixes to convey grammatical relationships.
8. The Indo-European _____ includes languages like English, Spanish, and Hindi.
9. _____ is the study of how words are combined to form grammatical sentences.
10. Adding -s to make the plural form of a noun is an example of _____ in English.

Activity 5. True or False

Instructions: Indicate whether the following statements are true or false.

1. An agglutinating language typically expresses multiple meanings per morpheme.
2. Phonology is concerned with the rules governing the structure of sentences.
3. Inflection is a process that creates new stems from existing ones.
4. A language family consists of languages that are unrelated to each other.
5. Typology involves the classification of languages based on their functional and structural features.
6. Syntax is the study of word meanings and their combinations.

7. Morphology examines how sounds are produced in different languages.

8. Isolating languages often have complex inflectional systems.

9. Fusional languages can have morphemes that combine several grammatical categories into one.

10. Word order refers to the sequence in which words appear within a sentence.

Activity 6. Short Answer

Instructions: Provide a short answer to each question.

1. What is the main difference between an agglutinating language and a fusional language?

2. How does typology help in the classification of languages?

3. Give an example of a language family and list three languages that belong to it.

4. What does phonology study in the context of comparative typology?

5. Why is the study of word order important in comparative typology?

6. Describe the role of inflection in fusional languages.

7. How does an isolating language typically form grammatical relationships?

8. What is the significance of morphology in understanding language structure?

9. In what way does syntax differ from morphology?

10. How can the knowledge of comparative typology be applied in language teaching?

11.

Reading exercises:

Exercise 1: Comprehension Questions

Instructions: Read the passage and answer the questions that follow.

Passage:

Comparative typology is a subfield of linguistic typology that focuses on the comparison of languages to identify their structural similarities and

differences. It classifies languages based on various criteria such as phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics. One of the key aspects of comparative typology is the identification of language universals—traits or properties that exist in all languages.

For instance, word order typology examines how different languages arrange the elements of a sentence. The most common word orders are Subject-Verb-Object (SVO), as in English, and Subject-Object-Verb (SOV), as in Japanese. Comparative typologists study these patterns to understand the underlying principles of language structure.

Another important area is morphological typology, which categorizes languages based on their methods of word formation. Agglutinating languages, such as Turkish, use distinct, separable affixes for each grammatical function, while fusional languages, like Latin, combine multiple grammatical categories into single morphemes. Isolating languages, such as Vietnamese, tend to use single morphemes per word with little to no inflection.

Phonological typology explores the sound systems of languages. It investigates phenomena like consonant clusters, which are groups of consonants with no intervening vowels, and sonority sequencing, which ranks speech sounds by their openness or loudness. Understanding these phonological patterns helps linguists uncover how sounds are organized and function in different languages.

Comparative typology is also significant in applied linguistics, particularly in language teaching. By understanding the structural differences between a learner's native language and the target language, educators can better address issues of language interference and design more effective teaching strategies.

Questions:

1. What is comparative typology?
2. Name two areas of language structure that comparative typology examines.
3. Give examples of languages with SVO and SOV word orders.

4. How do agglutinating languages form words differently from fusional languages?

5. What does phonological typology study?

6. Why is comparative typology important in language teaching?

Exercise 2: True or False

Instructions: Read the statements based on the passage and indicate whether they are true or false.

1. Comparative typology only focuses on the syntax of languages.

2. The SVO word order is common in Japanese.

3. Turkish is an example of an agglutinating language.

4. Fusional languages use distinct affixes for each grammatical function.

5. Phonological typology does not deal with consonant clusters.

6. Understanding language universals is a key aspect of comparative typology.

Exercise 3: Vocabulary in Context

Instructions: Read the passage and identify the meaning of the underlined words from the context.

Passage:

Comparative typology helps linguists uncover the **universals** of language, which are traits or properties present in all languages. For example, in phonological typology, the concept of **sonority sequencing** is crucial. It ranks speech sounds by their openness or loudness, affecting how **consonant clusters** are formed and perceived. In morphological typology, languages like Turkish use an **agglutinating** method, attaching clear, distinct affixes to convey grammatical meaning, unlike **fusional** languages that combine several grammatical categories into a single morpheme.

Questions:

1. What does the word «universals» mean in this context?

2. How is «sonority sequencing» described in the passage?

3. What are «consonant clusters»?

4. What does «agglutinating» refer to in linguistic typology?
5. How do «fusional» languages differ in their word formation?

Exercise 4: Summarization

Instructions: Summarize the passage in your own words, focusing on the main points discussed about comparative typology.

Exercise 5: Multiple Choice

Instructions: Read the passage and choose the best answer for each question.

Passage:

Comparative typology investigates the structural aspects of languages to classify them and uncover universal principles. By examining phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics, typologists can identify patterns and differences across languages. For example, English uses an SVO word order, while Japanese typically follows an SOV pattern.

In terms of morphology, agglutinating languages like Turkish attach distinct affixes for each grammatical function, whereas fusional languages such as Latin combine multiple grammatical functions into a single morpheme. Phonological studies include analyzing consonant clusters and sonority sequencing, providing insights into the organization of sounds in various languages. Understanding these typological distinctions is crucial for applied linguistics, especially in addressing language interference in teaching.

