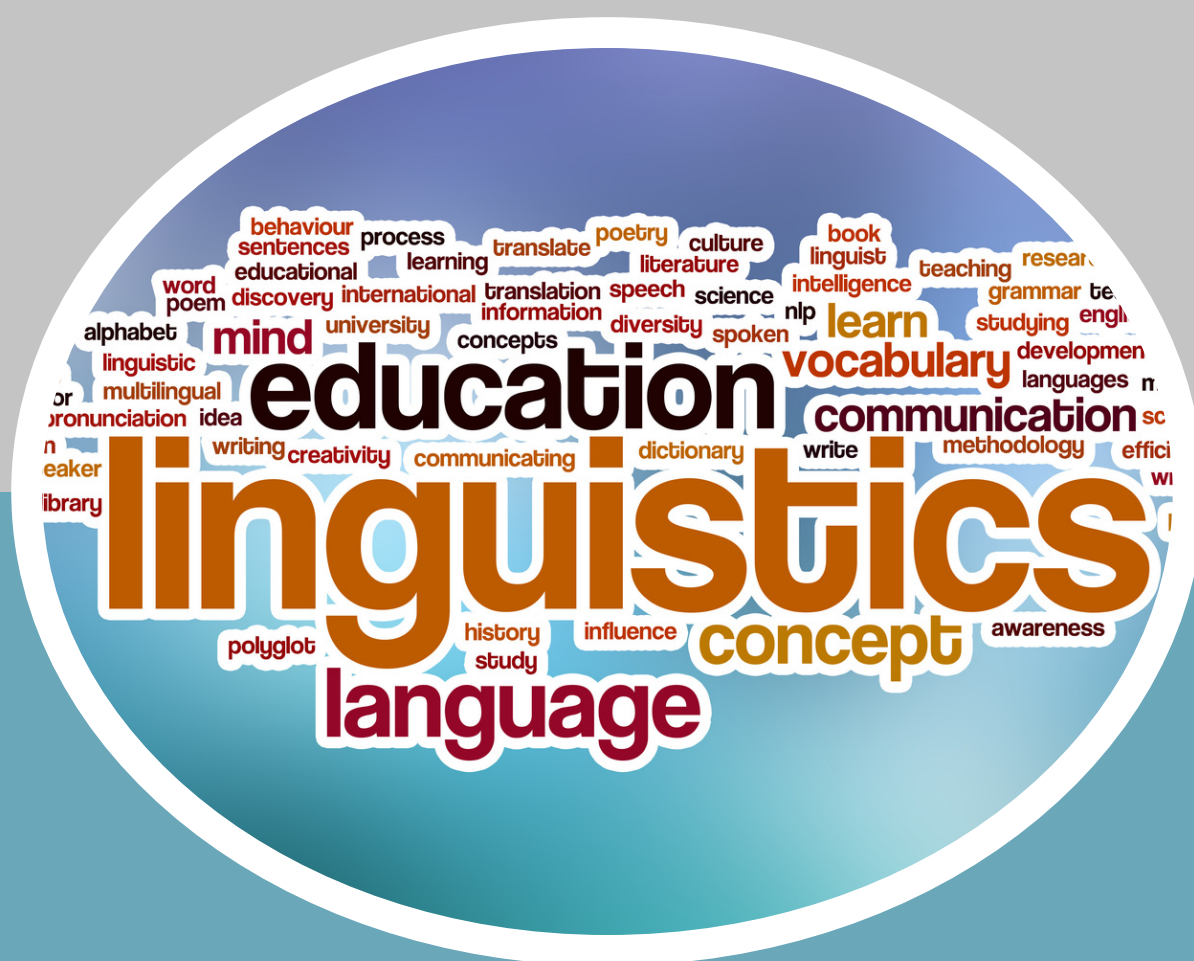


ISBN: 978-93-56454-33-9

# CONTRASTIVE LINGUISTICS

## (study manual)



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Published by

## Novateur Publication

466, Sadashiv Peth, M.S.India-411030  
**novateurpublication.org**

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**CONTRASTIVE LINGUISTICS**

(study manual)

## PREFACE

Contrastive linguistics formed in the field of linguistics refers to the study of problems that arise in the process of comparative study of languages of different systems. In world linguistics, new paradigms of the science, formed at the end of the 20th century and rapidly developing - lingua pragmatics, psycholinguistics, linguoculturalology, linguacognitology, computer linguistics, corpus linguistics - require close study with advanced scientific directions.

We all know that the study of the science of linguistics in the field of languages provides an opportunity to illuminate this science and fully reveal the national-specific nature of the languages of the world. This makes it possible to identify general and specific linguistic processes between Uzbek and other languages.

Today, while some partial problems of contrastive linguistics are given a sense of urgency, the existing scientific potential is not directed to the solution of important problems, the main tasks that determine the future of the field are still left out of the agenda. Therefore, this manual talks about the actual problems of the linguistics of Uzbek, Russian, English, and other languages that need to be solved in the new century.

We have tried to prepare this instructional manual based on the latest achievements in linguistics. In this book, we have made good use of the research of leading representatives of Uzbek linguistics, such as Sh. Rakhmatullayev, Abdi Eshonkulovich Mamatov, Abdug`ofur Mamatov, Gaybulla Salomov, Jamal Kamal, and scientific works of foreign scientists. Therefore, we consider ourselves not authors, but writers. We are grateful to all the mentors who have used their research to make this booklet possible.

## A Few Words to Start with

Reflecting on the structure of this textbook, we are trying to convey some ideas about linguistics, lingua pragmatics, and sociolinguistics to get closer to one of the basic principles of science, that is, to study crosslinguistics more deeply.

**So, what is contrastive linguistics?** Contrastive linguistics is a practice-oriented linguistic approach that seeks to describe the differences and similarities between a pair of languages (hence it is occasionally called "*differential* linguistics"). While traditional linguistic studies had developed comparative methods (comparative linguistics), chiefly to demonstrate family relations between cognate languages, or to illustrate the historical developments of one or more languages, modern contrastive linguistics intends to show in what ways the two respective languages differ, to help in the solution of practical problems. (Sometimes the terms diachronic linguistics and synchronic linguistics are used to refer to these two perspectives.)

**Contrastive linguistics**, since its inception by Robert Lado in the 1950s, has often been linked to aspects of applied linguistics, e.g., to avoid interference errors in foreign-language learning, as advocated by Di Pietro (1971) to assist interlingual transfer in the process of translating texts from one language into another, as demonstrated by Vinay & Darbelnet (1958) and more recently by Hatim (1997) and to find lexical equivalents in the process of compiling bilingual dictionaries, as illustrated by Heltai (1988) and Hartmann (1991)

**Contrastive descriptions** can occur at every level of linguistic structure: speech sounds (phonology), written symbols (orthography), word formation (morphology), word meaning (lexicology), collocation (phraseology), sentence structure (syntax), and complete discourse (textology). Various techniques used in corpus linguistics are relevant in intralingual and interlingual contrastive studies, e.g. by 'parallel-text' analysis (Hartmann 1997).

Contrastive linguistic studies can also be applied to the differential description of one or more varieties within a language, such as styles (contrastive rhetoric), dialects, registers, or terminologies of technical genres.

**Contrastive analysis** is the systematic study of a pair of languages to identify their structural differences and similarities. Historically it has been used to establish language genealogies.

Contrastive analysis was used extensively in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) in the 1960s and early 1970s, as a method of explaining why some features of a target language were more difficult to acquire than others. According to the behaviorist theories prevailing at the time, language learning was a question of habit formation, and this could be reinforced or impeded by existing habits. Therefore, the difficulty in mastering certain structures in a second language (L2) depended on the difference between the learners' mother language (L1) and the language they were trying to learn.

### **History of contrastive analysis**

The theoretical foundations for what became known as the contrastive analysis hypothesis were formulated in Robert Lado's *Linguistics Across Cultures* (1957). In this book, Lado claimed that "those elements which are similar to [the learner's] native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult". While it was not a novel suggestion, Lado was the first to provide a comprehensive theoretical treatment and to suggest a systematic set of technical procedures for the contrastive study of languages. That involved describing the languages (using structuralist linguistics), comparing them, and predicting learning difficulties.

During the 1960s, there was a widespread enthusiasm for this technique, manifested in the contrastive descriptions of several European languages,<sup>[1]</sup> many of which were sponsored by the Center for Applied Linguistics in Washington, DC. It was expected that once the areas of potential difficulty had been mapped out through contrastive analysis, it would be possible to design language courses more efficiently. Contrastive

analysis, along with behaviorism and structuralism exerted a profound effect on SLA curriculum design and language teacher education and provided the theoretical pillars of the audio-lingual method.

### **Criticism and its response**

In its strongest formulation, the contrastive analysis hypothesis claimed that all the errors made in learning the L2 could be attributed to 'interference' by the L1. However, this claim could not be sustained by empirical evidence that was accumulated in the mid-and late 1970s. It was soon pointed out that many errors predicted by Contrastive Analysis were inexplicably not observed in learners' language. Even more confusingly, some uniform errors were made by learners irrespective of their L1. It thus became clear that contrastive analysis could not predict all learning difficulties, but was certainly useful in the retrospective explanation of errors.

In response to the above criticisms, a moderate version of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) has developed which paradoxically contradicts Lado's original claim. The new CAH hypothesizes that the more different the L2 is from one's L1, the easier it is for one to learn the target language. The prediction is based on the premise that similarities in languages create confusion for learners.

With the help of technological advancement, contrastive analysis has adopted a more efficient method of obtaining language data, a corpus-based approach, which generates a vast amount of juxtapositions of language differences in various fields of linguistics, for example, lexis and syntax.

## **Topic 1. The main content of contrastive linguistics is a branch of general linguistics.**

Linguistics is a science that studies the social nature, function, and internal structure of language, the laws of operation (activity), and the historical development of languages. So, linguistics is an independent science that studies human language. Along with the term linguistics, the term linguistics (< fran linguistique < lat. lingua - language) is also used in scientific literature<sup>1</sup>.

Linguistics or linguistics (Latin lingua-til) is a science dealing with the theory of language, which consists of independent parts called "General Linguistics" and "Introduction to Linguistics".

"General Linguistics" is an independent science that studies general issues specific to linguistics, and deals with the interpretation of the following theoretical problems.

1. The subject and tasks of linguistics;
2. Language structure;
3. Language is a system;
4. Language development;
5. Method theory in linguistics;
6. Language and Society;
7. Language, thought, and other such matters<sup>2</sup>

The science of linguistics has always been a field of interest to world scientists, who have developed several rules for this science and presented theoretical conclusions based on their research. Regardless of the different linguistic schools and currents that have arisen in the development of linguistics, their approach to language and methods of analysis are different, modern linguistics is divided into three main branches.

### **1. Extralinguistics**

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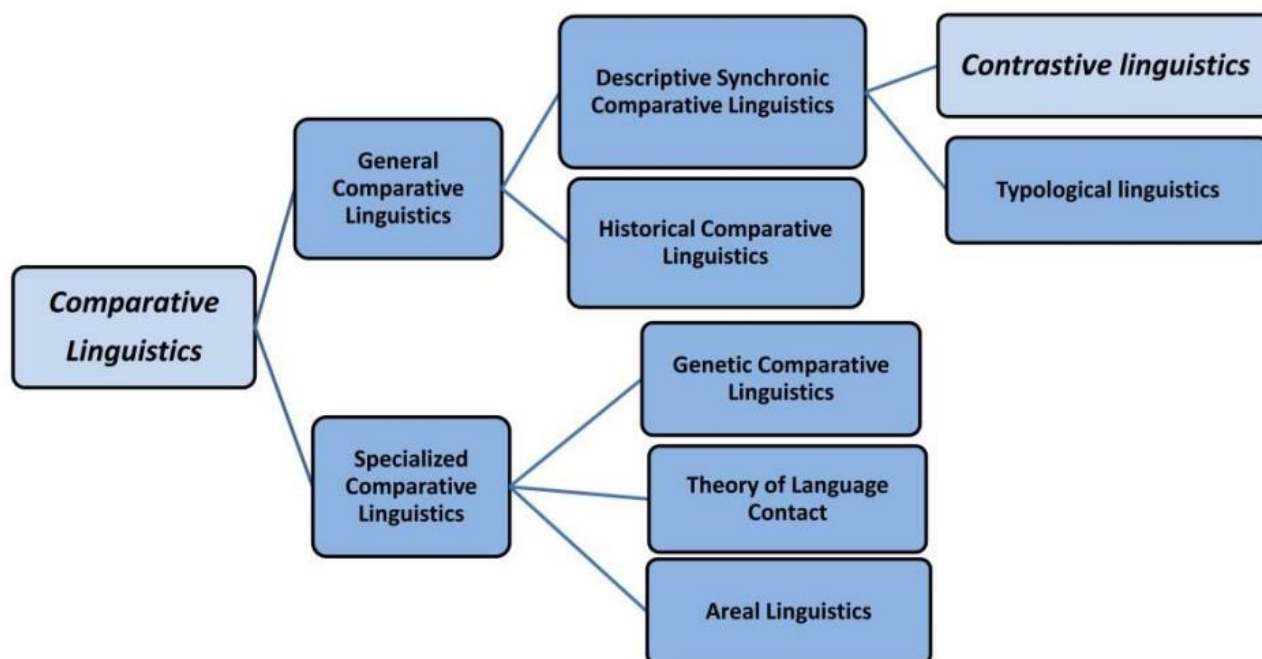
<sup>1</sup>N.Ulukov. Linguistic theory. Study guide. Tashkent. 2016, -6 p.

<sup>2</sup>N. Turniyozov. Introduction to Linguistics. Text of lectures. Samarkand. 2005

2. Intralinguistics
3. Comparative studies

While extralinguistics analyzes the external aspects of language along with fields such as sociolinguistics and mentallinguistics, intralinguistics studies the internal laws of language. Comparativistics (lat. comparativus-comparative) is a branch of linguistics dealing with relative-historical studies, comparativistics includes comparative-historical linguistics, areal linguistics, typology (universal linguistics). Comparative linguistics, in turn, is divided into comparative-historical and comparative linguistics. Comparative-historical linguistics studies related languages, while cross-linguistics studies languages of different systems based on comparison and studies their similarities and differences.<sup>3</sup> We have reflected on the relationship of contrastive linguistics with comparative linguistics in the form of the following table according to the study guide "Contrastive Linguistics" by researcher Nadiya Andreychuk.

**Figure 1**



<sup>3</sup> N.Ulukov. Linguistic theory. Study guide. Tashkent. 2016, -11 p.



Contrastive linguistics focuses on the study and analysis of any two languages, to identify the differences and similarities between them. Comparative linguistics is also called *differential linguistics and is a branch of comparative linguistics that is distinguished by the study of only two languages at the same time.*

This field determines how languages have developed and which languages are historically related. For example, comparative linguistic studies of the Hungarian language show that it was related to Chinese and Korean languages, then Mongolian, Turkish, and other languages as the Magyars migrated west across Siberia and eventually into Europe. shows that it was in secret. Such studies also show how and when Hungarian diverged from its closest language partner, Finno-Estonian.<sup>4</sup>

Although the term contrastive linguistics seems to dominate modern linguistics, it is sometimes called by other names. Including "*contrastive linguistics*", such as "*cross-linguistic studies*", "*comparative studies*", "*comparative studies*", "*comparative analysis*", and "*comparative grammar*".<sup>5</sup>

The study of cross-linguistics is based on four main processes. The first is to identify the two languages being studied; the second is a complete description of the characteristics of each language; the third is to analyze the relations between the two languages; and the fourth is to compare the compatibility and incompatibility of the two languages.

Although the mixing of languages was carried out in the last decade of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century, it was not called by this name until 1941, according to some sources.

There are opinions that cross-linguistics first appeared in the United States of America in the 50s of 20th century, due to the interest in learning foreign languages, under the

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<sup>4</sup> <https://www.languagehumanities.org/what-is-contrastive-linguistics.htm>

<sup>5</sup> Marcin Kuczok. Contrastive and comparative linguistics. University of Silesia

influence of structuralism, as a direction of Applied Linguistics. It is a direction developed mainly to find similarities and differences between languages.<sup>6</sup> Cross-linguistics deals with the comparison of socially and culturally related languages. For example: in it, we can compare Spanish and French languages, but Latin and Turkish languages cannot be compared, because there are no socio-cultural relations between these languages.

The basis of cross-linguistics goes back to the ideas of Robert Lado in 1957 it serves to determine the problems that arise when comparing the local language with a foreign language in the process of language learning. These proposals of his are reflected in his creative works entitled "Intercultural Linguistics", and "Practical Linguistics for Language Teaching Teachers". According to his theory, cross-linguistics mainly shows the commonality and specificity of the source language and translated languages, and sometimes several languages. *Tertium comparationis* is the basis of comparative linguistics. *Tertium comparationis* is the process of comparing two linguistic features or inconsistencies between features, regardless of the level of language being contrasted, assuming that there is a common feature on which to base the comparison.<sup>7</sup>

"Contrast-chog`ishtirmoq" was not used concerning languages until the end of the 18th century. It was first brought into science as a linguistic term by the linguist James Pickbourne in 1789. ***"I thought it would be useful to contrast the English verb with the verb in other languages"*** - *"I thought it would be useful to contrast the English verbs with the verbs of other languages for the first time"* in his speech.

Contrastive linguistics (contrastive linguistics), in turn, is divided into macro and micro contrastive linguistics. Macro-contrastive linguistics and micro-contrastive linguistics are both branches of linguistics, while macro-contrastive linguistics studies

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<sup>6</sup> Julie Cebrian Puyuelo, Hortensia Curell Gotor, Ana Fernandez Montraveta. Contrastive linguistics. Open University of Catalonia. 2018. -p.3

<sup>7</sup>Iyer Theodore. Contrastive linguistics. National Open University of Nigeria. 2022, p.4

language and its form and meaning, the changes that occur due to this form and meaning, and other such factors. from the point of view of micro-contrastive linguistics, the compared languages reveal their sound features, grammatical structure, syntax, and other semantic features.

Macro contrastive linguistics covers all aspects of language, such as the comparison or comparison of languages and their development over time, as well as the study of contexts within languages. Contrastive linguistics (contrastive linguistics) fully illuminates its goals and tasks with the help of the following areas.

1. Psycholinguistics
2. Sociolinguistics
3. Anthropological linguistics
4. Dialectology
5. Mathematical and Computational Linguistics
6. Stylistics
7. Discourse analysis

The basis of cross-linguistics is reflected in cross-sectional studies. In turn, this type of research is divided into 2 types.

1. Theoretical contrastive studies
2. Applied contrastive studies

Contrastive studies of the first type are engaged in identifying important elements in languages that are fully or partially consistent with each other and can be compared with each other, revealing the similarities and differences between two or more languages. For example, theoretical contrastive studies in phonology study the features of the phonological system of two or more languages being compared. In other words, theoretical contrastive studies are language-independent. They do not study how a certain category that exists in one language is represented in another language. Instead, they look for universality in the first and second language. Thus,

theoretical contrastive linguistics does not have a direction from A to B or vice versa, but as in Figure 2.



Applied contrastive linguistics is a branch of applied linguistics, which studies the problem of how the corresponding features of one language are reflected in the second language and what consequences this area of application can have. Applied contrastive linguistics discovers not only the differences between the languages being compared but also their similarities. The conclusion from this is that applied contrastive linguistics studies two languages concerning each other. We can see it in Figure 2.



*L1 (first language) and L2 (second language)* in applied contrastive linguistics and bilingual (bilingual) studies concerning the languages that are mixed; *source language* and *target language* in the field of translation; The terms *native language* and *foreign language* are used in the field of language didactics (use of foreign languages in education) .<sup>8</sup>

### Questions about the topic

1. What does linguistics study?
2. What kind of theoretical problems does general linguistics deal with?
3. The purpose and subject of contrastive linguistics...?
4. What does theoretical contrastive research do?

<sup>8</sup> Contrastive linguistics and the language teacher. Oxford New Pergamon. 1981. - p. 245-279

5. What is applied contrastive research?
6. How is macro contrastive linguistics different from micro contrastive linguistics?

**Topic 2. Contrastive linguistics is inextricably linked with translation theory, language teaching methodology, lexicography, stylistics, and other disciplines. Their common, different, and similar features.**

Contrastive linguistics is a practice-oriented linguistic approach that focuses on describing the differences and similarities between two languages (which is why it is sometimes called "differential linguistics"). It is a systematic study to identify structural differences and similarities between two languages. Historically, it is focused on the study of the origin of languages.<sup>9</sup>

Contrastive linguistics usually focuses on the study of languages to identify important differences between a first and a second language. Contrastive linguistics deals only with languages that exist today. Many scientists consider it appropriate to study cross-linguistics with the following subjects:

1. **Translation studies or translation theory** is a field that did not fully establish its object of study, aims and methods as an independent discipline until the 1970s and 1980s (Bassnett 1980), and some still consider it a mere study rather than a major discipline. known as the field. Translation is an important linguistic process for reaching a wide readership and breaking down unfamiliar language barriers. Although there are various methods of translating a text from the source language to the target language, cross-analysis plays a key role in achieving equivalence in translation. Cross-reference analysis is a linguistic phenomenon based on the assumption that languages can be compared. It is a sub-discipline of linguistics concerned with the comparison of two or more languages or language subsystems

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<sup>9</sup> <https://www.languagehumanities.org/what-is-contrastive-linguistics.htm>

and the identification of differences and similarities between them. Cross-linguistics is related to the theory of translation and it provides ways to achieve complete or partial coherence in translation. We know that the basis of translation is the text in the context, and these texts create communication between people. Thus, if we want to translate a text in our native language into another language, we determine the equivalence and inconsistency in the linguistic elements of the two languages using the cross-analysis tool, which is the basis of cross-linguistics.<sup>10</sup>

2. **in language teaching**, using the results of conjunctive analysis as an educational resource in the classroom is similar to introducing the ingredients and recipe to a customer in a restaurant. Secondly, it even helps the teacher to choose information that can be digested by students of a certain age and with sufficient linguistic knowledge, even when explaining such sections of grammar as morphology and syntax. When cross-sectional analysis is used in language teaching classes, taking into account the student's previous knowledge, and providing him with information about the similarities and differences between the native language and the foreign language being studied, as well as vocabulary. It is possible to convey the concepts related to learning. Contrastive linguistics is very important for teachers and trainers in creating syllabi and training materials. The fact that foreign language teachers have sufficient knowledge of the mother tongue and foreign languages, and the ability to identify linguistic problems that arise in them based on comparison, makes it easier for students to learn foreign languages.
3. **lexicography** is now considered the main branch of linguistics, linguists did not initially pay attention to the study of lexicography. Lexicography, dealing with the issues of creating a dictionary, requires knowledge of several linguistic directions. Indeed, many areas of linguistics, such as cross-linguistics, psycholinguistics, cognitive linguistics, computer linguistics, and corpus linguistics, are of practical

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<sup>10</sup> Mohamed M. Benotman. Contrastive analysis in Translation equivalence. Linguistic, Literature and Methodology of teaching. Volume XVII. 2018

importance in solving the problems of lexicography related to creating a dictionary. Contrastive linguistics examines the difference between two languages, for example, the difference between English and Uzbek. If lexicographers want to compile a good dictionary, they must be able to compare the differences between the two languages. For example, if lexicographers want to create an English-Uzbek dictionary, they must be aware of the culture of these two languages. ``gri" is untranslatable, and this requires the lexicographer to use a phrase that can be equivalent to this phrase in the cultural view of the English language. Another example is that in China, people always think of an owl as scary, but in English, an owl is a powerful bird. Lexicographers must be aware of such differences in all languages. Cross-linguistics always helps in this.<sup>11</sup>

4. **Stylistics** is a term It is derived from the Greek word "stylos" which means <sup>12</sup>*pen*. Like him, "characteristic rhetorical style or style of expression of the author" and "lifestyle, behavior, old French "style", "estile" *style, fashion, style; pile*, means *a writing tool, a writing method, a method of expression, maybe a stick* . From 1814. Means "mode of dressing". <sup>13</sup>It was formed as an independent science in the 20s and 30s of the 20th century. Stylistics differs from other branches of linguistics in several aspects. Stylistics is the study of linguistic style in texts. It's how politicians behave, how poets and writers engage their readers; how advertisers can persuade people to buy their products, and how the media can influence public opinion a focus that can enable students to think critically by developing rigorous methods of linguistic analysis. When we talk about the relationship between stylistics and cross-linguistics, we can see that these two fields are inextricably linked. Today, taking these aspects into account, the term contrastive stylistics is used in science. The question arises as to what this field studies. Contrastive stylistics is a comparative

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<sup>11</sup><https://studylib.net/doc/7791145/the-relation-between-lexicographer-and-linguistics>

<sup>12</sup> Baranova SV Contrastive stylistics and grammar of English and Ukrainian. Sumy State University. Lecture notes. - Ukraine. 2021. - p. 18

<sup>13</sup> <https://www.etymonline.com/word/stylistic>

study of two or more related and non-related languages. The study of comparative stylistics dates back to the middle of the 20th century. One of its founders is Charles Bally. He later wrote "Comparative Typology of French and English Languages" written by the linguist Vini, and "Comparative Typology of French and Russian Languages" by Malblanc, Yu. Fedorov's scientific works "French Stylistics" (based on Russian and French languages) developed further.<sup>14</sup> The object of comparative stylistics is to study the stylistic features of one language by comparing them with another language.

**For example:**

- To become penniless/aflasa
- The Arabs have pioneered many branches of science/kana lil`arabi assabaqu fi: Satta furu`I al ma`rifati

These are two cases of "transposition". The transposition method of translation is often necessary between languages with different grammatical structures.

In the first example, the verb /aflasa/ is represented by the English phrase, in the second example, the verb "to pioneer" is replaced by the Arabic noun /assabaqu/.

- He was blown away (he was surprised) /dhahaba adrâja arriyâhi

This is a case of "modulation", and each language describes the situation differently. Modulation is a technique in which translators try to maintain naturalness by using different forms of the message by changing the point of view. This procedure is usually chosen when translators find that a literal translation may result in an awkward or unnatural translation.

- Give a pint of your blood /tabarrac biqali:lin min damika
- Before you could say Jack Robinson /fi: tarfati c ayn

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<sup>14</sup> Baranova SV Contrastive stylistics and grammar of English and Ukrainian. Sumy State University. Lecture notes. - Ukraine. 2021. - p. 19



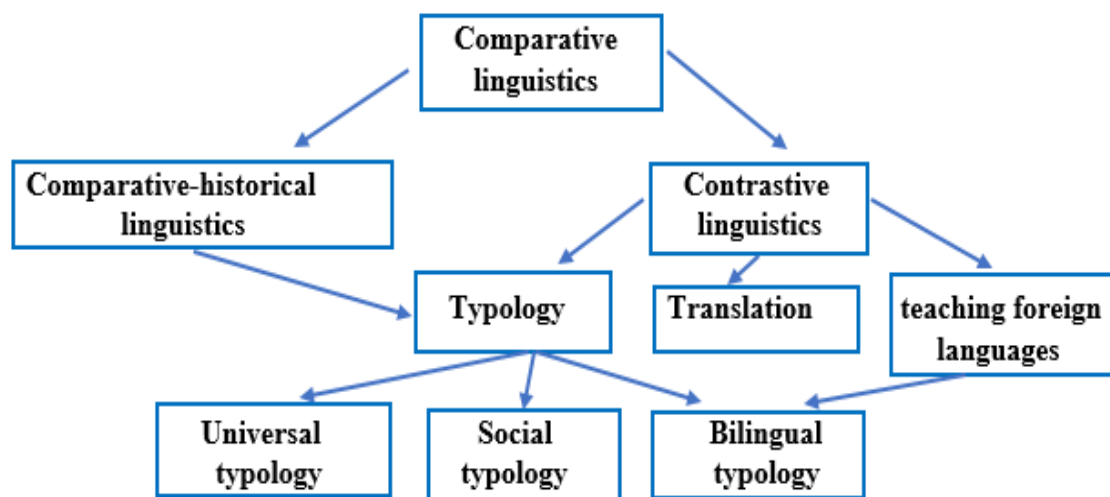
In these two examples, the two cases of "equivalence" revealed the situation using completely different structural and methodological tools. In the first example, the expression " *to give a pint* ", the "pint" being a unit of measure for liquids close to half a liter, is rendered by the Arabic equivalent /tabarrac. *Biqali:lin min* means "donate a part".

In the second example, the English idiom " Before you could say Jack Robinson" meaning " *very quickly or suddenly*" is translated by the expression "Fi tarfati" meaning "in the blink of an eye".

Thus, comparative stylistics includes the comparison of stylistic tools and stylistic speech facts, genres, functional styles, and individual styles in different languages.<sup>15</sup>

The famous Bulgarian linguist A. Danchev reflected the connection of cross-linguistics with other fields as follows.<sup>16</sup>

Figure 4



Contrastive linguistics is also related to linguistic typology, comparative linguistics, and contact linguistics.

<sup>15</sup> Baranova SV Contrastive stylistics and grammar of English and Ukrainian. Sumy State University. Lecture notes. - Ukraine. 2021. - p. 19

<sup>16</sup> Danchev, A. (2001). Contrastive linguistics: Theory and methodology. Sofia: St. Kliment Ohridski University Press.

*Contact linguistics* examines the linguistic outcomes of spoken words between speakers of different languages.

*Linguistic typology* or *Linguistic typology* (Greek: *typos* - copy, model, form, trace and *logos* - word, doctrine) is a field of linguistics that comparatively studies the structural and functional characteristics, regardless of the genetic relationship between languages.

### **Questions about the topic**

1. What kind of subjects is the study of cross-linguistics related to?
2. What do you think is the connection between the science of cross-linguistics and the science of translation?
3. What is the importance of contrastive linguistics in language teaching?
4. How does the science of cross-linguistics relate to stylistics?
5. What is the object of study of contact linguistics?
6. What branch of linguistics is linguistic typology?

### **Topic 3. Comparative method as the main applied method of contrastive linguistics.**

In linguistics, the comparative method is a standardized way of comparing different languages to determine their relationship to each other. The comparative method is based on the principle of regular changes of sounds, in which any changes that occur over time in the sounds of the language occur regularly, without exception. Languages can be analyzed using the comparative method to determine whether they have a common mother tongue, that is, other languages have emerged from several languages. The comparative method can also show which branches of the language family developed earlier or later.

Historical linguistics uses genetics as an analogy to discuss the relationship between languages, so two languages that grew from the same language - English and German - are called sisters, daughters of a single mother tongue.

The comparative method usually uses a large list of words that have the same definitions in the languages being compared. Local words in each language are clarified in order to avoid confusion that may arise as a result of borrowed words. Then the words are compared with each other and the correspondence between the sounds is noted. For example, [f] in German *sound* corresponds to the Latin [p] **sound at the beginning of the word: Latin pater ("father") has the same meaning as German Vater (pronounced Fater).**

In the comparative method, the linguist notes all the correspondences between the languages being compared, and then proceeds to write down sound rules to explain the changes. As mentioned above, this method shows that a sound becomes [p] in Latin and [f] in German. Sound rules should always take into account the position of sounds in a word in correspondence. For example, Latin [p] is only at the beginning of a word in German Matches with [f].

A linguist may use the comparative method when comparing two or more related languages. Proto-Indo-European languages were contrastiveized through the cross-breeding method, and information about the linguistic phenomena of hundreds of European, Middle Eastern, Central and South Asian languages, including Latin and German, was determined.

Since the regular sound change rule implies that there are no exceptions to the sound change rule, anything that appears to be an exception must be investigated and explained in a manner consistent with linguistic principles. The apparent anomaly may be due to the effect of another sound change rule, or to the chronological order in which multiple sound changes occurred, or because the word in question entered the language

after the sound change occurred. After determining the rules of sound changes in the studied languages, the next step of the comparative method is to determine the order in which sound changes occur.

As we have seen, the comparative method is a complex and lengthy process and sometimes provides the most valuable information about the languages in question, and this method is an excellent resource tool for historical linguistics, almost all language genealogies in use today. is responsible for<sup>17</sup>

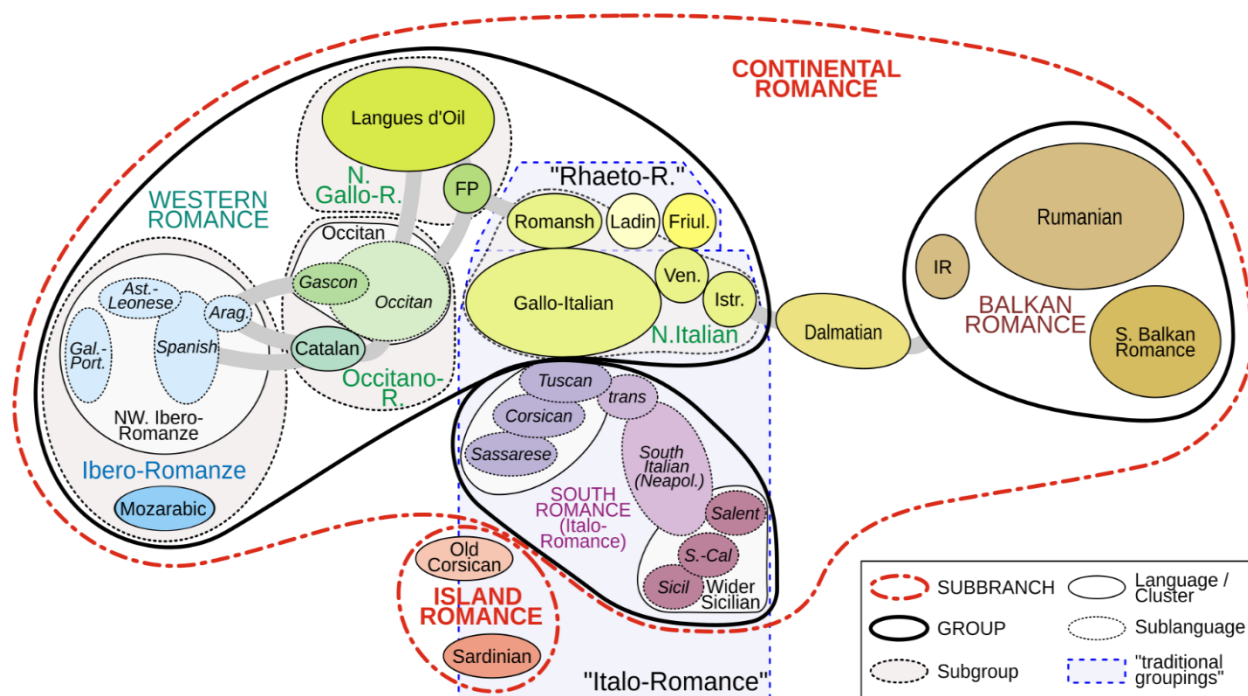
The comparative method appeared at the beginning of the 19th century, and then began to appear in the works of neogrammarians at the end of the 19th and the beginning of the 20th century.[2] Danish scientists Rasmus Rask (1787-1832) and Carl Werner (1846-1896) and German scientist Jacob Grimm (1785-1863) are among the scientists who made important contributions to this field. The linguist August Schleicher (1821–1868) wrote in his *Grammatik der indogermanischen Sprachen Compendium der vergleichenden*, published in 1861: "It is not possible to install one protolanguage for all languages, there were many protolanguages. It should be assumed that there are still alive and there are more languages than now. The goal of the comparative method is to highlight and explain the structural phonological and semantic correspondences between two or more languages. If these correspondences cannot be rationally explained as the result of linguistic universality or language communication (lexicalization, etc.), and if they are sufficiently numerous, regular, and systematic, then they should be dismissed as accidental similarities. won't be. they hypothesized that they descended from a single parent language called a "proto-language".