Questions:

1. What does comparative typology primarily investigate?
 - a. Language history
 - b. Language structure
 - c. Language usage
 - d. Language evolution
2. Which word order is common in English?
 - a. SOV
 - b. OSV
 - c. VSO
 - d. SVO

3. How do agglutinating languages form words?
 - a. By combining multiple grammatical categories into one morpheme
 - b. By using single morphemes per word with no inflection
 - c. By attaching distinct affixes for each grammatical function
 - d. By relying heavily on word order
4. What is an example of a phonological study in typology?
 - a. Analyzing sentence structure
 - b. Examining word formation
 - c. Investigating consonant clusters
 - d. Classifying language families
5. Why is understanding typological distinctions important in applied linguistics?
 - a. To learn about language history
 - b. To develop effective language teaching strategies
 - c. To analyze ancient texts
 - d. To create new languages

Writing exercises:

Exercise 1: Descriptive Writing

Instructions: Write a short essay (300-500 words) describing the importance of comparative typology in understanding language structure. Discuss how comparing different languages helps linguists identify universal principles and differences. Include examples of word order, morphological types, and phonological features.

Exercise 2: Argumentative Essay

Instructions: Write an argumentative essay (500-700 words) on the following topic: «Comparative typology is essential for effective language teaching.» Support your argument with specific examples of how understanding typological differences can help overcome native language interference and improve language learning outcomes.

Exercise 3: Compare and Contrast

Instructions: Write a compare and contrast essay (400-600 words) on the typological features of two languages of your choice. Focus on at least

three aspects: word order, morphological type, and phonological system. Highlight the similarities and differences between the two languages and discuss their implications.

Exercise 4: Research Paper

Instructions: Write a research paper (1000-1500 words) on the topic «The Role of Phonological Typology in Comparative Linguistics.» Conduct research on phonological features such as consonant clusters, sonority sequencing, and vowel harmony across different languages. Discuss how these features are used to classify languages and what they reveal about language universals.

Exercise 5: Reflective Writing

Instructions: Write a reflective essay (300-500 words) on how the study of comparative typology has changed your understanding of language. Reflect on specific insights you have gained and how they apply to your own language learning or teaching experiences.

Exercise 6: Case Study

Instructions: Choose two languages from different language families and write a case study (700-1000 words) examining their typological features. Analyze their word order, morphological processes, and phonological systems. Discuss how these features reflect the languages' historical development and cultural context.

Exercise 7: Practical Application

Instructions: Imagine you are a language teacher. Write a lesson plan (500-700 words) that incorporates principles from comparative typology to teach a specific grammatical concept (e.g., verb conjugation, sentence structure) to students who speak different native languages. Explain how you will address typological differences to enhance understanding.

Exercise 8: Hypothetical Scenario

Instructions: Write a narrative (400-600 words) describing a hypothetical scenario in which a linguist uses comparative typology to solve a linguistic mystery. Create a story where the linguist compares languages to uncover the origins of a newly discovered language or dialect.

Exercise 9: Analysis

Instructions: Write an analysis (500-700 words) of the impact of typological differences on translation. Choose a specific text (e.g., a poem, a legal document) and discuss the challenges that translators face when translating between languages with different typological features. Provide examples and suggest strategies for overcoming these challenges.

Exercise 10: Creative Writing

Instructions: Write a short story (700-1000 words) that incorporates elements of comparative typology. Create characters who speak different languages and highlight how their communication is influenced by their languages' typological features. Use this narrative to explore themes of language and cultural diversity.

Speaking exercises:

Exercise 1: Presentation

Instructions: Prepare a 5-minute presentation on the key principles of comparative typology. Include examples of different typological features such as word order, morphological types, and phonological systems. Use visual aids like slides or charts to enhance your presentation. Be ready to answer questions from your peers.

Exercise 2: Debate

Instructions: Participate in a debate on the topic "Comparative typology is more useful for language teaching than for linguistic research." Divide the class into two groups, with one side arguing for the importance of comparative typology in language teaching and the other for its significance in linguistic research. Each side should prepare arguments and counterarguments.

Exercise 3: Language Comparison

Instructions: Pair up with a classmate and choose two languages to compare. Each pair will take turns explaining the typological features of their chosen languages, focusing on aspects such as word order, morphology, and phonology. Discuss how these features influence

communication in each language. Afterward, present your findings to the class.

Exercise 4: Role-Play

Instructions: In groups of three or four, role-play a scenario where a linguist is explaining the concept of comparative typology to language teachers. One person plays the linguist, and the others play the teachers who ask questions about how to apply typological insights in their classrooms. Focus on practical applications like overcoming native language interference and improving language acquisition.

Exercise 5: Panel Discussion

Instructions: Form a panel of "experts" in comparative typology. Each panelist will specialize in a different area (e.g., syntax, morphology, phonology). Prepare a brief opening statement on your area of expertise and be ready to discuss questions from the audience about the relevance and challenges of comparative typology in different linguistic contexts.

Exercise 6: Storytelling

Instructions: Tell a story that illustrates the importance of understanding typological differences in languages. Your story can be based on real-life experiences, historical events, or a fictional scenario. Focus on how typological features (e.g., word order, morphological complexity) affect communication and cultural understanding.

Exercise 7: Interview

Instructions: Conduct an interview with a classmate about their experiences with learning different languages. Ask them to describe how the typological features of each language (such as word order or phonological systems) impacted their learning process. Record the interview and present a summary to the class.