Linguistic map representing the tree model of Romance languages based on the comparative method. In a family tree, an Euler diagram shows the subregions without connecting them.

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<sup>17</sup> <https://www.languagehumanities.org/what-is-the-comparative-method-in-linguistics.htm>

Figure 5



*The comparative-historical method* is a set of methods and procedures for the historical - genetic study of language families and groups, as well as the languages in question ; The comparative-historical method is used in linguistics to determine the historical laws of language development. This method is the most important tool for learning the history of the language. With the help of the comparative-historical method, it is possible to prove the diachronic gradual development of genetically related languages, their source of origin is the same.

The main goal of the comparative-historical method is to restore (actually "revive") the pattern (image) of some families and groups of related languages in the world in the state of the grandfather language (see Grandfather language), the process of their development and separation into independent languages in later periods, as well as it or it consists of compiling comparative-historical descriptions (grammars and

dictionaries) of languages belonging to this genetic unit. It should also be said that the first signs of the comparative-historical method were found in Eastern philology—M. It is observed in the works of Koshgari, M. Zamakshari, A. Navoi and others.

The main methods of the method are as follows: determining the genetic affiliation of linguistic data, determining the system of similarities and dissimilarities at different levels of the languages being compared, modeling the first ancestral language forms, determining the chronological and regional distribution limits of linguistic phenomena and situations, and on this basis, carrying out the genealogical classification of languages. Comparison is a universal method of linguistic research, and it is also the main, priority method in the Comparative-historical method. The most important feature of this method is the procedure (method) of reconstruction (restoration), which is carried out by identifying similarities at all levels of the language. Comparative reconstruction (which is based on the comparison of certain phenomena in different languages) and internal reconstruction ( which is based on the comparison of linguistic phenomena belonging to different periods within the same language) are mutually different.<sup>18</sup>

### **Questions about the topic**

1. , which is the main method used in comparative linguistics ?
2. In what way does the comparative method study languages?
3. What do you think about the relationship between the comparative method and the comparative-historical method?
4. How does the comparative-historical method differ from the comparative method?
5. In which works can we see the first signs of the comparative-historical method?
6. What are the important features of the comparative-historical method?

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<sup>18</sup>[https://uz.wikipedia.org/wiki/Comparative-historical\\_method](https://uz.wikipedia.org/wiki/Comparative-historical_method)

**Topic 4. Famous scientists who worked in the field of contrastive linguistics and their contributions in this field. Suggestions and proposals from the linguists-professors J. Buronov and U. Yusupov.**

After the Second World War, close cooperation between the peoples of different countries and difficulties in learning foreign languages, translation and interpretation of foreign texts, many comparative studies on foreign languages and native languages - textbooks, study guides, gave rise to articles and essays. A few centuries ago, while studying the African and Indian languages, some of which were spoken by various tribes, scientists compiled alphabets and grammar books for these languages, and the basis of phonetic and grammatical elements in the structure of some or all languages. They paid attention to their similarities. As a result of their study of the unique and similar features of African and Indian languages, the first typological linguistic studies appeared.

Traditionally, contrastive linguistics is defined as a branch of general linguistics that reveals and studies specific individual linguistic features of certain languages and typological features specific to language groups.

It is very important to distinguish between comparative (contrastive) linguistics and typology, which are different directions specific to one branch of linguistics. The famous linguist Yu. O. Zhluktenko states that cross-linguistics is not an independent science, but a part of comparative linguistics. The object of his study is various languages, and he studies their structure and individual characteristics. Some scholars claim that cross-sectional analysis was the first step to typological analysis.

Contrastive linguistics is not a purely practical field of linguistics, it is a theory of classification of languages and languages according to their types. The problem of simultaneous comparison of different languages is attracting attention of linguists. The first attempt to describe the comparative characteristics of different European languages was recorded at the beginning of the 20th century. V. Vietor (1904) compared some phonetic features of German, English and French languages, while Professor Thomson

of Odessa University published several articles and essays on the comparative description of Russian, Ukrainian and Armenian languages (Thomson AI, 1912, 1922).

Russian scientists IABoudin-de-Courtenay, VABogoroditsky, EDPolivanov and others defined some principles of comparison and comparison of languages. In 1936, VMatesius of the famous "Prague School of Linguistics" showed the importance and necessity of synchronic comparative linguistic analysis. VMatesius wrote that the synchronic comparative method of research contributed to a deeper analysis of the language.

In 1953, V. Weinrich, another representative of the "Prague Linguistic School", put forward an important scientifically based proposal about the differential description (combination) of languages. Another linguist E. Naugen put forward a new theoretical concept. E. Naugen in his two-volume monograph entitled "Norwegian language in America" (1953) explained the concept of dialinguistics-synchronous comparative studies. The eminent scholar Daniel Jones, the "Father of English Phonetics," was one of the first to systematically compare English with French pronunciation. In all editions and reprints of his popular *An Outline of English phonetics*, he compares English pronunciation with French, advising French learners to avoid mistakes in English, a foreign language to them.

Linguists usually mention two main types of contrastive analysis.

- 1) If languages are compared on the basis of one of the analyzed languages, and one of them is used as a sample, the cross-sectional analysis is called one-sided. One-way cross-sectional analysis is widely used in the comparison and analysis of foreign language learners with their native language.
- 2) Cross-sectional analysis, according to which both compared languages are studied from the point of view of a third language system, such an analysis is called bilateral.

What languages can be analyzed as a third language?

1. a living language that can act as a mediator in communication;



2. a dead language fixed in an unchanging state (Latin, ancient Greek);
3. artificial language used in the process of typological analysis of languages;
4. A special metalanguage created as a system of methods to provide the most objective and accurate description of other languages.

The one-way method of cross-sectional analysis is the most common. In Ukraine, comparative linguistics and typological analysis of different languages began to be used in the middle of the 20th century.

In 1952, a comparison of foreign and Ukrainian languages was carried out on the basis of experimental studies. Educational manuals "Analysis of Consonants in Modern Ukrainian and German Languages" (Prokopova LI1952) and "Comparative Analysis of English and Ukrainian Vowel and Consonant Systems" were created.

In 1957, a group of linguists published the first cross-reference manual entitled "Cross-Grammar of Ukrainian and English Languages". (Baymut TV, Baychuk MK, Volinsky MK, Jovtobryukh MA and Samoilenko SP, 1957).

"Comparative Grammar of Ukrainian and English" (Kayktenko 10.0., 1960) based on an experimental bilingual cross-analysis of the phonetic system of English and Ukrainian languages in the 1960s, a fundamental textbook for teachers and a manual "English Phonetics" (Brovchenko) T., Band I., 1964) was published.

The above-mentioned scientific works, the results of original cross-sectional research were a valuable resource not only for teachers and students of English and German whose mother tongue is Ukrainian, but also for translators.

Yu. O. Zhluktenko in his article "Cross-analysis as a method of speech investigation" (1979) stated that cross-linguistics is not an independent science, but has the same subject and purpose, the nature of different languages and their own. He emphasized that it is a branch of linguistics that studies the characteristics of linguistics and mentioned that it differs from linguistics only in the method-synchronous comparative method.

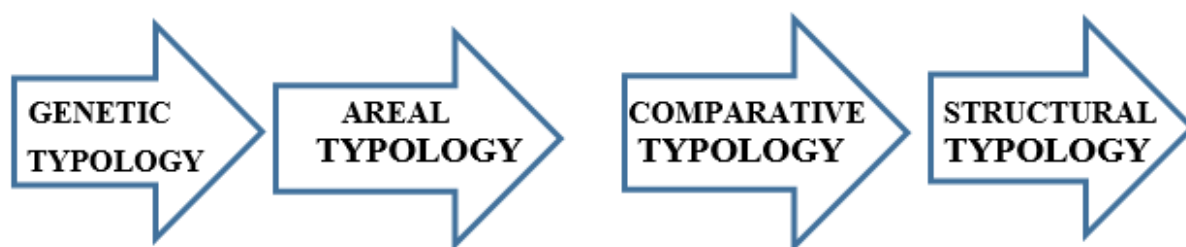
V.N.Bublik analyzes the process of teaching a foreign language based on the mother tongue from the point of view of epistemology (theory of science) and describes the specific features of this process. It gives examples of its difficulties and complexity. In the introduction to the work "The Basis of Contrastive Analysis of Speech", Yu. O. Zhluktenko analyzes the history of the development of contrastive linguistics, discusses its main problems and the subject of contrastive linguistics, the difference between contrastive and typological studies, contrastive and the relationship between the theoretical and pragmatic aspects of typological analysis, the conjunctive analysis model, and other aspects. (Jluktenko Yu.O., 1981).

Comparative linguistics continued to develop rapidly in different countries of the world from the 1970s to the end of the 20th century. A similar rapid development was observed in the field of comparative phonetics. Contrastive linguistics divides phonetic studies into three main directions:

- a. contrastive linguistics theory;
- b. methods of cross-linguistic analysis of speech;
- c. comparative linguistic analysis of phonetic features and structure of different languages.

Languages in comparative classification, linguists-scientists relied on different methods. In this regard, Dr. Boranov said that the following classification provides an opportunity to more clearly understand the convergence of languages.

*Figure 6*



Structural typology is more clearly understood on the basis of 4 main linguistic phenomena.

1. Typological theory. Typological theory defines the general linguistic concepts used in comparative typology. Typological theory is used to determine isomorphism (common features) and allomorphy (distinctive features) in the process of cross-linguistics.
2. Typological classification is opposed to genealogical classification and is concerned with the classification of languages according to their taxonomic/systematic characteristics and the identification of structural types of languages.
3. A standard language is a language that is compared to other languages such as Latin in the Middle Ages or that is accepted as a standard language. This concept was developed by the Russian linguist Uspensky. He argued that any typology is based on a metalanguage, which is the same as a standard language, from which transformations are made to real languages and from real languages to the standard (Uspenskyj 1965).
4. Language universals are linguistic phenomena common to all languages. For example, all languages have nouns and verbs, or all spoken languages have consonants and vowels. Research in this field of linguistics is closely related to linguistic typology, mainly in this field the linguist Joseph Greenberg created a set of universals based on the analysis of about thirty languages, and languages are analyzed mainly syntactically.<sup>19</sup>

### **Questions about the topic**

1. What kind of scientists do you know who worked in the field of Chogishtirma linguistics?
2. How many types of contrastive analysis do linguists usually distinguish?

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<sup>19</sup>MIRASulova. ZISHukurova. Comparative typology of English, Uzbek and Russian languages. The manual. Tashkent. 2017. - p. 14.

3. What is the importance of contrastive analysis in language research?
4. Professor Jamol Boranov's thoughts on the typological classification of languages...?
5. What are your thoughts on language universals?
6. What languages are standard languages?

**Topic 5. History of typological studies. "Port-Royal Grammar" by A. Arnault and K. Lancelot, "Devonu Lug'atit-Turk" by M. Kashgari, "Muhokamatul Lug'atayn" by A. Navoi. Formation of comparative-historical linguistics as a science.**

Typology is formed from the Greek words *typos* (type), *logos* (science) and it is related to all sciences. Typology is a field that studies the structure and functional characteristics of languages, such as comparative linguistics and contrastive linguistics. Typology is divided into 2 types:

1. Typology not related to language
2. Typology of languages.

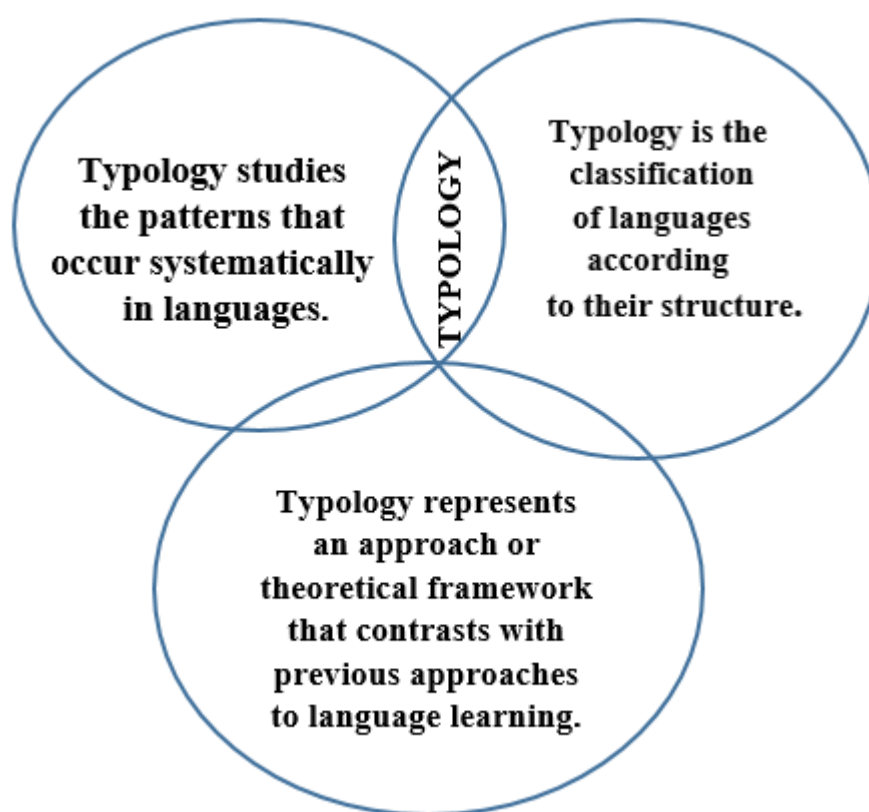
The first type of typology covers all areas except linguistics. It is political typology, medical, historical, psychological, mathematical, economic and other types of typology. This direction studies generalities and specificities characteristic of all disciplines. Some fields require systematic comparative studies of specific groups. For example: Aristotle used the word comparative psychology in the process of comparing psychological similarities between humans and animals. The term comparative psychology was used by Charles Darwin.

Comparative pedagogy studies various general and specific features of the educational process, developmental methods, practical applications, educational methods, economic, socio-political and philosophical views.

Historical typology, based on the study of historical data, develops a comparative inventory based on the comparison of similar and different customs and traditions of each nation and people.

William Croft's book "Typology and Universality" states that the term typology can be partially synonymous with the word taxonomy/classification and defines it as follows.

*Figure 7*



Linguistic typology studies language systems on the basis of comparison. Some linguists consider linguistic typology to be a branch of general linguistics, while others consider it an independent science of language. But it has its own subject, its own methods, networks and historical development.

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

There are two approaches to describing a language:

1) internal 2) external.

The first approach studies any specific national language system. The second approach studies unrelated systems, that is, English-Uzbek, English-Russian, etc. A typology can compare language systems panchronically, whether living or dead, and can also compare language systems synchronically and diachronically. When a linguist studies a language diachronically, he deals with a certain period. The synchronous approach is dynamic. Typology is a linguistic approach that is not limited by time. Linguistic typology compares genetically related and unrelated language systems. The comparison may or may not be significant. Substantial comparison is a comparison of some concrete things or objects. A trivial comparison is a comparison of systems and their elements. For example, we can compare the grammatical structure of different languages.

Linguistic typology has become an independent science or a branch of general linguistics based on comparative historical philology. Yu.V. Rozhdestvensky writes that languages are considered related or not related depending on their content. Today, some prominent linguists do comparative studies of language systems. Yu.V. Rozhdestvensky, B. Uspensky, V.G. Gak, G.P. Melnikov, J. Buranov, U. Yusupov and others.

The subject of linguistic typology is still a controversial issue, as different scholars have had their understanding of this problem. Therefore, there are two approaches to this problem. The first linguistic typology is a separate field of science that includes all types of comparisons. This is the feeling of the board. Second, linguistic typology is a branch of linguistics that opposes traditional comparative linguistics, characterization, and areal linguistics. In this case, it is determined by structural typology.

The main importance of linguistic typology is that the latter works by limiting the number of languages that can be compared. The first group of linguists believes that the number of languages being compared should be unlimited. In such cases, we are dealing with linguistic universals. The second group of scholars suggests that the number of languages to be compared should be limited to related languages. A third group of linguists think that the number of comparable languages may even be two, including related or unrelated languages.

Linguistic typology can be classified according to the following criteria:

- 1) according to the subject of comparison it consists
  - a. genetic typology
  - b. regional typology
  - c. comparative typology
  - d. structural typology (typological theory, typological classification, standard language, language universals).
- 2) consists of linguistic typology according to the levels of language hierarchy
  - a. theoretical typology
  - b. phonological typology
  - c. morphological typology
  - d. syntactic typology
  - e. lexical typology
- 3) it consists of two plans of the language
  - a. formal typology
  - b. semantic typology<sup>20</sup>

Comparative typology not only systematizes languages, but also classifies and explains languages according to isomorphic and allomorphic features of languages. The history of typological studies is divided into 4 main periods.