Exercise 8: Group Discussion

Instructions: Participate in a group discussion on the topic "The future of comparative typology in linguistic research." Discuss recent developments in the field, potential applications, and the challenges researchers face. Each group member should contribute at least one point to the discussion and provide examples to support their ideas.

Exercise 9: Case Study Presentation

Instructions: Research a case study where comparative typology played a crucial role in linguistic discovery or language teaching. Present the case study to the class, highlighting the key findings and their implications. Discuss how comparative typology contributed to the understanding or resolution of the case.

Exercise 10: Impromptu Speech

Instructions: Practice impromptu speaking by drawing a random topic related to comparative typology (e.g., "The role of phonological typology in language learning," "Comparative typology and language evolution"). You will have 2 minutes to prepare and 3 minutes to speak on the topic. Focus on organizing your thoughts quickly and delivering a coherent speech.

Grammar exercises:

Exercise 1: Sentence Structure Comparison

Instructions: Compare the sentence structure of English with another language of your choice. Write five sentences in English and translate them into the chosen language. Identify and explain any differences in word order, subject-verb agreement, and the use of articles or prepositions.

Example:

1. English: She is reading a book. Uzbek: U kitob o‘qiyabdi.

- Difference: In ENGLISH, the verb "reading" (is) is used to indicate continuous action, and the definite article "a" agrees in gender and number with the noun (book).

Exercise 2: Morphological Analysis

Instructions: Choose five complex words from English and analyze their morphological structure. Then, find equivalent words in another language and perform the same analysis. Compare the morphological processes (e.g., inflection, derivation) used in each language.

Example:

1. English: Unhappiness

- Root: happy
- Prefix: un-

- Suffix: -ness
- Morphological process: Derivation (prefix and suffix)

German: Unglück

- Root: Glück
- Prefix: un-
- Morphological process: Derivation (prefix)

Exercise 3: Word Order Typology

Instructions: Identify the basic word order (SVO, SOV, VSO, etc.) of English and another language. Create five sentences in both languages and highlight the differences in word order.

Example:

1. English (SVO): The cat (S) eats (V) the mouse (O).

Exercise 4: Tense and Aspect Comparison

Instructions: Write sentences in English using different tenses and aspects (simple, continuous, perfect, etc.). Translate these sentences into another language and analyze how tense and aspect are expressed differently.

Example:

1. English: I have been working. French: J'ai travaillé.

- Difference: French uses the perfect tense "ai travaillé" to express a completed action, while English uses the present perfect continuous "have been working" to indicate an ongoing action.

Exercise 5: Agreement Patterns

Instructions: Compare subject-verb agreement and noun-adjective agreement in English and another language. Write five sentences in each language, focusing on agreement patterns.

Example:

1. English: The tall man is running. French: L'homme grand court.

- Difference: In French, adjectives generally follow nouns and agree in gender and number with the noun.

Exercise 6: Negation Structures

Instructions: Compare the structures used for negation in English and another language. Write five negative sentences in each language and explain the differences.

Example:

1. English: She does not like ice cream. Spanish: Ella no le gusta el helado.

- Difference: In Spanish, the negation "no" comes before the verb "gusta".

Exercise 7: Question Formation

Instructions: Compare how questions are formed in English and another language. Write five questions in each language, focusing on the placement of question words and the auxiliary verbs.

Example:

1. English: What are you doing? German: Was machst du?

- Difference: In German, the question word "Was" (What) is placed at the beginning, followed by the verb "machst" (doing).

Exercise 8: Pronoun Usage

Instructions: Compare the usage of personal, possessive, and reflexive pronouns in English and another language. Write sentences using different types of pronouns and highlight the differences.

Example:

1. English: He hurt himself. French: Il s'est blessé.

- Difference: In French, reflexive pronouns "s'" are used before the verb.

Exercise 9: Passive Voice

Instructions: Compare the formation and usage of the passive voice in English and another language. Write five sentences in the passive voice in each language and explain the differences.

Example:

1. English: The book was written by the author. German: Das Buch wurde vom Autor geschrieben.

- Difference: German uses "wurde" (was) to form the passive voice and places the agent after "von".

Exercise 10: Modal Verbs

Instructions: Compare the use of modal verbs in English and another language. Write sentences using different modal verbs and explain how modality is expressed.

Questions for testing student knowledge

1. What is comparative typology?
2. Define linguistic typology.
3. Explain the significance of comparative typology in linguistics.
4. What are the main goals of comparative typology?
5. How does comparative typology differ from historical linguistics?
6. Describe the methodology used in comparative typology research.
7. What role does language universals play in comparative typology?
8. Name three major linguistic universals commonly studied in comparative typology.
9. What is the typological approach to language classification?
10. How do linguists classify languages based on typological features?
11. What are the primary typological features used to classify languages?
12. Explain the concept of linguistic diversity in comparative typology.
13. What is language convergence, and how does it relate to comparative typology?
14. Describe the concept of linguistic diffusion in the context of comparative typology.
15. How does language contact influence typological variation?
16. Explain the significance of linguistic borrowing in comparative typology.
17. What are the main challenges faced in comparative typology research?