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<sup>20</sup> <https://referat.yabotanik.ru/inostrannye-yazyki/the-subject-matter-of-the-linguistics>

1. Evolutionary period. This period is the period when the earliest linguistic works appeared. In ancient Greece, languages were studied as part of philosophy, and the famous Greek philosophers Aristotle and Protagoras mainly paid attention to studying the compatibility of linguistic phenomena in languages with their names. Differentiating words from each other according to their gender category, use of singular or plural number, type of agreement, personal number, meaning of words and sentences, which part of the sentence they are used in. determined. The grammatical classification of languages is based on pre-developed grammatical rules based on certain norms. For example, the earliest European languages were developed based on Latin grammar.

2. The period when the first scientific linguistic works were published. During this period, A. Arno and K. Lancelot created the Port-Royal grammar related to Indo-European languages. This grammar made a significant contribution to the development of comparative typology. It was developed in 1660 by 2 French monks in the small abbey of Port-Royal on the outskirts of Paris. It is a synthesis of linguistic and philosophical ideas of that time. Based on the criteria and principles developed by A. Arno and K. Lancelot, languages with different genealogical origins and typological structures (French, Latin, Greek, and ancient Jewish languages) were compared. Comparative study of Turkic languages is related to Mahmud Kashgari's work "Devonu lug'otit turk". The famous scientist and writer analyzed the Turkic languages phonetically, grammatically, and lexically according to the degree of interrelationship. As a result of comparative studies, "The Mongolian-Persian Dictionary" was published in Egypt in 1245, and "Latin- "Persian Kipchak dictionary" was created. A. Navoi's work "Muhokamat ul-lug'otayn" (discussion of two languages) provides information about the inconsistencies between two unrelated languages, Uzbek and Persian.



3. The period associated with the development of comparative-historical linguistics. In the middle of the 19th century, the genealogical and typological relationship of languages was expressed as follows.

4. The period associated with the formation of comparative typology as an independent science. This period includes scientific-literary, linguistic works of the 20th century. Scientists of this period began to determine the reasons for the emergence of the science of comparative linguistics. And they attributed it to the following 7 reasons.

1. Typological imitation.
2. Historical-comparative method
3. The process of learning unlearned languages
4. The development of translation
5. The process of creating a dictionary
6. Discover new universal methods
7. Learning foreign languages

### **Questions about the topic.**

1. What does typology study?
2. What can you say about the relationship between the science of typology and disciplines such as comparative linguistics and cross-linguistics?
3. How many periods is the history of typological research divided into?
4. How many periods can we see the processes related to the formation of comparative typology as an independent science?
5. What were the assumptions of linguists A. Arno and K. Lancelot to typology?
6. What do you know about Port Royal grammar?

## **Topic 6. Cross-research problems at the phonetic and phonological levels of different languages for linguistic, linguodidactic and translation purposes.**

Identify comparative principles of language networks. Interference problems.

**Phonetics** ( Greek : *phonetikos* - relating to sound, making a sound; sonorous, voiced) - 1) methods of formation of speech sounds and acoustic properties of linguistics; syllable, a part of speech that is separated by a pause. At the same time, some linguists expand the object of their study by adding written expressions of sound units (graphics) and writing rules of meaningful units (spelling) to the scope of phonetics (Russian scientist LV Shcherba). In the framework of phonetics in Uzbek linguistics, mainly speech sounds, their articulatory, acoustic, perceptive (psychophonic), and functional aspects. and tone (syllable, phrase, accent, etc.) are studied.

The study of the mechanism of the formation of speech sounds began in the 17th century, and arose from the need to teach deaf people (the works of XP Bonet from Spain, J. Wilkins from England, I. Amman from the Netherlands). The study of the sound side of the language from a linguistic point of view in all its aspects is observed for the first time in the work of the German scientist E. Sievers "Principles of Sound Physiology" (1876, 2nd edition called "Principles of Phonetics", 1881). IA Baudouin de Courtenay and his students VA Bogoroditsky and LVShcherba made an important contribution to the development of general phonetics in Russia with their works.

Phonetics is related to other areas of language because without sound, stress, and intonation, there is no syllable, word, phrase, or rune. Because of this, phonetics is considered a language stage related to lexis, morphology, syntax and stylistics. Phonetics is closely related to phonology. 2) acoustic and articulatory (physiological) characteristics of sounds characteristic of a certain language, phonetic structure of a certain language. For example, the phonetics of the Uzbek language.

**Phonology** (phone and logos) is a branch of linguistics that studies the structural (structural) and functional (functional) laws of the construction of language sounds, the structure and practical use of the smallest, non-meaningful units of the language - syllables, Phonology differs from phonetics in that its focus is not on sounds themselves as physical phenomena, but on the study of their role in speech as more complex meaningful units - morphemes, words. Because of this, phonology is sometimes called functional phonetics. Russo-Czech linguist NStrubetskoy determined that the relationship between phonology and phonetics is such that the beginning of any phonological description is the identification of sound contrasts that distinguish meaning, and the phonetic description is taken as a starting point and a material basis.<sup>21</sup>

The main unit of phonology is the phoneme, the main object of research is the contradictions (oppositions) of phonemes, which together form the phonological system of the language.

Scientific literature emphasizes the need to pay attention to the principles of formation of phonological systems in these languages, not to the similarities and differences in the phonemic system of the languages being compared, in the research conducted on the phonological layer [5, 83]. It is known that each level takes a specific microsystem. Okyusupov said that the object of study of the science of phonology (phonetics) includes phonemes (speech sounds), syllables, stress and intonation. Language phenomena associated with these units serve as a basis for comparison. However, based on the experience of learning a foreign language, it can be said that "one-by-one" comparison of the articulation of individual sounds representing phonemes does not help to learn the pronunciation norms of the language being learned, to speak. without "accent".

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<sup>21</sup> <https://uz.wikipedia.org/wiki/Phonetics>

The development of comparative typological phonetics has brought to light the problems existing at the phonetic level of various related and non-related languages today, which requires today's linguists and scientists to find a solution based on scientific research in this field.

For example, when we refer to English and Spanish phonemes, linguist-scientist Stanley Whitley's "A Course in Spanish Linguistics. We refer to the work as "Spanish/English contrastive". The scientist points out the inconsistency in the sound system of the English and Spanish languages.

In Spanish, some phonemes do not exist in English, and they are called "unshared consonants" according to the scientist. Available in English sounds **dʒ, ʒ, tʃ, ʃ, θ, ð, ŋ** do not exist in Spanish, these sounds are represented in Spanish by allophones of other phonemes. But in Spanish, they do not differ from other phonemes and therefore they do not form a minimal pair. <sup>22</sup>The Spanish sound [d] in the word *day* and in the word *then* [g] they cannot distinguish the sound.

There is no difference between long and short vowels in Russian and English. English has about 20 vowel sounds (including diphthongs), while Russian has only 5. The sounds /th/ and /ð/, /w/ and /v/, which do not exist in Russian, cause confusion in translation, and /ŋ/ leads to problematic problem situations. The English word Homer *is translated in the form of Homer*, in the form of *Hercules-Hercules*, and a transcription event occurs. In English, the words "William" and "Whitney" related to the names are translated as "Вильям" and "Whitney" in Russian. The word William is considered an international name, and it is expressed differently in different languages. *Wilhelm* in German and Polish, *Guillaume* in French, *Wilhelm* in Scandinavian, Hungarian, Finnish, *Willem* in Dutch, *Wilhelms* in Lithuanian, *William* in Slovak, *Wilhelmo* in Esperanto, *Guillermo* in Spanish, *Guilherme* in Portuguese, *William* in Irish *Uilleam* is in Scots, *Vilém* in Czech, *Ouiliam* in Greek and *Hokozo*.

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<sup>22</sup> Stanley Whitley, M. 2002. –p.17

### Phonetic system of Arabic and English.

Word stress is often observed in Arabic. In English, word stress can change the meaning of a word. For example: if object (item)-noun is considered a word group, object (to resist) is a verb word group. However, the accent of the word in Arabic does not affect the meaning of the word. The difference is determined only by the pronunciation of words consisting of short sounds. But the meaning of such words can be determined only through the words associated with it.

### Sound reduction

Falling sounds are normal in English. For example, we often witness cases where the sound drops when pronouncing the words *dunno* (I don't know), *wanna* (I want to), *kamra* (camera) or *cap`n* (*captain*). This situation is not observed in the pronunciation of Arabic words, because the spelling of words is very closely related to the sound made by letters, therefore, as a rule, any letter sound is not excluded.<sup>23</sup>

Comparing the phonetics of the French and Uzbek languages, we can see that there is a big difference in the sound system between them.

1. There are 15 vowels in French and 6 in Uzbek.
2. French has nasal vowels, Uzbek does not. The letters "a, am, en, em" give a nasal sound: enfant [ f ], ensemble [ s bl]
3. Consonants at the end of words are not voiceless in French, but in Uzbek they are voiceless: school (bp); lemonade (dt);
4. French has short and long vowels, but Uzbek does not;
5. French has more open vowels than Uzbek;
6. There are 8 labial vowels in French and 2 in Uzbek.<sup>24</sup>

Phonological interference is a common type of interference, the most prominent of which is the "foreign accent". The word finger is transcribed in English in two forms.

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<sup>23</sup> <https://www.daytranslations.com/blog/interpreting-english-arabic>

<sup>24</sup> MAUSmanova. Importance of comparative study of French phonetics. Article. Scientific progress. Volume 2. Issue 5. 2021 .

In British English [fɪŋgə(r)] and American English Pronounced as [fɪŋgər]. However, most Dutch people mispronounce <sup>25</sup>this word as [fɪŋə] and it leads to a phonological interference phenomenon.

The main interference phenomenon related to the pronunciation of English words is reflected in the table below.

№	Phonetic interferences	In "Collins dictionary".	A mistake made by students	Original pronunciation standards	Incorrect pronunciation forms	Word
1.	Vowel alternation	ɔ:l	ʌ:	ɔ:	ʌ	all
2.	Vowel alternation	kæmp.sait	kʌmp.sait	æ	ʌ	campsite
		kæmp.sait	kæmp.sɪt	ai	i	
3.	Vowel alternation	frai.dei	fri.der	ai	i	friday
4.	Vowel alternation	houm	hom	oh	o	home
5.	Vowel alternation	i:ts	do	i:	e	each
6.	Vowel alternation	f ʌn	fun	ʌ	she is	fun
7.	Vowel contraction	wi:k	wiki	i:	i	week
8.	Vowel contraction	bi:	bi	i:	i	be
9	Consonant alternation	Celtic	Celtic	k	s	celtic
10.	Consonant alternation	a chemist	tʃ emitter	k	tʃ	a chemist
11.	Consonant alternation	thri:	three:	Th	t	three
12.	Consonant drop	mem. bers	mem.ber	-	-p	members

<sup>25</sup> <http://www.glotopedia.org/index.php/Interference>

## **The English word is Silhet-Bengali pronunciation**

fl ɔ : ɸlour “floor”

m ɔ :(r) mour “more”

bel bɛl "bell"

fɒləʊ ɸ ɔ l ɔ “follow”

nju:zpeɪpə niuzɸeɪpə “newspaper”

nəʊtɪs nu[tɪʃ] “notice”

The phenomenon of interference is manifested in various fields of linguistics, and many studies related to this process should be conducted.

### **Questions about the topic**

1. What does phonetics study?
2. How does phonetics relate to other subjects?
3. What is the difference between phonetics and phonology?
4. What branch of linguistics is functional phonetics?
5. What type of phonological interference is interference?
6. In what century did the study of the mechanism of formation of speech sounds begin?

### **7th lecture. Cross-research problems at the morphological and syntactic levels of different languages for linguistic, lingua didactic, and translation purposes**

**Morphology** (Greek morphe - form and logos-teaching) 1) morphological construction of language; 2) the doctrine of word forms. In the first sense, it means an object, and in the second sense, it means the branch of linguistics that studies this object. It is also divided into 3 large groups: 1) independent word groups; 2) auxiliary words; 3) intermediate words (separate words)

Morphology studies word groups, their specific grammatical meanings, grammatical categories specific to each group, grammatical forms, and grammatical meanings that

create these categories. Just as language is a system, so its morphology is a unique system. In turn, the morphological system consists of specific sub-systems. At the same time, comparing the morphological system of languages makes it easier to identify their differences and similarities, because morphology is the main direction of linguistics. Their type is also <sup>26</sup>of great importance when comparing related and non-related languages. What types of languages are there? They are amorphous, inflectional, agglutinative, and polysynthetic languages.

Amorphous (root) languages, liquid Chinese, Bamana, and Annam, are the languages of the peoples of South-East Asian countries. The vocabulary of these languages mainly consists of monosyllabic words and roots, which do not have the characteristics of type and accentuation. Therefore, in these languages, there are only word-forming affixes and loadings that act as auxiliary words. Word order is important in native languages.

In agglutinative languages (Turkic, Bantu, Mongolian, Finno-Ugric languages), words consist of a root and affixes attached to it, and the morphological structure of the word (root and affix) is distinguished. Each affix has a meaning and a function. For example, in Turkish languages, including Uzbek, artificial words and word forms are formed by adding affixes to the base with a certain consistency, and each of the affixes participates with its meaning: to our pickers.

Inflectional languages are characterized by the fact that affixes merge with the root and are absorbed into it. In such languages, grammatical meanings are expressed by inflection. For example: in Arabic *books* (singular) - *kutub* (plural), in Russian *drug* (singular) - like *druzya* (plural). Inflectional languages are also divided into synthetic and analytic languages.

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<sup>26</sup> <https://uz.wikipedia.org/wiki/Morphology>

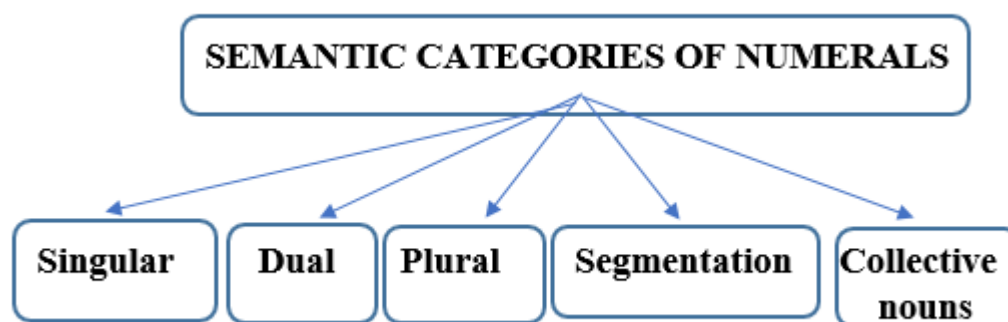


- In synthetic languages, grammatical meanings (interaction of words in a sentence) are expressed using form-forming affixes (for example: Russian , German languages).
- , grammatical meanings are expressed not using word forms (form-forming adverbs), but by auxiliary words, word order, tone (for example: English , French , Spanish languages).

In polysynthetic languages (for example, North American Indian languages ), the main speech unit is the word. It is not possible to establish a strict boundary between the classified languages because some linguistic phenomena that occur in one language can also be found in others. For example: Oceanic languages can be described as both amorphous languages and agglutinative languages.<sup>27</sup>

When we directly compare words and phrases in English and other languages, we will focus on their singular and plural forms. We can analyze the semantic category of number in all languages using the following scheme.

*Figure 8.*



The singular and plural forms of numbers are familiar to everyone. However, the binary form of number is a process that does not occur in all languages. Dual number exists in Indo-European languages, which have a double form across nouns, verbs, and

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<sup>27</sup>[https://uz.wikipedia.org/wiki/Morphological\\_classification\\_of\\_languages](https://uz.wikipedia.org/wiki/Morphological_classification_of_languages)

adjectives; It can still be found in several modern Indo-European languages such as Irish, Scottish Gaelic, Lithuanian, Slovenian. If the dual number mainly represents 2 persons or 2 objects, the plural category is used to indicate 3 or more persons and objects. For example: in Irish, *lahm-hands* (singular), *dha laimh* - two hands (dual), *tri lamh* - three hands (plural).

Nama<sup>28</sup> language has 3 different stems and 3 different number categories.

The categories of gender	Singular	Dual	Plural	Original meaning
<b>Feminine</b>	piris	pirira	piridi	<i>goat-echki</i>
<b>Masculine</b>	arib	arikha	arigu	<i>Dog-it</i>
<b>Neutral</b>	khoe-i	khoera	khoen	<i>People-odamlar</i>

We know that in English, the word *advice* is a singular uncountable noun. In contrast to English, *a little bit of advice in German, Rat says*, some *advice- comes in the form of die Räte*. There are three forms of this word in Semitic languages: singular, dual, and plural. For example: in Arabic *نصيحة* - advice, *نصائح* - tips, *نصائح* - like a pair of tips. In Yiddish *yw'z* [yoetz] *advice*; *yw'zym* [yoetzim] *tips*; *yw'zyym* [yoetzaim] *two pairs of advice*. In Tatar, the plural form is formed by agglutination (addition) as in Uzbek: *kiñesh* [kiɳ ə sh] - advice, *kiñeshler* [kiɳ ə shl ə r] - advice. In Japanese, which belongs to the Altaic language family, the singular and plural forms of this word have the same form, that is, *quàngào* [kankoku] - advice, advice.<sup>29</sup>In

<sup>28</sup> A dialect continuum common in Namibia as well as Botswana and South Africa. Usually considered a single language, in this case the largest in a macrofamily.