18. Describe the role of language families in comparative typology.
19. What is language typology mapping, and how is it used in linguistic research?
20. Explain the concept of linguistic isoglosses and their relevance to comparative typology.
21. Describe the Greenbergian approach to language typology.
22. How do linguistic features contribute to language classification?
23. Explain the concept of linguistic areality and its impact on language typology.
24. What is the role of linguistic universals in language comparison?
25. Describe the principles of linguistic universals proposed by Joseph Greenberg.
26. How do linguistic typologies help in understanding language evolution?
27. Explain the difference between synchronic and diachronic typology.
28. What are the main categories of linguistic typological features?
29. Describe the concept of morphological typology.
30. Explain the distinction between fusional and agglutinative languages.
31. What is the significance of word order typology in comparative linguistics?
32. Describe the word order patterns found in SOV languages.
33. How does verb-object order differ in languages with VSO and SVO word orders?
34. Explain the concept of head-final and head-initial languages.
35. Describe the features of ergative-absolutive languages.
36. What are the primary characteristics of isolating languages?
37. Explain the concept of polysynthesis in morphological typology.
38. Describe the role of inflectional morphology in typological classification.
39. What is the significance of case marking in linguistic typology?

40. Describe the typological features of nominative-accusative languages.
41. Explain the concept of tone languages and their typological characteristics.
42. Describe the prosodic typology of stress-timed and syllable-timed languages.
43. What is the significance of vowel harmony in phonological typology?
44. Explain the concept of consonant clusters and their typological variation.
45. Describe the typological features of phonemic inventories in languages.
46. How do phonological typologies classify tonal languages?
47. Explain the concept of sonority sequencing and its role in phonological typology.
48. Describe the typological features of sign languages.
49. What is the role of iconicity in sign language typology?
50. Explain the concept of morphological alignment and its typological patterns.
51. Describe the typological characteristics of gender systems in languages.
52. What are the primary criteria used to classify gender systems in typology?
53. Explain the concept of numeral classifiers and their typological variation.
54. Describe the typological features of tense-aspect-mood systems in languages.
55. What is the significance of evidentiality in linguistic typology?
56. Describe the typological features of grammatical evidentiality in languages.
57. Explain the concept of word classes and their typological variation.

58. What is the significance of nominal classification in linguistic typology?
59. Describe the typological characteristics of agreement systems in languages.
60. Explain the concept of animacy hierarchy and its role in typological classification.
61. Describe the typological features of switch-reference systems in languages.
62. What is the significance of deixis in linguistic typology?
63. Explain the concept of demonstratives and their typological patterns.
64. Describe the typological characteristics of possessive constructions in languages.
65. What is the significance of valency-changing operations in linguistic typology?
66. Explain the concept of valency alternations and their typological variation.
67. Describe the typological features of negation strategies in languages.
68. What is the significance of interrogative constructions in typological research?
69. Explain the typological patterns of question formation in languages.
70. Describe the typological characteristics of relative clauses in languages.
71. What is the significance of adpositional phrases in linguistic typology?
72. Explain the typological features of adpositional constructions in languages.
73. Describe the typological characteristics of subordination strategies in languages.
74. What is the significance of serial verb constructions in typological research?

75.Explain the typological patterns of serial verb constructions in languages.

76.Describe the typological features of clause-linkage strategies in languages.

77.What is the significance of language isolates in comparative typology?

78.Explain the challenges faced in classifying language isolates.

79.Describe the typological characteristics of creole languages.

80.What is the significance of pidgin languages in linguistic typology?

81.Explain the process of creole genesis and its relevance to typological research.

82.Describe the typological features of language contact phenomena.

83.What is the significance of areal linguistics in typological classification?

84.Explain the concept of linguistic convergence and its typological implications.

85.Describe the typological characteristics of areal features in languages.

86.What is the significance of linguistic diffusion in typological research?

87.Explain how linguistic diffusion affects typological variation among languages.

88.Describe the typological features of linguistic borrowing and loanwords.

89.What is the significance of lexical borrowing in comparative typology?

90.Explain how lexical borrowing influences language typological features.

91.Describe the typological characteristics of language change phenomena.

92.What is the significance of language contact in language change?

93.Explain how language contact affects typological variation over time.

94.Describe the typological features of language evolution in language families.

95.What is the significance of linguistic divergence in language evolution?

96.Explain how linguistic divergence leads to typological diversity among languages.

97.Describe the typological characteristics of language families and subfamilies.

98.What is the significance of language classification in linguistic typology?

99.Explain how language classification contributes to understanding linguistic diversity.

100.Describe the typological features of linguistic universals and language typologies.

TESTS

What is the primary goal of comparative typology?

- a) To study the evolution of individual languages
- b) To classify languages based on their structural features
- c) To analyze language change over time
- d) To document endangered languages

Answer: b) To classify languages based on their structural features

Which of the following is NOT a type of morphological typology?

- a) Isolating
- b) Analytic
- c) Polysynthetic
- d) Fusion

Answer: b) Analytic

Which linguistic alignment system treats the subject of a transitive verb differently from the subject of an intransitive verb?

- a) Ergative-Absolutive
- b) Nominative-Accusative
- c) Active-Stative
- d) Split Ergativity

Answer: a) Ergative-Absolutive

What is the primary difference between head-marking and dependent-marking languages?

- a) Word order
- b) Morphological complexity
- c) The way grammatical relations are indicated
- d) The number of phonemes

Answer: c) The way grammatical relations are indicated

In a Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) language, the typical word order is:

- a) Verb-Subject-Object
- b) Subject-Verb-Object
- c) Object-Subject-Verb
- d) Subject-Object-Verb

Answer: b) Subject-Verb-Object

Which case typically marks the subject of a transitive verb in an ergative-absolutive language?

- a) Nominative
- b) Accusative
- c) Ergative
- d) Absolutive

Answer: c) Ergative

What linguistic phenomenon refers to the situation where different parts of a language's grammar exhibit distinct alignment patterns?

- a) Morphological typology
- b) Lexical borrowing
- c) Alignment split
- d) Syntactic change

Answer: c) Alignment split

What factors can influence alignment change in a language?

- a) Language contact and historical change
- b) Phonological shifts
- c) Syntactic ambiguity
- d) Lexical borrowing

Answer: a) Language contact and historical change

Which theoretical framework suggests that morphosyntactic alignment patterns can vary along a continuum between different types of alignment?

- a) Ergativity theory
- b) Alignment continuum
- c) Language universals
- d) Linguistic relativity

Answer: b) Alignment continuum

What is the classification of languages based on their morphosyntactic alignment patterns called?

- a) Alignment hierarchy
- b) Typological parameters
- c) Alignment typology
- d) Linguistic universals

Answer: c) Alignment typology

What are some common word orders found in languages around the world?

- a) Subject-Verb-Object (SVO), Verb-Subject-Object (VSO), Subject-Object-Verb (SOV)
- b) Verb-Subject-Object (VSO), Verb-Object-Subject (VOS), Subject-Object-Verb (SOV)
- c) Subject-Verb-Object (SVO), Verb-Object-Subject (VOS), Object-Verb-Subject (OVS)
- d) Verb-Subject-Object (VSO), Subject-Object-Verb (SOV), Object-Verb-Subject (OVS)

Answer: a) Subject-Verb-Object (SVO), Verb-Subject-Object (VSO), Subject-Object-Verb (SOV)

What is the primary difference between ergative-absolutive and nominative-accusative languages?

- a) Word order
- b) Case marking of subjects

- c) The presence of ergativity
- d) The number of morphemes

Answer: b) Case marking of subjects

What linguistic phenomenon refers to the historical process by which a language's alignment pattern shifts from one type to another?

- a) Language change
- b) Alignment split
- c) Alignment change
- d) Typological shift

Answer: c) Alignment change

How do linguists reconstruct alignment patterns in ancient languages?

- a) Through computational methods
- b) By comparing related modern languages
- c) By studying written records
- d) Through archaeological evidence

Answer: b) By comparing related modern languages

Can typological research inform language teaching methodologies?

- a) Yes, but only for specific language families
- b) No, typological research is not relevant to language teaching
- c) Yes, by providing insights into structural differences between languages
- d) No, language teaching is not influenced by linguistic research

Answer: c) Yes, by providing insights into structural differences between languages

What are some emerging areas of research within comparative typology?

- a) Historical linguistics
- b) Computational linguistics
- c) Cognitive linguistics

d) All of the above

Answer: d) All of the above

How do alignment splits influence language structure?

- a) They lead to increased linguistic complexity
- b) They create ambiguity in grammatical relations
- c) They result in more regularized word orders
- d) They allow for greater flexibility in language use

Answer: a) They lead to increased linguistic complexity

What role does technology play in typological research?

- a) It allows for the rapid analysis of large linguistic datasets
- b) It facilitates cross-linguistic communication among researchers
- c) It enables the automatic classification of languages
- d) All of the above

Answer: d) All of the above

How do linguistic typologies contribute to our understanding of cultural diversity and identity?

- a) By highlighting shared linguistic features among diverse cultures
- b) By identifying linguistic patterns specific to certain cultural groups
- c) By promoting cultural relativism and understanding
- d) All of the above

Answer: d) All of the above

Can typological research inform policy decisions related to language education and literacy?

- a) Yes, by identifying effective language teaching methods
- b) No, typological research is not relevant to language policy
- c) Yes, by informing language revitalization efforts
- d) No, language policy is not influenced by linguistic research

Answer: c) Yes, by informing language revitalization efforts

What is the role of linguistic typologies in theories of language universals?

a) They provide evidence for the existence of universal grammar principles.

b) They demonstrate that there are no universals in language structure.

c) They illustrate cross-linguistic variation but do not contribute to theories of universals.

d) They support the idea that all languages follow the same structural patterns.

Answer: a) They provide evidence for the existence of universal grammar principles.

Which of the following is an example of a dependent-marking language?

a) Japanese

b) Turkish

c) Finnish

d) Quechua

Answer: a) Japanese

In a verb-initial language, the typical word order is:

a) Subject-Verb-Object (SVO)

b) Verb-Subject-Object (VSO)

c) Subject-Object-Verb (SOV)

d) Object-Subject-Verb (OSV)

Answer: b) Verb-Subject-Object (VSO)

What linguistic phenomenon refers to the situation where a language exhibits ergative alignment in some contexts and accusative alignment in others?

a) Split ergativity

b) Alignment continuum

- c) Ergative-absolutive alignment
- d) Hierarchical alignment

Answer: a) Split ergativity

How do linguists determine the alignment pattern of a language?