<sup>29</sup> Nailya G. Mingazova, Vitaly G. Subicha and Liya Shangaraeva. The semantic morphological category of noun number in structurally different languages. Article. International journal of environmental and scientific education. 2016, Vol.11, No.15, 8387-8402

different languages, the same subject and things may not match in singular and plural. We see this in the English plural form of the words *binoculars (binoculars)*, *compasses (circular)* in German, *das Fernglas (binoculars)*, *der Zirkel* We can see by using the words (*circular*) together.

Segmentation. Segmentation is derived expressions - segmentators that form the plural form of the number. In English, the indefinite article gives these collective nouns the sense of unity: a piece of iron, an item of news, a lump of sugar , a chunk of bread. Using the indefinite article can sometimes change the meaning of a word. (paper – a paper (newspaper), wood – a wood (forest)).<sup>30</sup>

Collective nouns are the names of a collection or of several people or things. Examples of collective nouns are group, herd, and array.

- Our **class** took a field trip to the history museum.
- Our class went on a trip to the history museum
- The **herd** of bison ran across the prairie, leaving a massive dust cloud in its wake.

A herd of bison ran across the prairie, leaving behind a huge cloud of dust.<sup>31</sup>

Languages are also characterized by the presence or absence of the genus category. For example: English, Uzbek, Finnish, Turkish languages do not have a rod category. Italian, Spanish, French, and Danish languages have 2 rod categories, while Ukrainian, Russian, and German languages have 3 rod categories. In languages that do not have a gender category, words related to the female and male genders are expressed by pronouns such as *feel, her, and it* . Sometimes, some nouns and morphological tools indicate the gender of a person or an object.

For example: through the morpheme: boy-friend, girl-friend

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<sup>30</sup> Nailya G. Mingazova, Vitaly G. Subicha and Liya Shangaraeva. The semantic morphological category of noun number in structurally different languages. Article. International journal of environmental and scientific education. 2016, Vol.11, No.15, 8387-8402

<sup>31</sup><https://www.gingersoftware.com/content/grammar-rules/nouns/collective-nouns/>

through suffixes: actor-actress

through stem change: king-queen;

Although there is no gender category in the Uzbek language, some grammatical tools, nouns, and adjectives serve to fulfill this task, as in English.

For example: through the morpheme: a woman, a man merchant,

through suffixes: secretary-secretary, teacher-teacher,

through stem change: like parents, and grandparents. As in English, in Uzbek, some adjectives are not used with words belonging to all stem categories. If we take the words *pahlavon*, *oktam*, *mard*, these words mainly require words belonging to the male gender. *Hurliqo*, *beautiful*, *delicate* qualities represent the characteristics of a woman. A brave boy is like a beautiful girl.

Determining the stem category in French is very difficult, and it requires a strong memory from the learner of this language. We can see in the table below that there are many special suffixes related to stem categories in words related to a single noun group.<sup>32</sup>

Suffixes of masculine nouns (90%)	Suffixes of feminine nouns (90%)
-an, -and, -ant, -ent, -in, -int, -om, -ond, -ont, -on (does not come after s/c) -eau, -au, -aud, -aut, -o, -os, -ot -ai, -ais, -ait, -es, -et -ou, -out, -out, -oux -i, -il, -it, -is, -y -at, -as, -ois, -oit -u, -us, -ut, -eu -er, -é after C (C=t). -age, -ege, -ème, -ome, -aume, -isme -as, -is, -os, -us, -ex -it, -est -al, -el, -il, -ol, -eul, -all	-aie, -oue, -eue, -ion, -te, -ée, -ie, -ue -asse, -ace, -esse, -ece, -aisse, -isse/-ice, -ousse, -ance, -anse, -ence, -once -enne, -onne, -une, -ine, -aine, -eine, -erne -ande, -ende, -onde, -ade, -ude, -arde, -orde -euse, -ouse, -ase, -aise, -ese, -oïse, -ise, -yse, -ose, -use -ache, -iche, -eche, -oche, -uche, -ouche, -anche -ave, -eve, -ive -iere, -ure, -eure

<sup>32</sup><https://frenchtogether.com/french-nouns-gender/>

-if, -ef -ac, -ic, -oc, -etc -am, -um, -en -air, -er, -erf, -ert, -ar, -arc, -ars, - art, -our, -ours, -or, -ord, -ors, - ort, -ir, -oir, -eur ( if live) -ail, -eil, -euil, -ueil -ing	-ette, -ete, – ête, -atte, -otte, - oute, -orte, -ante, -ente, -inte, - onte -alle, -elle, -ille, -olle -aille, -eille, -ouille -appe, -ampe, -ombe -igue
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### Questions about the topic

1. What does morphology study?
2. What are the similarities and differences in the morphological system of related and non-related languages?
3. What do you know about the semantic category of number?
4. What is segmentation?
5. How is the rod category expressed in agglutinative languages?
6. What do you understand by morphological means?

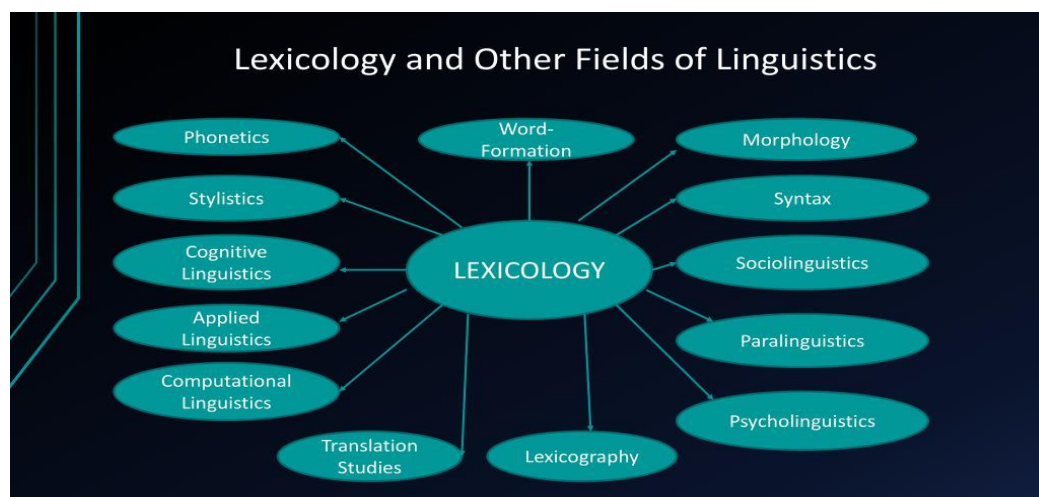
### **Topic 8. Cross-research problems at the lexical and phraseological levels of different languages for linguistic, didactic, and translation purposes. Identifying comparative principles of language networks. Interference problems.**

Lexicology comes from the Greek words *lexis* "word" and *logos* "study". The branch of linguistics that deals with the vocabulary of a language. The total of all the words in the language. Lexicology studies various lexical units: words, inflectional n word groups, and units that make up phraseological words and morphemes.<sup>33</sup>

<sup>33</sup> <https://uz.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lexicology>

Lexicology is closely related to such areas of linguistics as lexicography , phraseology , semasiology or semantics , etymology , stylistics, and the doctrine of word formation. One of the main problems of lexicology is the existence of a word as an independent language unit. In lexicology, issues such as semantically interconnected words, i.e. monosemy, polysemy, synonymy, antonymy, and independent or dependent meanings of words are studied. It also analyzes the standards of use in colloquial and literary languages, issues such as professionalism, <sup>34</sup>dialectism , archaism , neologism, and standardization of lexicalized word combinations and draws certain conclusions about them.

*Figure 9.*



When thinking about the lexicology of the Uzbek language, we should also take into account its etymological features. We can witness that the lexical system of the Uzbek language is enriched not only based on local words but also based on borrowing from other languages. Words related to economics and politics have been adopted from Western European languages: auditor, barter, broker, dealer (dealer), engineering (engineering), clearing (clearing), consulting (consulting), dumping (dumping). , provider, management, transfer, summit, briefing, congress, symposium, department,

<sup>34</sup><https://uz.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lexicology>

parliament, speaker, regulation (regulation), grant (grant) and so on. Through the English language, mainly professional terms have been adopted: auditor, advisor, underwriter, attorney, bondholder, jobber, distributor, insider, copywriter, sponsor, and hacker.<sup>35</sup>

In addition to the Uzbek language, words from Arabic, Tajik, Russian, and other languages have also been adopted, and they are mainly socio-political, family-related words, science, culture, education, and fiction. and words related to religion.<sup>36</sup>

*The words cup, kitchen, mill, port, wine, nun, and candle* entered the English language through the Latin language, while the words *table and plate* were borrowed from the French language in the 8th-11th centuries. During the acquisition of languages from other languages, many linguistic processes took place.

1. Assimilation. In this case, the word being learned is adapted to the lexical-grammatical and phonetic rules of the language being adopted. In the French words *communiqué* and *café*, the stress was moved to the 1st syllable according to the rules of the English language, and as a result, the long [e] sound in French is [ei] in English. pronounced as Pronounced like *communiqué* [kommunikei] and *café* [kafei]. In French, the words *table*, pronounced [tabli], and *plate*, pronounced [plat], have been fully assimilated and are today pronounced [teibl] and [pleit]. However, in the 15th century, the words *regime, valise, and café* were adopted from the French language English is pronounced according to French rules.
2. Grammatical adaptation. During the Renaissance, the pronunciation of the word *datum- information in the plural form of data, and the word criterion-theory in the plural form of criteria*, adopted from Latin and Greek languages, is based on the rules of the first language.

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<sup>35</sup>NJNurmurodova. Lexical borrowings from Western European languages in Modern Uzbek (on the material of periodicals). Article. Vestnik magistracy \_ 2022.

<sup>36</sup>NNSaidovna. Historical stages of the lexicon of the Uzbek language. Article. Science and Innovation. International Scientific Journal. Volume 1. Issue 6.

3. Semantically unassimilated words (for example, *shah*, *rajah* ). Usually, such words mean things and concepts specific to a certain country.)
4. Sometimes, two words with the same meaning are acquired through different languages, and both words are used in consumption. For example, the words *canal* and *channel* entered the English language through Latin and French.<sup>37</sup>

When analyzing interlanguage words, we face lexical and semantic problems in the field of translation. For example: the word *proverb* in the English language is considered a monosemantic word in literature, but as a linguistic term, it is a polysemantic word. This word corresponds to the word *pritcha* in the Russian language, and it is translated into the Uzbek language as *a parable, a story, a symbolic story* . Interestingly, the meaning of the word *proverb* is not given in English-Uzbek dictionaries .

Another example is the adjective "dull" in English. The adjective "dull" in the English language is considered a multi-meaning word and has different meanings in different situations. For example:

1. A dull book, a dull film - a dull book, an uninteresting movie;
2. A dull student - a student with low learning ability;
3. Dull weather, a dull color - dirty weather, a dull color;
4. A dull sound-low sound;
5. A dull knife;
6. Trade is dull - trade is not good;
7. Dull eyes (arch) - dim eyes;
8. Dull ears (arch) - like not hearing well.

In order to avoid lexical and semantic problems, the translator must master both languages perfectly linguistically and extralinguistically.

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<sup>37</sup>Davletbaeva D.N. Course lecture and lexicology in the English language. Kazan 2010. str. 6-10



Now we will consider the issue of restoration of extralinguistic factors in translation. In artistic translation, the translator must correctly translate the texts about the people's living conditions, the names of the clothes, and the characters' portraits in the literary translation to the reader. For example: A gray robe of scarlet and yellow plaid, carefully made and neatly fitted, set off to advantage of the dark and rich style of his beauty. (Uncle Tom's hut) A beautiful suit made of checkered reddish-yellow fabric added to his beauty. Chekman, we consider that the translation of "robe" into Uzbek as "suit" is an inconsistency in the translation.

The English word "coat" is translated into Uzbek as "suit", "coat", "jacket", "po'stin", "kamzul". In cold places, it is possible to say "fur", "coat", and in hot countries, it is appropriate to give information about "suit" or "kamzul".

An example from Jack London's story "A Northern Odyssey":

"Of the yellow of ripe corn silk, his frost-encrusted hair swept like day across the might and fell for dawn his coat of bearskin". The phrase "*coat of bearskin*" in English is translated into " кыпка" in Russian trace medvejogo mekha ", and in Uzbek, it is translated as *a vest made of bear skin*. His hair, stiffened by the cold, like a ripe spike of yellow hair, shone like a fire in the night, sticking out from the collar of his bearskin vest. It would be better to say "postin" instead of "kamzul", it would be close to the correct translation.

The English words "cap", "hat", and "bonnet" are also translated into the Uzbek language as shapka, kepka, shtuap. But despite these understandable words, we do not agree that it was given to the Uzbek language by the word "kalpoq".

One of the national-specific materials is religious terms and names of traditions. They are observed in Christian, Muslim, Torah, and Buddhist religions Sharia laws and procedures that must be followed are different terms . Translating them also creates great difficulties. For example: the word " rojdestvo " is translated into the Uzbek language by the words "rojdestvo" and "hait". It could be interpreted as "Christmas", but the word "Hait" is too long.

Translation problems are more clearly manifested at the phraseological level of languages. Comparing the English and Uzbek phraseological levels, we encounter several inconsistencies between them.

The difference between Uzbek phraseological units and English phraseological units is that phraseological units are not formed in the process of speech like phrases or sentences, but they are ready-made in the language just like words. So, phraseology is not a speech phenomenon, but a linguistic phenomenon.

Phraseologisms, like words, have a completeness of form and meaning. If sounds form the formal side of the word, words form the formal side of the phraseology: merciful-empty, happy-head up to the sky. The words in the phraseology do not have a complete meaning. Phrases are based on the figurative meaning of a set of words. That's why several words in the phrase act as part of a sentence: *In the blink of an eye*, several thousand infantrymen and cavalrymen appeared. (AQ). In this sentence, the phraseological unit *in the blink of an eye* acts as a tense. As a lexical unit, phraseologies have many properties specific to words.<sup>38</sup>

The phraseological units of the English language are formed differently from the Uzbek language as follows:

1. By extracting phraseological phrases from the composition of more complex phraseological units, but its meaning is determined by the semantics of the original phrase : The old birds are not to be caught *with chaff* . An old, shooting sparrow– *An old, shooting sparrow* and *to be caught with chaff*
2. Through the conversion method: A play with fire *through* the phrase play with fire .
3. based on similarity: Curiosity killed a cat– Curiosity will not lead to good.
4. on the basis of Shakespearean expressions : to care killed a cat - in the sense that *excessive attention does not lead to goodness* .

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<sup>38</sup> <https://abiturtest.en/topics/word-connection-and-its-types-phraseologisms-about-understanding>

4. by expanding word combinations: as merry as grig-kuvnoq, khushchagchak. Merry grig is derived *from the word merry boy*.

5. Through proverbs used in the command: Strike the iron while it is *hot*.

6. Learning by contrast: *come off the high horse* through the contrast of the phrase *come off the high horse get off* a phraseological unit is formed. This means <sup>39</sup>" to stop arrogance ".

English phraseology is also formed based on Bibles. For example: "When thou doest alms let not thy left hand know what thy right-hand doeth" The phraseology in the Bible "*not to let one's left hand know what one's right-hand does* " ling don't know" is like the meaning. *Loaves and fishes* are expressions related to how Christ fed hundreds of people who came to listen to him with five loaves and two fishes in the Bible.<sup>40</sup>

### Questions about the topic

1. What does lexicology study?
2. Lexicology is inextricably linked with which branches of linguistics?
3. What can you say about your own and borrowed words?
4. Classification of phraseological units in English...?
5. Characteristics of the formation of phraseological units in the Uzbek language...?
6. How does the phenomenon of assimilation decrease in the acquired words?

### Topic 9. Principles of comparison and contrast in speech and text. Their differences and similarities.

In world linguistics, several ideas have been put forward about the text and its linguistic nature. The French linguist R. Barthes says: "Any fragment of speech consisting of sentences with internal connection and connected for the purpose of communication is called a text.". By doing this, he focuses on the components of which the text is composed. Czech linguist K. Kojevnikova understands the text as an ideal

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<sup>39</sup>Ametov J. M. \_ Semantic analysis of the verbal phraseological units // International Journal of Trend in Scientific Research and Development. Volume 5.Issue 3. 2021. p.1044.

<sup>40</sup>Amiraslanova A. VliyanieBibliinaformirovanieAngliyskikhfrazelogizmov . Issues of Philology, No. 1, 2020. Azerbaijan Medical University, Mardanov brothers 98 . - S. 239 .

highest communicative unit complete in terms of content. Therefore, he emphasizes that it is inappropriate to interpret the text as a speech or language unit consisting of a relationship of units such as a sentence, a complex syntactic device, a paragraph, or a chapter.<sup>41</sup>

Linguists interested in the problem of categorical symbols necessary for speech structures to acquire the status of a text rely on the theoretical ideas of such textualists as V. Dressler, M. Holliday, R. Hasan, I.R. Galperin, M. Kojina, T. Dridze, P. Hartman. For example, V. Dressler and R. A. Bogrand believe that the position of the text is determined by its having the following seven categorical signs: 1) cohesion - the joining of text fragments using grammatical, lexical, rhythmic, and graphic means; 2) coherence - connection of text parts based on semantic-logical relations (causal, referential, time-space); 3) intentionality - the connection of the structural and spiritual integrity of the text with the communicative goal; 4) addressability - transfer of information taking into account the characteristics of the recipient, such as social status, mental state (in other words, the choice of the recipient); 5) informativeness - importance of the transmitted information for the addressee or level of novelty; 6) situationality - the connection of the content and structural construction of the text with the communicative conditions, the situation; 7) intertextuality - re-creation of invariant content-meaning in a certain type of text.<sup>42</sup>

Text is an extended structure of syntactic units. "The text is best considered as a semantic unit, but its size is not the main aspect of the text." (Halliday and Hassan, 1976). "A text consists of sentences, but apart from the rules of sentence structure, there are specific principles of text structure." (Fowler, 1991)<sup>43</sup>

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<sup>41</sup> M. Kurbanova. M. Yoldoshev. Text linguistics. Study guide. Tashkent. "Universitet" publishing house. 2014 year. -6 p.