- a) By analyzing the phonological inventory of the language
- b) By examining the syntactic structure of sentences
- c) By comparing the language to known typological patterns
- d) By studying the language's historical development

Answer: b) By examining the syntactic structure of sentences

What linguistic phenomenon refers to the situation where the word order of a language varies depending on factors such as emphasis or discourse structure?

- a) Word order continuum
- b) Word order flexibility
- c) Word order variation
- d) Word order stability

Answer: c) Word order variation

Which of the following is an example of an active-stative language?

- a) English
- b) Navajo
- c) Tagalog
- d) Georgian

Answer: b) Navajo

How do alignment hierarchies influence the marking of grammatical relations in a language?

- a) They determine the order of constituents in a sentence.
- b) They influence the choice of case marking on nouns and pronouns.
- c) They dictate the use of tense and aspect markers in verbs.

d) They regulate the placement of adjectives within noun phrases.

Answer: b) They influence the choice of case marking on nouns and pronouns.

What evidence supports the theory of alignment change in linguistic history?

- a) Written records of language change
- b) Comparative analysis of related languages
- c) Archaeological artifacts
- d) Oral traditions

Answer: b) Comparative analysis of related languages

How do linguistic typologies contribute to theories of linguistic relativity?

- a) By demonstrating the influence of language structure on thought
- b) By providing evidence for universal cognitive categories
- c) By showing that language does not influence thought
- d) By illustrating cross-linguistic variation in color terms

Answer: a) By demonstrating the influence of language structure on thought

What are some potential implications of typological research for interdisciplinary fields such as anthropology?

- a) Understanding cultural diffusion patterns
- b) Analyzing migration patterns
- c) Reconstructing prehistoric societies
- d) All of the above

Answer: d) All of the above

How do linguistic typologies inform theories of language acquisition?

- a) By demonstrating that all children acquire language in the same way
- b) By highlighting differences in language acquisition across cultures

c) By providing insights into the role of input in language development

d) By showing that language acquisition is determined by genetic factors

Answer: c) By providing insights into the role of input in language development

What role does typological research play in language revitalization efforts?

a) By providing evidence for the preservation of endangered languages

b) By demonstrating the structural differences between languages

c) By identifying effective language teaching methods

d) By promoting language standardization

Answer: a) By providing evidence for the preservation of endangered languages

How do typological databases aid linguistic research?

a) By providing access to a large collection of linguistic data

b) By facilitating collaboration among researchers

c) By enabling the analysis of language change over time

d) All of the above

Answer: d) All of the above

What are the ethical considerations in conducting typological research, particularly in relation to language communities?

a) Ensuring informed consent from language speakers

b) Avoiding misrepresentation of linguistic data

c) Protecting the intellectual property rights of language communities

d) All of the above

Answer: d) All of the above

How do linguistic typologies contribute to theories of human evolution?

- a) By providing evidence for the origins of language
- b) By demonstrating linguistic continuity across human populations
- c) By illustrating the role of language in social organization
- d) All of the above

Answer: d) All of the above

How do typological findings inform theories of language change and stability?

- a) By demonstrating that all languages change at the same rate
- b) By showing that language change is inevitable
- c) By providing evidence for the stability of certain linguistic features
- d) By highlighting the role of external factors in language change

Answer: d) By highlighting the role of external factors in language change

Can typological research help address issues of linguistic inequality and language endangerment?

- a) Yes, by promoting the preservation of endangered languages
- b) No, linguistic inequality is unrelated to typological research
- c) Yes, by advocating for language rights and diversity
- d) No, typological research focuses solely on structural analysis

Answer: c) Yes, by advocating for language rights and diversity

How do typological findings contribute to the development of language technology and machine translation?

- a) By providing insights into cross-linguistic variation
- b) By enabling the creation of language-specific algorithms
- c) By improving the accuracy of machine translation systems
- d) All of the above

Answer: d) All of the above

How do linguistic typologies intersect with studies of language contact and creolization?

- a) By providing evidence for the origins of creole languages
- b) By demonstrating the structural effects of language contact
- c) By showing that all languages undergo creolization
- d) All of the above

Answer: b) By demonstrating the structural effects of language contact

What is the primary goal of comparative typology?

- a) To study the evolution of individual languages
- b) To classify languages based on their structural features
- c) To analyze language change over time
- d) To document endangered languages

Answer: b) To classify languages based on their structural features

Which of the following is NOT a type of morphological typology?

- a) Isolating
- b) Analytic
- c) Polysynthetic
- d) Fusion

Answer: b) Analytic

What linguistic alignment system treats the subject of a transitive verb differently from the subject of an intransitive verb?

- a) Ergative-Absolutive
- b) Nominative-Accusative
- c) Active-Stative
- d) Split Ergativity

Answer: a) Ergative-Absolutive

What is the primary difference between head-marking and dependent-marking languages?

- a) Word order
- b) Morphological complexity
- c) The way grammatical relations are indicated
- d) The number of phonemes

Answer: c) The way grammatical relations are indicated

In a Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) language, the typical word order is:

- a) Verb-Subject-Object
- b) Subject-Verb-Object
- c) Subject-Object-Verb
- d) Object-Subject-Verb

Answer: b) Subject-Verb-Object

Which case typically marks the subject of a transitive verb in an ergative-absolutive language?