<sup>42</sup> M. Kurbanova. M. Yoldoshev. Text linguistics. Study guide. Tashkent. "Universitet" publishing house. 2014 year. -36 p.

<sup>43</sup> [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Text\\_linguistics](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Text_linguistics)

*Cohesion* (coherence) is a combination of text elements in terms of grammar, lexical, semantic, metric, and alliterative aspects. Coherence differs from coherence in that it focuses on the internal integrity of the text rather than its coherence. The text may sometimes have a cohesive character, grammatically and lexically, but it may lack coherence. Cohesion is divided into 2 types:

1. grammatical (cohesion) cohesion: based on structural content
2. lexical (cohesion) cohesion: based on lexical content and basic knowledge.

A: Will George do it? (Can George do it?)

B: Yes, he will. (Yes, he can).

Paris? I've always wanted to go there. (Paris? I always wanted to go there) In this sentence, the words *Paris* and *there* are connected. This is called anaphora. *Coherence* (coherence) is the connection of text-based concepts and relationships to achieve effective communication. Coherence has the following characteristics.

1. Causality: "Itsy Bitsy spider climbing up the spout. Down came the rain and washed the spider out." "The Itsy Bitsy spider is climbing up the drain. The rain has washed the spider away."

The phenomenon of "rain" causes the phenomenon of "washing the spider" because it creates the necessary conditions for the latter; without rain, the spider cannot be washed.

2. Simplify.

"Humpty Dumpty sat on the wall, Humpty Dumpty had a great fall."

"Humpty Dumpty sat on the wall, Humpty Dumpty had a great fall."

The act of sitting on a wall is a necessary action, but it does not prevent falls.

3. Reason

"Jack's got a penny a day because he can't work any faster."

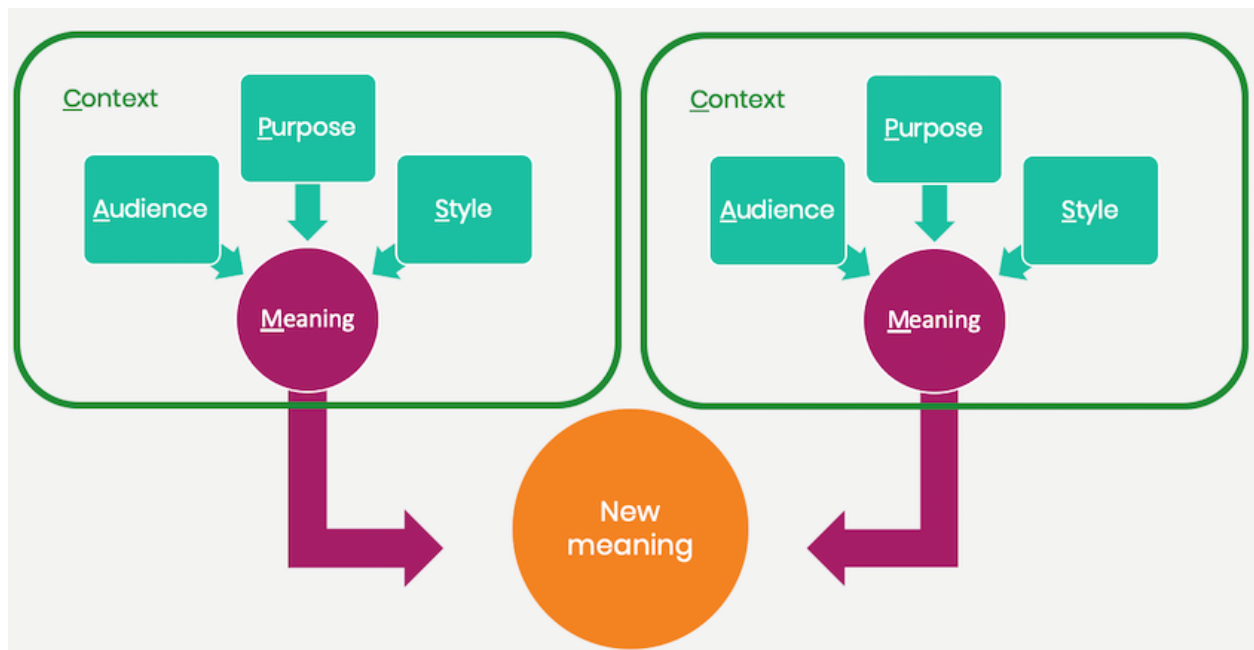
Unlike the rain that washes away the Itsy Bitsy spider, slow work does not cause or enable low wages. Instead, low wages are a reasonable outcome; "cause" is used to express actions that occur as a rational response to a previous event.

#### 4. The goal.

Old Lady Hubbard went to the closet to get a bone for her poor dog.

Unlike Humpty Dumpty's act of sitting on a wall and providing the motion of falling, there is a plan here; Humpty Dumpty didn't sit on the wall to make it fall, but old Hubbard went to the closet to get a bone. "Goal" is used to express the events that are planned to be carried out by the previous event.

#### *Intertextuality*



*Precedential texts* are texts that are imprinted in a person's memory, sometimes used against a person's will, and are manifested in speech acts in the form of ready-made sentences.

*Recipient texts* - Texts aimed at providing information.

*Intertext* - text within texts.

*Antonamazia* - epithet, title

### Questions about the topic

1. What does text linguistics study?
2. What categorical signs should be in the text for speech structures to receive the status of a text?
3. What is cohesion?
4. What is the phenomenon of coherence?
5. What is the categorical sign of situationality?
6. How is intertextuality considered a categorical feature?

### **Topic 10. Taking into account the existence of a standard language in the process of comparison. Taking into account the feature of interlanguage adaptation in the process of comparison .**

One of the main tasks of contrastive linguistics is to refer to the standard language when considering the phenomena of interlinguistic correspondence and inconsistency, the nature of interlinguistic adaptation in the process of comparison. What is the reference language and what is its significance in contrastive linguistics?

A standard language is a language that in medieval and early modern Europe, such as Latin, was accepted as the standard language against which other languages were compared or contrasted. This concept was developed by the Russian linguist Uspensky. He argued that any typology is based on a metalanguage, which is the same as a standard language and makes changes from it to real languages and from real languages to the standard (Uspensky 1965).<sup>44</sup> In addition, standard language is also an object of linguistic typology. To fully understand it, we need to review the information on linguistic typology.

Linguistic typology (or language typology) is a branch of linguistics that studies and classifies languages according to their structural characteristics to enable

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<sup>44</sup><http://www.genderi.org/education-of-the-republic-of-uzbekistan-national-university>

comparison. Its purpose is to describe and explain the structural diversity and common features of the world's languages.<sup>45</sup> Alisher Navoi's work " Muhokamat-ul-lughatayn " belongs to Linguistic typology, in which semantics and partly phonetics of genetically different languages are compared. Currently, comparative or comparative linguistics, which studies two or more languages, is also based on Linguistic Typology. Its subdisciplines include but are not limited to, phonological typology, which deals with sound properties. It includes areas such as syntactic typology related to word order and form, lexical typology dealing with language vocabulary, and theoretical typology aimed at explaining universal tendencies.<sup>46</sup>

*Syntactic typology* - typologically classifies the units that make up the syntactic level of languages. Syntactic typology includes phonological and morphological typologies.

*Phonological typology* - studies the system of vowels and consonants of various languages, the state of stress and syllables in languages, and the rules of pronunciation of words.

*Morphological typology* is a system that classifies world languages based on common morphological features. In morphological classification, languages are divided into the following types. In contrast, in some sources, languages are classified according to 7 types: amorphous languages, analytical languages, synthetic languages, inflected languages, agglutinative languages, polysynthetic languages, oligosynthetic languages.<sup>47</sup>

*Lexical typology* - studies the similarities and differences of lexical units according to their characteristics, structure, lexical characteristics of words belonging to different categories.<sup>48</sup>

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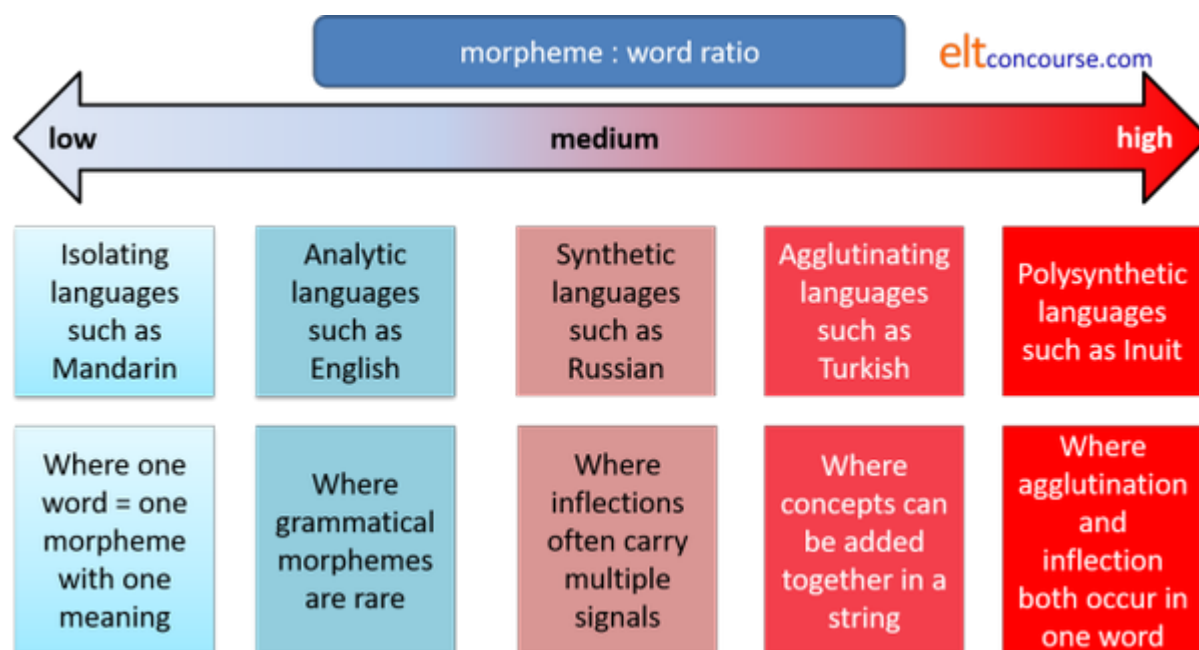
<sup>45</sup> Ferguson, Charles A. (1959 ). "Diglossia" . WORD (Worcester) . 15 (2): 325–340. ISSN 0043-7956 .

<sup>46</sup> Plungian, VA (2011). Modern linguistic typology. Herald of the Russian Academy of Sciences, 81 (2), 101-113.

<sup>47</sup> [https://uz.wikipedia.org/wiki/Linguistic\\_typology](https://uz.wikipedia.org/wiki/Linguistic_typology)

<sup>48</sup> Berdiyeva Hilola. Typology of qualifying syntaxes in the place of participles in English and Uzbek languages. Master's thesis. Samarkand. 2011.





Note: **Agglutination** (in linguistics) is the formation of a new word or grammatical form in languages by adding affixes with grammatical and derivational meaning to the root of the word.

**Inflection** - Inflection (or inflection) in morphology is the process of word formation, in which the word is inflected in different grammatical categories, such as tense, person-number, and gender.

1. *The maximum standard language is used when it serves as a standard for comparing all languages.* For example, in the 17th and 18th centuries, Latin was used as the standard language for writing grammar books of various European languages.
2. *A minimal benchmark language is limited to some genetic or regional language group or even some grammatical or semantic categories can be used as benchmarks for comparison.*

Cross-linguistic adaptations and differences are evident in the process of translation. In translation, we mainly encounter inconsistencies in the translation of words and phrases. This is especially evident in technical words, lexemes related to

professions, and socio-political words. For example, the word "Crane" in biology is "Juravl ", "Turna", and in technology " podyomni " is translated as " crane ".

Let's take another word, "waltz" is "ball" in physical education and sports, " sharavoy " in technique. "sharnir " in agriculture "cotton boll", in physics "kernel", in medicine " glaznoe" "yabloko ", "eyeball", " ball ", "party night" in music.

The historical figure Charles V is spelled Charles V in English. The writer Charles Dickens is also spelled "Charles". Why is one reading "Carl" and the other "Charles"? Of course, one of the two was translated incorrectly.

American linguist Chomsky was called "Chomsky" in the former USSR. When Uzbek scientist Azim Sadikov went to America, he witnessed that he was called "Chomsky" instead of "Chomsky". Such facts are often found in the text, in the work, it is necessary to translate carefully studying the events of the environment in which the work was created.

The conclusion is that whatever science the text context belongs to, the translation should be carried out in cooperation with a specialist in that field of science or the translator should study that field of science by himself.

### **Questions about the topic**

1. What branch of linguistics is linguistic typology?
2. Linguistic typology is divided into what types?
3. What languages are standard languages?
4. What types of standard languages are divided into?
5. What is reflected in cross-linguistic adaptations and differences?
6. What types of transformations are used in translation?

## **11 th lecture. Phonetics is a branch of linguistics and its 4 main aspects. Different views of scientists on the phonetic and phonological levels of languages.**

Phonetics is a branch of linguistics and its 4 main aspects. Different views of scientists on the phonetic and phonological levels of languages. Phonetics, phonology, and their levels. (segmental suprasegmental). Types of phonetics (general, descriptive, historical, comparative - typological, structural, genetic, regional).

Methods of formation and acoustic properties of speech sounds in linguistics; Phonetics, which is considered as a department that studies syllables and parts of speech separated by pauses, is divided into general, specific, descriptive, historical-diachronic, comparative-typological, and experimental types.

*General phonetics* is a branch of general linguistics, that studies the possibilities of human sound production, the functioning of his speech mechanism, and the rules of pronunciation of speech sounds, syllables, stress, and intonation in all languages.

*Special phonetics* subordinates the phonetic base and phonetic laws of a particular language to the general phonetic laws and operates based on its laws. Special phonetics is the applied phonetics of a particular language. It will be free of various assumptions, hypotheses, and postulates. It works based on the articulatory base of a particular language, its articulatory possibilities, and the method of acoustic representation. All processes related to the phonetic expression base of this language are studied in special phonetics.

*Experimental phonetics* studies the physiological and acoustic properties of speech sounds using various equipment. This method of checking makes it possible to determine the specific characteristics of speech sounds. For example, with the help of this method, the length or shortness of vowel sounds, the explosion or sliding phenomenon of consonants, is the basis for the classification of speech sounds.<sup>49</sup>

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<sup>49</sup> DANAbiyeva, HRZokirova. Phonetics of the Uzbek language. Educational manual. Andijan 2016. -p.5-6

*Descriptive phonetics* or *phonology* deals with the study of the sound system during a certain period of the development of a certain language. Scientific-descriptive phonetics also deals with the dynamics of sounds, it does not ignore the history of the language when forming the phonetic system of the language.

Descriptive phonetics studies sound in the following aspects:

- physiological (formation of speech sounds with the help of speech organs - physiology of sounds);
- acoustic (affecting auditory impressions with their qualities - acoustics of speech sounds);
- linguistic (the role of sounds in the semantic differentiation of words). Combinatory, positional variants of sounds and their changes are also objects of study in this field.<sup>50</sup>

*Historical-diachronic phonetics* studies phonetic changes related to language and language development. The object of his study is written historical works and literary monuments. Diachronic studies work based on comparing the current phonetic processes of the language with those of the past. Werner's and Grimm's laws, ablaut, umlaut, and shift of large vowels are objects of diachronic phonetics, also called *evolutionary phonetics*.

*Comparative typological phonetics* is a direction of comparative-typological linguistics, which determines their similarities and differences by comparing, comparing, and contrasting the phonetic features of two or more languages.<sup>51</sup>

It is known that many scientists have conducted scientific research on phonetics and phonology. Among them, Uzbek scientist A.Abduazizov 's contribution to this field is significant. A.Abduazizov made a significant contribution to the development of the phonology of the Uzbek language by specially studying the phonemes of the Uzbek language in paradigmatic and syntagmatic aspects . For the first time in Uzbek

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<sup>50</sup> <http://www.fayllar.org/ozbek-tili-foneticasi>

<sup>51</sup> AAAbduazizov. English photics. A theoretical course. 3rd edition . Tashkent. 2007. - p. 7

linguistics, he revealed the manifestation of the dialectic of generality-specificity in each phonetic division of speech, he introduced the system of special terms explaining them to Uzbek linguistics from European linguistics.<sup>52</sup> The scientist phonetically divides speech into phrases (phrases), tact, syllables, and sounds, like all authors before him. He differs from others in that he opposes these units to emic units that can be contrasted with each other in a paradigmatic line: sound - *phoneme*, tact - *tactema*, syllable - *syllabeme* , etc. Also, he introduces stress, and intonations into suprasegmental units, traditionally distinguishing between segmental units and suprasegmental units. The upper segment uses the terms accent-accenteme, and tone-intoneme to distinguish generality-specificity in units. The main criterion for separating emic units is the function of meaning differentiation. The terms syllabeme (typical of Chinese, Japanese, Korean languages), phoneme for sound, accentema for accent, and intoneme for tone are used for a syllable with a specific meaning. Thus, a certain relationship is established between phonetic units (sound, syllable, stress, tone) and phonological units.