- a) Nominative
- b) Accusative
- c) Ergative
- d) Absolutive

Answer: c) Ergative

What linguistic phenomenon refers to the situation where different parts of a language's grammar exhibit distinct alignment patterns?

- a) Morphological typology
- b) Lexical borrowing
- c) Alignment split
- d) Syntactic change

Answer: c) Alignment split

What factors can influence alignment change in a language?

- a) Language contact and historical change
- b) Phonological shifts

c) Syntactic ambiguity

d) Lexical borrowing

Answer: a) Language contact and historical change

Which theoretical framework suggests that morphosyntactic alignment patterns can vary along a continuum between different types of alignment?

a) Ergativity theory

b) Alignment continuum

c) Language universals

d) Linguistic relativity

Answer: b) Alignment continuum

What is the classification of languages based on their morphosyntactic alignment patterns called?

a) Alignment hierarchy

b) Typological parameters

c) Alignment typology

d) Linguistic universals

Answer: c) Alignment typology

GLOSSARY

A

Agglutinating language: A language where morphemes are easily separated, typically conveying one meaning per morpheme.

Applied linguistics: The practical application of theories from linguistics to real-world contexts such as language teaching, therapy, planning, and other related fields.

Arbitrariness: A fundamental concept in structural linguistics, asserting the absence of inherent relationships between linguistic signs and their referents, regardless of objects in the external world.

Areas of linguistics: Various fields of study where linguistic principles are utilized, such as sociolinguistics examining language usage in society, and psycholinguistics exploring language development and psychology.

B

Biological adaptation: Modification in organisms, either inherited or acquired, enhancing their suitability for survival and reproduction in specific environments.

C

Classifier: A term accompanying nouns, classifying them based on the type of their referents.

Competence: Abstract linguistic proficiency acquired in childhood, distinguishing grammatical knowledge from performance, which encompasses actual language use.

Consonant clusters: A collection of consonants without intervening vowels.

Context: Surrounding environment influencing linguistic elements like sounds or words; it may dictate permissible elements or influence meaning, as seen in phonotactic restrictions or syntactic constraints.

Contrast: Distinction between two linguistic items allowing systematic exploitation, often observed through paradigmatic alternations like different verb inflections in English or German.

Convention: Unconscious agreements among speakers in a community, establishing relationships between linguistic elements or with the external world, and guiding grammatical rules.

Creativity: Human language's ability to generate and comprehend an infinite number of sentences, stemming from the phenomenon of sentence generation.

Cultural adaptation: The process of ensuring a message, whether translated or not, incorporates cultural references familiar to the intended audience.

Cultural evolution: Conceptualizing human cultural change as a Darwinian evolutionary process akin to biological evolution.

D

Descriptive: Linguistic approach focused on describing language as it is, rather than prescribing how it should be used.

Diachronic: Relating to language changes over time, contrasting with synchronic analysis which examines language at a specific point in time.

Displacement: Linguistic capability allowing reference to situations not present in the immediate context, enabling expressions like recounting past events or discussing distant locations.

Duality of patterning: Structural principle where larger linguistic units are constructed from smaller units, providing a nearly infinite array of combinations, evident in words composed of sounds and sentences made of words.

E

Economy: Linguistic principle advocating minimal rules and units, ensuring every postulated element is linguistically justified by capturing language generalizations.

Extralinguistic: Any phenomenon external to language, influencing but not inherent in linguistic features.

F

Figurative: Non-literal use of language, employing words metaphorically to convey meanings beyond their literal interpretations.

Formalist: Descriptive of linguistic analyses emphasizing abstract concepts of language structure.

Fusional language: A language expressing one meaning per morpheme.

G

General linguistics: Study of language nature and linguistic analysis methods without considering practical applications, contrasting with applied linguistics.

Generative: Approach to linguistic analysis focusing on formulating rules for exhaustive sentence generation within a language.

H

Head: Central element of a phrase or sentence, possibly modified by optional elements, influencing grammar rules, as in determining compound gender in German.

Hierarchy: Order of elements from basic to peripheral, observed across linguistic levels like word classes or syntactic structures.

Human natural language: Language spontaneously emerging in the minds of humans.

I

Idealization: Simplification of language use details by linguists to facilitate broader generalizations.

Ideophones: Words evoking sensory impressions or perceptions through sound.

Index of fusion: Measure indicating a language's tendency to express one meaning per morpheme.

Index of synthesis: Measure indicating a language's tendency towards multiple morphemes per word.

Indicative: Expressing factual statements, questions, or opinions presented as facts.

Inflection: Grammatical categories adding specific information to existing word stems without creating new stems.

Innateness: Characteristics existing in or determined by factors present in an individual from birth.

Isolating language: A language where words typically consist of a single morpheme.

L

Language family: Group of languages descended from a common ancestor.

Language universals: Traits present, or potentially present, in all languages.

Language: System consisting of symbols (sentences) arranged in a regular order to convey meaning, with social and communicative functions.

Lay speaker: Individual lacking linguistic training, generally unaware of language structure.

Level: Recognizable divisions in language structure, such as phonetics, morphology, syntax, and semantics, each characterized by specific rules and regularities.

Lexical entry: A linguistic sign expressing content meaning.

Linguistic determinism: Concept proposing language shapes thought, also known as the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis.

Linguistics: Scientific study of language, evolving from historical reconstruction to structural analysis and generative grammar.