Differentiating signs play an important role in the manifestation of the generality-specificity dialectic at the phonological level. The same distinguishing marks connect phoneme with phonology. Articulatory-acoustic characteristics of sounds that are actually pronounced in the course of speech, depending on a certain space and time (for example, voiced-unvoiced, explosive-gliding, instead of appearance signs: the degree of mouth opening , lip participation, etc.) are determined in phonetics. Phonology considers these articulatory-acoustic features as a distinguishing feature when defining phonemes. It seems that phonetics provides material for phonology, and phonological inferences rely on phonetic materials.<sup>53</sup>

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<sup>52</sup> Abduazizov A. \_ A. \_ Uzbek of the language phonology and morphonology . Tashkent : Teacher , 1992. - B.11 .

<sup>53</sup> DANAbiyeva, HRZokirova. Phonetics of the Uzbek language. Educational manual. Andijan 2016. -p.16

# International phonetic alphabet

## THE INTERNATIONAL PHONETIC ALPHABET (revised to 2015)

CONSONANTS (PULMONIC)

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	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Postalveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d		ʈ ɖ	c ɟ	k ɡ	q ɢ		ʔ
Nasal	m	ɱ		n		ɳ	ɲ	ŋ	ɴ		
Trill	ʙ			r					ʀ		
Tap or Flap		ⱱ		ɾ		ɽ					
Fricative	ɸ β	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	ʂ ʐ	ç ʝ	x ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ	h ɦ
Lateral fricative				ɬ ɮ							
Approximant		ʋ		ɹ		ɻ	j	ɰ			
Lateral approximant				l		ɭ	ʎ	ʟ			

Symbols to the right in a cell are voiced, to the left are voiceless. Shaded areas denote articulations judged impossible.

CONSONANTS (NON-PULMONIC)

Clicks	Voiced implosives	Ejectives
◌ ɸ Bilabial	ɓ Bilabial	ʼ Examples:
◌ ɱ Dental	ɗ Dental/alveolar	ɸ' Bilabial
◌ ɲ (Post)alveolar	ɟ Palatal	t' Dental/alveolar
◌ ɲ Palatoalveolar	ɡ Velar	k' Velar
◌ ɻ Alveolar lateral	ɠ Uvular	s' Alveolar fricative

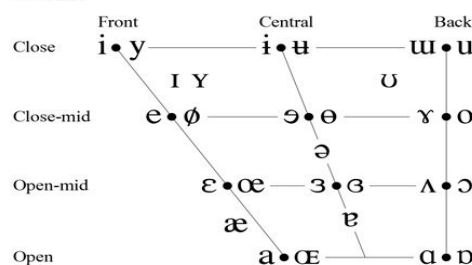
OTHER SYMBOLS

ʌ Voiceless labial-velar fricative	ɕ ʑ Alveolo-palatal fricatives
ʋ Voiced labial-velar approximant	ɺ Voiced alveolar lateral flap
ɥ Voiced labial-palatal approximant	ɥ Simultaneous ʃ and x
ħ Voiceless epiglottal fricative	
ʕ Voiced epiglottal fricative	Affricates and double articulations can be represented by two symbols joined by a tie bar if necessary.
ɸ Epiglottal plosive	

DIACRITICS Some diacritics may be placed above a symbol with a descender, e.g. ɲ̥̄

◌ ɹ Voiceless	◌ ɹ̥ Breathy voiced	◌ ɹ̥ Dental	◌ ɹ̥
◌ ɹ Voiced	◌ ɹ̥ Creaky voiced	◌ ɹ̥ Apical	◌ ɹ̥
◌ ɹ Aspirated	◌ ɹ̥ Linguolabial	◌ ɹ̥ Laminal	◌ ɹ̥
◌ ɹ More rounded	◌ ɹ̥ Labialized	◌ ɹ̥ Nasalized	◌ ɹ̥
◌ ɹ Less rounded	◌ ɹ̥ Palatalized	◌ ɹ̥ Nasal release	◌ ɹ̥
◌ ɹ Advanced	◌ ɹ̥ Velarized	◌ ɹ̥ Lateral release	◌ ɹ̥
◌ ɹ Retracted	◌ ɹ̥ Pharyngealized	◌ ɹ̥ No audible release	◌ ɹ̥
◌ ɹ Centralized	◌ ɹ̥ Velarized or pharyngealized		◌ ɹ̥
◌ ɹ Mid-centralized	◌ ɹ̥ Raised	◌ ɹ̥ (ɹ̥ = voiced alveolar fricative)	
◌ ɹ Syllabic	◌ ɹ̥ Lowered	◌ ɹ̥ (ɹ̥ = voiced bilabial approximant)	
◌ ɹ Non-syllabic	◌ ɹ̥ Advanced Tongue Root		◌ ɹ̥
◌ ɹ Rhoticity	◌ ɹ̥ Retracted Tongue Root		◌ ɹ̥

VOWELS



Where symbols appear in pairs, the one to the right represents a rounded vowel.

SUPRASEGMENTALS

ˈ Primary stress	ˌ Secondary stress
ː Long	ˑ Half-long
˚ Extra-short	
◌ Minor (foot) group	
◌ Major (intonation) group	
◌ Syllable break	◌ Linking (absence of a break)

TONES AND WORD ACCENTS

LEVEL	CONTOUR
˥ Extra high	˥ or ˧ Rising
˨ Extra low	˨ or ˩ Falling
˦ High	˦ or ˧ High rising
˧ Mid	˧ or ˨ Low rising
˩ Low	˩ or ˪ Rising-falling
˪ Extra low	˪ or ˫ Global rise
˫ Downstep	˫ or ˬ Global fall
ˬ Upstep	

Typefaces: Doulos SIL (metatext); Doulos SIL, IPA Kiel, IPA LS Uni (symbols)

International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), an alphabet developed in the 19th century to accurately represent the pronunciation of languages. One of the goals of the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) was to assign a unique symbol for each unique

sound in a language, that is, each sound or phoneme that serves to distinguish one word from another . This is the most common example of phonetic transcription.

The concept of IPA was first promoted by Otto Jespersen in a letter to Paul Passy of the International Phonetic Association, which was used by AJ Ellis, Henry to standardize the representation and thereby eliminate the confusion caused by the inconsistent traditional spellings used in each language. IPA was also intended to replace the many existing individual transcription systems. It was first published in 1888 and was revised several times in the 20th and 21st centuries. The International Phonetic Association is responsible for the alphabet and publishes a table summarizing it.

IPA mainly uses Roman characters. Other letters were taken from different scripts (such as Greek) and modified to fit the Roman style. Diacritics are used to distinguish sounds and show the nasalization of vowels, length, stress, and tones.<sup>54</sup>

#### Tables of comparative vowels

The first comparative tables appeared in the 19th century, but they did not have pedagogical goals, their goal was to prove the common origin of some two modern languages belonging to the same family. In the second decade of the 20th century, Prof. D. Jones proposed a classification based on the principle of so-called "cardinal vowels". This principle aims to avoid an individual approach in determining the mutual positions of vowels in different languages, and to introduce a universal principle into phonetics as the basis of any word.

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<sup>54</sup><https://www.britannica.com/topic/International-Phonetic-Alphabet>

## Comparative table of English and Uzbek vowel phonemes.

According to the participation of the language According to the rise and fall of the tongue		Front vowels		Middle vowels		Back vowels	
		Front tongue vowels	Back tongue	The language is medium	Deep tongue medium	Back tongue	Deep tongue back
Closed vowels	narrow	i i:				y	she is:
	wide		i			u	
Medium vowels	narrow	e e (e)		A:			oh
	wide				A		
Open vowels	narrow				^		ɔ:
	wide	æ			a		ɔ a:

## Comparative table of English and Uzbek consonant phonemes

According to the participation of active speech organs		lipped		Language consonants							Back tongue				
According to the method of formation	Instead of being productive	Lip-lip	Lip-teeth	Front tongue vowels				The vowels in the middle of the tongue			Palate consonants				
				Interdental	tooth	palate	Sublingual								
															back
Sounds with a full consonant	It's noisy	explosive	P, p P, p			T. d	T. d					K, g K, g, q			
		mixed				ts									



	With voice								/tʃ/ /dʒ/ Tsh , dj						
		Nasal sounds	m m			i	p			[e]		ŋ ng			
partial consonant sounds	noisy	fricatives	[ m ] F c	F [ f,v ]	j, th	S. z	S. z	G,s h,j	ʃ/ /ʒ	[ j ]	y	x,g'		h h	[?]
		Laterals <i>side sound</i>				l	L [e]					[e]			
	With voice														
		semi- consonant	w								J [ju:]	[w]			
Acquired consonants	with voice	Tip of the tongue consonants (shudder)						[r] r				[r]			

*Affricates* - the pronunciation of explosive and sliding consonants as a single sound.

*An apical consonant* is a sound produced by blocking the passage of air with the tip (apex) of the tongue.

*Cauminal* (/kæ'kju:mi:nel/) are crown consonants, the tongue has a flat, concave or even vowel shape, sounds pronounced between artives.

*Palatoalveolar consonants* are sounds pronounced when the tongue and palate are weakly palatalized.

*Palatalized* is a way of pronouncing a consonant where part of the tongue is located near the hard palate.

A *palatal consonant* is a consonant pronounced with the body (middle part) of the tongue against the hard palate (middle part of the roof of the mouth).

*Fricative consonants* slip is made through There are 9 fricative phonemes in English pronunciation: /f,v,th,ð,s,z,ʃ,ʒ,h/ made in 5 mouth positions:

### **Questions on the topic:**

1. What is the basic unit of phonological level?
2. What functions do phonemes perform as the basic unit of the phonological level?
3. What is an allophone?
4. How many types of phonemes is the English vowel subsystem divided into?
5. How many groups are English vowels divided into according to the position of the tongue?
6. How many consonant phonemes are there in English and Uzbek?

### **Topic 12. Grammar as a branch of linguistics. Hierarchy. Grammatical Similarities and Differences in Intercultural Languages. Grammatical categories. Simple, compound and compound sentences.**

Contrastive grammar is a branch of comparative linguistics, which studies general and specific features of languages, grammatical structure based on their comparison and contrast. Contrastive studies can be focused on phonetic, phonological, morphological, lexical and syntactic phenomena of various linguistic phenomena.

Contrastive grammar as a branch of linguistics covers some concepts.

- 1) Absolute universals (that is, properties common to any language)
- 2) Properties that are close to universals, that is, common to some languages
- 3) Metalanguage, that is, the language in which the contrast is analyzed
- 4) Typologically dominant characteristics, that is, dominant characteristics

- 5) Typological recessive characteristics, that is, characteristics that lose the previous one
- 6) Isomorphic properties, that is, common properties, are observed in everyone
- 7) Allomorphic features observed in one language, i.e. divergent features.
- 8) Typological constants, i.e. contrasting features.

And allomorphic, dominant and recessive characteristics and draw conclusions about their structural types by comparing languages . Comparison of languages is based on deduction and induction.

The term "grammar" comes from the Greek word, which can be translated as "the art of writing". Initially, the term *grammar* was used for limited linguistic processes, but later this word acquired a wider meaning and included language. It has sometimes been used synonymously with the word linguistics.

In 1933, ED Polivanov spoke about the analytical character of the agglutinative affix in the Uzbek language in his book "The grammar of the Russian language in relation to the Uzbek language". He showed the difference between affixation in inflected and agglutinated languages. Affixation in inflectional languages leads to changes in the phonemic structure of the vocabulary. Affixation in agglutinated languages does not lead to changes in the phonemic structure of word roots. In inflectional languages, changes occur in both stems and affixal morphemes.

What is the difference between language types? We will see this in the following examples.

In analytic languages, words do not retain their grammatical form outside of a sentence. They have only a nominative meaning. Their grammatical forms can be determined only through the words that are combined with themselves in the sentence. For example, in English, the word round (verb, adjective, noun); krujit (verb), kruglyy (adjective), in Russian krug (noun), in Uzbek it is used as a circle (noun, adjective), to rotate (verb).

In synthetic languages, the expression of grammatical meaning is repeated:  
for example in German: das Buch - die Bücher, Der Mann - die Männer.

In these words, the change of the singular form to the plural form is expressed through three processes:

1. Affixation -er
2. Internal synthesis
3. by changing the article das to the article die.

In English:

1. a pen-pence
2. a woman-women
3. a child-children
4. a mouse-mice

The examples given in English show that in the first and second cases the plural in each word is expressed only once. In the third and fourth cases, it causes internal or external addition in the plural word represented by affixation. Sanskrit, Ancient Greek, Latin, Gothic, Old Slavic, (now) Lithuanian, German, and Russian are typical synthetic inflectional languages.

Roman, English, Danish, New Greek, New Persian, New Indian languages also belong to synthetic languages, but in the course of historical development, these languages have significantly changed their typological structure and are now inclined to synthetic and analytical language.

Grammatical meaning		English	Russian	Uzbek
By affixation	Agglutinated Affixation	book–books, work-worked, red - redder	Лошадь- лошади	bola–bolalar, kitob-kitoblar
	Fusion affixation	House-houseschild- children rise – risen, break-broken	взять–вяжу, сидишь-сiju	oyoq-oyog’im tilak -tilagim

Difference in meaning through sound change	foot – feet no- i, rise -rose, break - broke	foot – feet, man– men, rise –rose, break - broke	-
Difference in meaning by changing the place of stress in a word	Present (Present tense) present	Present (hozirgi zamon) Present (sovg`a)	засыпа́ть- засы́пать-
Difference in meaning through root change	good–better, bad– worse go- went, be:am,is,are/ was,were	иду–шёл, хороший – лучше, плохой-хуже.	-
By adding words to the additional meaning of the word	Go-shall go Beautiful-more beautiful	Читать-буду читать писать- буду писать	yaxshi–eng yaxshi baland-juda baland
Word order	I sleep (intransitive verb) in the open air. I sleep (transitive verb) mychild in theopen air.	-	-
By pronunciation	Are you the best? You are the best. You are the best!	Ты лучший? Ты лучший. Ты лучший!	Siz eng zo'rsiz? Siz eng zo'rsiz. Siz eng zo'rsiz!

## Grammar - tools for expressing grammatical meanings in English and native languages

### Contract category

The amount of agreement forms is not the same in all languages, and this situation can be considered as one of the criteria of the typological characteristics of the language. The presence or absence of agreement forms is sometimes related to the presence or absence of prepositions in languages. For example, Finnish has 14 noun conjugations , and thus the number of prepositions in this language is very low.

There are many prepositions in English that have a limited system of agreement forms . Agreement forms there are also languages that do not have a system . Bulgarian, Italian, French, Russian and Uzbek languages have 6 conjugations . If we analyze the meaning of each form of agreement as a special grammatical category, we will see that it has a compound character and consists of several semes (smallest meanings). One meaning is objectivity, as the category of agreement is specific to nouns denoting objects and events (in English). Another meaning is that nouns belong to a specific grammatical gender (in Russian). The third meaning is number: plural and singular. The fourth is the meaning of animate and inanimate things. These meanings are also called semas .

So, under the meaning of *sema* , we consider the smallest and indivisible element of grammatical meaning. Agreements in Russian are characterized by the presence of the following themes:

1. impartiality
2. sex
3. number
4. animate and inanimate objects

Apart from these semas, each conjugation in Russian has its own meaning, for example, the indicative conjugation expresses the direction of the action. One of the meanings of genitive agreement is possessive. In the Uzbek language, the category of noun agreement does not have these meanings, as in the Russian language. The agreement category of nouns in the Uzbek language corresponds only to the first feature in the Russian language - the meaning of subjectivity. It does not have 2, 3, 4 characters. Because Uzbek conjugation forms are unambiguous, Russian conjugation forms are polysemantic. There is a typological similarity between the Uzbek and English languages, because the English conjugation forms: subject conjugation and demonstrative conjugation are also monosemantic.

Typological category of adjectives in English and Uzbek languages:

Adjectives in the Uzbek, English and Russian languages differ sharply according to their typological signs. Adjectives in the Russian language are divided into three groups according to their meaning:

- 1) original adjectives: malenky , vysoky, nizky , dlinnyy, korotkyy, tolstyy;
- 2) relative adjectives made from nouns ( kamen- kamennyy , Moskva - moskovskiy ). These adjectives do not have degrees of comparison, and they are *achen*, *slishkom* does not accept words like and does not have agreement forms;
- 3) possessive adjectives ( ottsov dom, sestrina bagka, lisy nora ).

Unlike adjectives in Russian, adjectives in English have only original adjectives (white, big, strong). There are few relative adjectives. Relative adjectives in English are mainly scientific terms: *biological*, *chemical*, *industrial* . Relative adjectives are also formed by combining noun+noun : a stone house , a golden watch , Moscow streets .

These events are also in Uzbek: golden watch, woolen scarf. As we have seen in the above word combinations, the first noun (in English and Uzbek) performs an attributive function to the second; a golden watch - like a golden watch.

Possessive adjectives do not exist in English and Uzbek languages, this task is performed by the apostrophe '*in English and the affixal morpheme of* - in Uzbek : ottsov dom - m u father's house - my father's house.

Adjectives in English and Russian are very different in terms of their grammatical categories. Russian adjectives agree with nouns that vary in number, gender, and case, for example: *zelenyy list* , *zelenaya trava* , *zelenoe yabloko* . Adjectives in English do not have this typological feature . In this case, the English language corresponds to the Uzbek language, in which adjectives do not agree with nouns in terms of number, agreement and gender: a beautiful woman - a handsome man .