M

Mark features: Additional articulatory features, complex in nature, less favored in sound sequences.

Marked: Referring to statistically unusual or unexpected linguistic forms within a given context, such as zero plurals in English.

Metalanguage: Language used to discuss language, distinct from the language under analysis.

Metaphor: Figurative use of a word associated with another concept, extending beyond its literal meaning.

Morphology: Study of word structure in linguistics.

N

Nominal: Term sometimes replacing «noun» in languages not distinguishing between adjectives and nouns.

O

Onomastics: Linguistic study of names, including personal and place names, often focusing on etymology and historical significance.

P

Paradigm: Set of forms within a word class or category, representing potential variations in linguistic expression.

Parameter: Aspect of language with specific values in a given context, such as word-order flexibility or inflectional variation.

Phonological hierarchies: Preference order of phonemes and clustering across word positions.

Phonology: Study of contrastive relationships among speech sounds in a language.

Phrasal categories: Traditional parts of speech in phrase structure grammar.

Positionals: Describing position and form of persons and objects.

Productivity: Extent to which a linguistic process is not bound by specific inputs, allowing for a wide range of potential outputs.

Psychological reality: Extent to which linguistic theories correspond to underlying cognitive structures in the human mind.

R

Reflexiveness: Language's capacity to refer to itself, distinguishing it from other communication systems.

Rhetoric: Art of effective public speaking, historically considered an art form.

Root: Unalterable core of a word to which suffixes are added, or earliest form of a word in etymology, or part of the tongue positioned furthest back in the mouth in

S

Semantic: Relating to meaning in language or logic.

Sign language: Communication system using visual gestures and signs, typically by deaf individuals.

Sonority sequencing universals: Common ranking of speech sounds by amplitude.

Sonority: Openness of a sound in phonetics.

Syntax: Arrangement of words and phrases to form grammatically correct sentences.

T

Typology: Linguistic subfield classifying languages based on structural and functional features.

U

Universal grammar: Innate ability to learn grammar encoded in the brain.

V

Verb affix: Bound morpheme attached to a verb root or stem, modifying its meaning.

W

Word class: Category of words sharing form or function, e.g., noun, verb, adjective.

Word order: Sequence of words in a sentence, governed by grammatical rules and influencing meaning.

REFERENCES

1. Alimova M.Kh., Jilina O.Yu. Contrastive analysis of causativizaion in non-related languages (Monograph). Latvia, Lambert Academic Publishing, 2020
2. Alimova M.X., Rasulov Z.I. Comparative typology of the English and Uzbek languages: o'quv qo'llanma / M.X. Alimova, Z.I. Rasulov. – Buxoro: "Sadriddin Salim Buxoriy" Durdona. – 348 b.
3. Khosimkhujayeva M.M. Comparative Typology Tashkent, 2020
4. Rasulova M.I., Shukurov a Z.I. Comparative Typology of English' Uzbek and Russian Languages, Toshkent 2017
5. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков: учеб. пособие / В.Д. Аракин. – 3-е изд. – М.: ФИЗМАТЛИТ, 2005. – 232 с.
6. Блох М.Я. Теоретические основы грамматики: учебник / М.Я. Блох. – Москва: Высшая школа, 2002. – 160 с.
7. Большой энциклопедический словарь. Языкознание. / Отв. ред. В.Н. Ярцева. – 2-ое изд. – М.: Большая Российская энциклопедия, 2000. – 688 с.
8. Бондарко А.В. Теория значения в системе функциональной грамматики: На материале русского языка / А.В. Бондарко. // Рос. академия наук. Ин-т лингвистических исследований. – М.: Языки славянской культуры, 2002. – 736 с.
9. Вежбицкая А. Семантические универсалии и описание языков / А. Вежбицкая; пер. с англ. А.Д. Шмелева; под ред. Т.В. Булыгиной. □ М.: Языки славянской культуры, 1999. – С. 134–170.
10. Вежбицкая А. Язык. Культура. Познание / А. Вежбицкая. – М.: Русские словари, 1996. – 339 с.
11. Гак В.Г. Теоретическая грамматика французского языка: учебник / В.Г. Гак. – М.: Добросвет, 2000. – 832 с.
12. Успенский Б.А. Принципы структурной типологии. М., 1962
13. Юсупов У.К. Теоретические основы сопоставительной лингвистики. Ташкент, 2007

ALLAYAROVA Z.B., XO‘JAMURODOVA F.R.

QIYOSIY TIPOLOGIYA

DARSLIK

Muharrir: S. Abdunabiyeva

Badiiy muharrir: K. Boyxo‘jayev

Kompyuterda sahifalovchi: B. Muxtorov

shr. List. AA № 205405

Bosishga ruxsat etildi: 13.12.2024-yil.

Bichimi 60x84 1/16. Offset qog‘ozi.

“Times New Roman”garniturası.

Shartli b/t 22,7. Nashr hisob t 24.3

Adadi 50 dona. 16-buyurtma

“MAKON SAVDO PRINT” X K. nashriyotida tayyorlandi.

Toshkent shaxri , Shayxontohur tumani, Jangoh MFY, Jangoh Mavzesi, 37-uy.

«DAVR MATBUOT SAVDO» bosmaxonasida chop etildi .

100198, Toshkent, Qoyliq 4 mavze, 4