Another distinguishing feature of Russian adjectives (only original adjectives) is that they have two forms: short and full. Full-form adjectives perform an attributive

function in the sentence ( *Goluboe* nebo ). Sometimes they act as participles: *Nasha ulitsa shirokaya*. Adjectives in the short form also act as participles: *Жизн коротка* . Adjectives in English do not have short and long forms. The same adjective is used for attributive and predicative functions. This feature is also available in Uzbek.

According to the structure, the degrees of comparison in Russian, English and Uzbek languages are expressed both synthetically and analytically: *polnyy-polnee*, *tonkiy-tonshe*, *staryy-staree/starshe*. As we mentioned above, the comparative level is *-ee*, *e*, *-yy* , *-she* according to the morphological level of the language expressed synthetically by adding affixal morphemes. Such a method of adding an affixal morpheme to the root of an adjective shows that the root morpheme is a synthetic-inflectional tool that combines the root morpheme with an affixal, as it takes the necessary affixal morpheme and changes its appearance. Some adjectives in Russian are *bole* , *menee* (in these combinations, these words to some extent lose their lexical meaning and serve as analytical forms of expressing the comparative degrees of adjectives).

In the English and Uzbek languages, the comparative level is also visible in the morphological level of the language. But the synthetic expression of the comparative degree differs sharply from the synthetic expression of the comparative degree in Russian. In the Uzbek and English languages, the affixal morpheme is added to the adjectival stem, not synthetic-inflectional, as in Russian, but synthetic-agglutinative. Because the root morpheme does not change its appearance by taking affixal morphemes, for example: *better*, *more comfortable*; *wide-r*, *strong-er*. In English, as in Russian, adjectives with two or more syllables analytically form a comparative degree through the words *more* or *less*, for example: *more beautiful*, *less beautiful* . The examples show that in this combination, the words *more* and *less* serve to reduce and increase the quality characteristics. Advanced degree in Russian, English, and Uzbek



languages , the most, is formed by combining the words eng with adjectives: samyy bolshoy , the most beautiful , the highest.

The observation shows that there is a big difference in the method of synthetic addition of affixal morphemes to the stems of English, Russian and Uzbek languages. In Russian, affixal morphemes change root morphemes, that is, the synthetic-inflectional method of adding affixal morphemes to root morphemes is considered important, while in English and Uzbek languages, in most cases, the affixal morpheme does not change the appearance of the root, that is, the synthetic-inflectional method of adding morphemes is considered important. is an agglutinative method.

### Questions :

- 1 . What do you mean by "grammatical tools"?
- 2 . What is agglutination?
3. What do you understand by "Sam a "?
4. What are the grammatical means that express the grammatical meanings in the word?
5. Means of expressing grammatical meanings other than grammatical words....?
6. What are the similarities and differences in the grammatical system of English, Uzbek and Russian languages?

**13th lecture. The main problems and specific features of the lexical level. Basic units of the lexical level and their similar and differential signs. Comparison of this event. The problem of interference at the lexical level. Phraseological layer of languages.**

We all know that the field of lexicology includes concepts such as lexical unit and lexical level. The unit of lexical level (lexical level) is called lexeme in linguistics. Today, we witness that the terms *lexeme* and *word* are used equally. Contrastive lexicology studies the lexeme and cross-linguistic lexical levels in linguistics.

Contrastive lexicology compares the lexical system of related and non-related languages and learns by comparison. Contrastive lexicology is closely related to comparative typology and is directed to the study of the most general structural types of languages based on their dominance or commonality and according to phonetic, morphological, lexical, and syntactic features. If comparative typology reveals the phonetic, morphological lexical, and syntactic features of several languages, contrastive lexicology aims to study the common and different features of the lexicon of two or more languages and to identify mutual correspondences.

Contrastive lexicology also takes into account the information provided by comparative linguistics and is a branch of historical linguistics that deals with the historical relationship of languages. Contrastive studies show that there is a significant difference in the lexical structure of the languages being compared.

For example: classifying the terms of kinship in the Uzbek and English language systems, we encountered inconsistency related to them. In the Uzbek language, the lexeme *aka* is used for all brothers, relatives, and cousins of the father. In English, different terms are used for representatives of relatives: *brother*, *cousin*, *first-cousin*, *uncle* .

Contrastive lexicological studies serve to reveal linguistic interferences. Linguistic interference is defined as a violation of the rules and norms of communication between two languages ( that is , their differences) .

The term "interference" was introduced into linguistics by scientists of the Prague linguistics school, and a broader definition of this term is given in the work "Languages in contact" by the famous linguist-scientist U. Weinreich.<sup>55</sup> Interference is actually a Latin word that means *inter-* ora, *ferens* - entering, obstacle, hole. This term was first used in physics and means the increase or decrease of the <sup>56</sup>vibration amplitude of the waves as they overlap each other in space . Linguistic interferences, in turn, are divided

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<sup>55</sup><http://library.navoiy-uni.uz/files>

<sup>56</sup><http://library.navoiy-uni.uz/files>

into phonetic, lexical, grammatical, orthographic types.

Professor J. Jalolov emphasizes that interference is divided into 3 types and divides them into the following types: 1) language interference; 2) intercultural interference; 3) intermethod interference.

The phenomenon of interference occurs within one language and in interlinguistic relations. Within the framework of one language, it is divided into two large groups: dialectal interference and international interference. Dialectal interference occurs as a result of a language carrier using a second subcode unit in the process of communication through one subcode (for example, *Everything went wrong*), international interference is formed from the mixing of two national languages (codes) (for example, *I go to the market on foot*, *die from a Uzbek-Russian scholarly speech*). At this point, it should be noted that some types of interference do not occur in dialectal interference, and some of them are active. Specifically, phonetically: *What are we going to do now?* (From the speech of a representative of the Khorezm dialect), *Downloaded?* (From the speech of a representative of the Kashadarya dialect)), lexically: *Where is kadi sold?* (from conversation in the market), grammatically: *We wrote the assignment yesterday in class*; lexically-semantically: *There are a lot of flies in your hotel, and they bit you.* <sup>57</sup>If we observe the interferences in inter-subcode interference, we hardly encounter the phenomenon of syntactic interference. The reason is that the syntactic features of most standardized languages remain stable even in subcoding. If syntactic interference is observed in a representative of a dialect, this is a sign that it is a representative of a literate area.<sup>58</sup>

The Tajik verb "gazidan" means both "bite" and "lightning". Therefore, instead of the expressions "bee stung" and "snake stung" we can sometimes hear the expressions "bee bitten" and "snake bitten".

Cross-linguistic interference is manifested when activities are carried out in two

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<sup>57</sup><http://library.navoiy-uni.uz/files>

<sup>58</sup> <http://library.navoiy-uni.uz/files>

languages, and this phenomenon mainly occurs with people doing translation work. They are observed when trying to adapt some elements of one language system, phenomenon (event) and function (task) to the elements and functions of another language system, when the meaning is distorted and away from the original.

The phenomenon of interference is mainly seen in the process of translation. In his work "Problems of Interference in Theory of Translation", VN Komissarov writes that when translating, it is necessary to take into account all forms of interference: unacceptable and acceptable elements.

There are some words related to education and social life in English, and when these words are translated into Russian and Uzbek, lexical interference occurs.

*high school* - middle school school - high school (not high school);

*restroom* - toilet (not rest room);

*resort* (not rest home) - a resort - a place of rest.

In English: *There were three forensics men at work in the lobby with cameras and tweezers.*

In Czech: *B hale pravidelní muži forenzní muži s kamerami a tweeztami;* (Archer, 2003: 59)

In this sentence, the translator made a mistake regarding the word camera. That is, if in English the words photo apparatus and video camera are expressed under the general term *camera*, in the Czech language there is a certain difference in the use of these words. Video camera should be expressed by the lexemes *camera*, *camera*, *hand-held camera*. The translator, without paying attention to these aspects, caused the occurrence of lexical interference.<sup>59</sup>

Interference creates unique patterns of learning English depending on the speaker's first language. For example:

Chinglish ( Chinese )

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<sup>59</sup>Martin Thorovsky. Article. Lexical Linguistic Interference in Translations of Science-Fiction Literature from English into Czech. 2009.

English or Japlish ( Japanese )

Franglais (French)

Spanglish (Spanish)

Listening ( Thai )

Hunglish (Hungarian).<sup>60</sup>

Communicative interference is interference caused by the use of speech rules (eg, greetings, opening and closing techniques, questions of address) when speaking in another language. For example, conversations in English often open with questions about health (How are you?), but in other languages, such as Malay, they open with questions about eating (Have you eaten yet?). A Malay speaking student learning English who opens a conversation in English *Have you eaten yet?* question causes communication interference to appear.<sup>61</sup>

According to the rules of English grammar, the preposition "*since*" is used in the present perfect tense, and in French, this type of preposition is also used in the present indefinite tense. a person who speaks a language involuntarily creates lexical interference. For example: *je suis ici depuis lundi* is not translated by the French as "*I have been here since Monday*" but as "*I am here since Monday*" they translate.

Interferences are formed through phraseological units. For example:

When pigs fly - literally: when pigs fly.

Actually - when the camel's tail touches the ground.

A great ship asks deep water - a great ship asks deep water.

In fact - a big trip on a big ship.

We witness the syntactic change in the translation of sentences with idiomatic verbs in English and Azerbaijani languages.

- 1) My husband said to me that giving up smoking was easy and I must try it// My wife told me that quitting smoking is easy and that I should try.

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<sup>60</sup>[https://psychology.fandom.com/wiki/Language\\_interference](https://psychology.fandom.com/wiki/Language_interference)

<sup>61</sup><https://yovitadiach.wordpress.com/2011/11/07/sociolinguistic-interference-and-integration>

- 2) Farmers, sailors, and chemists get by perfectly well on the basis of everyday experience, without recourse to Aristotelian logic// They achieve perfect success based on everyday experience without resorting to Aristotelian logic.
- 3) He could not make it out, nor could he trust his own memory.<sup>62</sup>

### **Questions about the topic**

1. What does lexicology study?
2. What are the goals and tasks of contrastive lexicology?
3. What are the similarities and differences in the lexical system of the languages being compared?
4. How does grammatical interference appear in translation?
5. What is communicative interference?
6. How is the phenomenon of interference manifested in phraseological units?

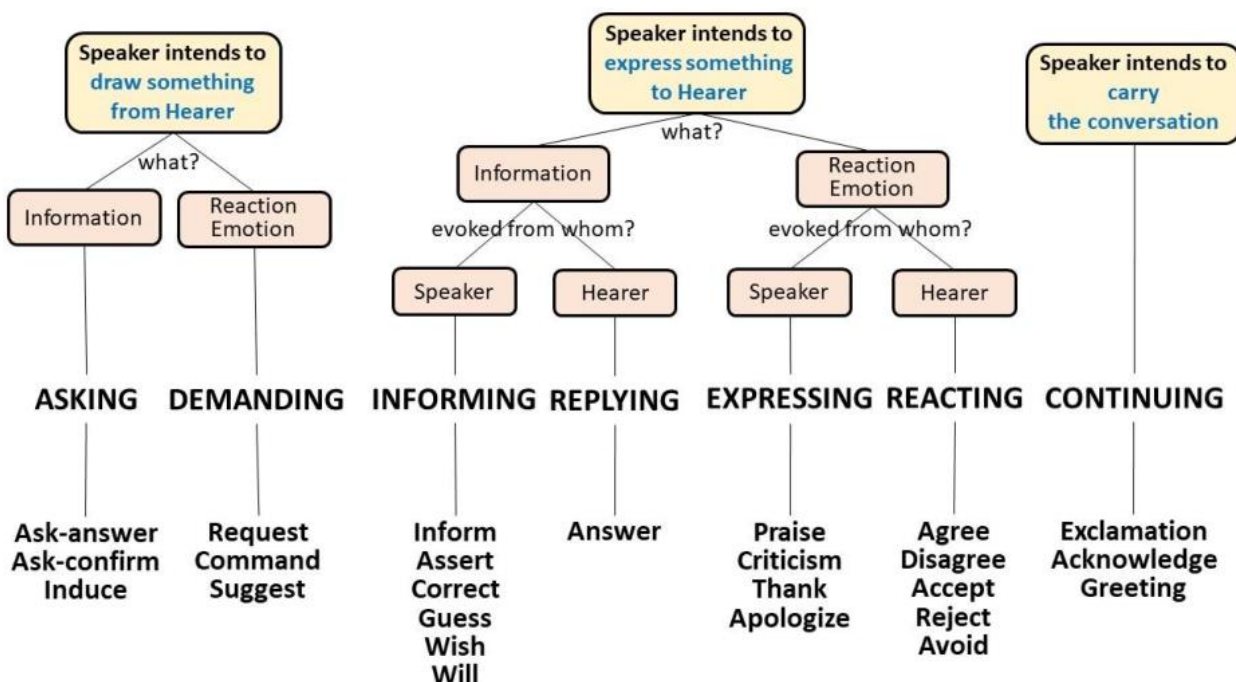
### **14th lecture. Speech acts in mixed languages. Types of speech acts, similarities and differences. Locative, illocutionary, perlocutionary speech acts.**

Speech acts are a sub-field of pragmatics. This field of study is used not only to provide information related to words, but also to perform actions. It is useful in linguistics, philosophy, psychology, legal and literary theories, and even in the development of artificial intelligence.

The theory of speech acts was introduced in 1975 by the Oxford philosopher J. L. Stein in *How to do things with words* and further developed by the American philosopher JR Searle. He considers three levels or components of utterances: locative acts (saying something that makes sense, saying something that the listener understands), speech acts (to convey something, for example information), and perlocutionary acts (cause something to happen to say what happened).

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<sup>62</sup>SMBaghirova. The types of linguistic interference. An article. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, Vol. 11, No. 2, pp. 176-181, February 2021



David Crystal also mentions the following types of speech acts in "Dictionary of Linguistics": "directives (speakers try to get their audience to do something, for example, request, command, request); commissives (speakers' speech shows the direction of future action. For example: promise, guarantee), expressives (speakers show their feelings, for example, apologize, welcome, sympathize announcement), declarations (the speaker's speech introduces a new external situation, for example, baptism, marriage, resignation).<sup>63</sup>

**Locative act** : Expressing an idea by using a certain sign or sound in speech.

For example: *Charlie sees a spider and says: 'Eurgh.* The "eurgh" sound in this sentence means that Charlie doesn't like spiders.

**Illocutionary act** : Conveying one's purpose not directly but in another form. For example, *"Is there any salt?"* (Is there salt in the dish?) unit *"Please pass me the salt."* (Can you pass me the salt?) or *"I wish to add salt to my meal."* (I want to add salt to my food) meaning is hidden.

**Perlocutionary act**: the actual effect of locative and illocutionary speech acts, such as

<sup>63</sup><https://www.thoughtco.com/speech-act-linguistics>

persuading, persuading, intimidating, enlightening, inspiring, or otherwise persuading someone to do or do something, followed by the listener's reaction to these processes. *It is too hot in the room* shows that the guest wants the door to be opened. In this case, the host is recommended to open the room door. *It is too hot in the room* represents a perlocutionary act.

Speech acts are divided into five main categories (declaratives, representatives, expressives, directives, commissives) by J. Searle, depending on the extent to which the speaker's speech affects the psyche of the listener.<sup>64</sup>

Let's consider these categories on the example of speech acts.

1. Declarative speech acts cause an explosion in a person's mind (a big change) that makes a radical change in their life. Speech acts of this type represent positive and negative situations.

**Positive:**

*Priest:* I now pronounce you husband and wife.

*Priest :* I declare you husband and wife.

*Reference:* You're out.

*Interviewer :* How wonderful. (speech with the meaning of strong excitement and desire).

**Negative :** David sighed in frustration, "That's why I'm calling. It's about my business trip. We're going to have to postpone our wedding...." The sentence presented in the work creates a strong negative psychological process in the mind of Susan, the listener, that the long-awaited ceremony is delayed, and that every business trip is dangerous for the life of the hero David. The above mentioned examples of both positive and negative speech acts are declarative speech acts that have a strong effect.

2. Representative speech acts (representatives). This speech act is related to the

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<sup>64</sup> Nasridinov, M., & Usmonova, D. (2022). EXPOSITION FUNCTIONS IN THE NOVEL "THE JUNGLE BOOK". International Journal Of Literature And Languages, 2(05), 22-28. Nasridinov, M., & Usmonova, D. (2022). EXPOSITION FUNCTIONS IN THE NOVEL "THE JUNGLE BOOK". International Journal Of Literature And Languages, 2(05), 22-28.



emotional experiences of a person, in which there is a belief, confirmation and clear process in the heart of the speaker that every situation will happen. - "Do not be sad. There is a mood. In this case, can he be trusted with the car? Let's not start a ball"...<sup>65</sup>

3. Expressive speech acts are one of the important areas of linguistics. The speech act reflects the psychological processes between the speaker and the listener (apology, complaint, flattery, praise, sadness, surprise and congratulations, etc.).

" Thank you for helping me out with my work"-I am pleased that you helped me.

"I'm sorry for hurting your feelings, I didn't mean to upset you."

4. Directive speech acts (directives). According to the theory of George Yule, directive speech acts are classified according to the types of speech, such as orders/orders, requests, suggestions, warnings, prohibitions, and suggestions, which have a positive and negative meaning.

Do the test!

Would you mind to bring my bag because my soldier was sick ?<sup>66</sup>

5. A commissive speech act appears in a strong or weak state. For example, when committing to a certain task, the phrase "I promise" adds additional meaning to the sentence, while in the process of refusal, the phrases "never", "never" and at the same time, some phraseological units ("The camel dreamed of a bath", "Tell your dream to the water", "You consider Chuchvara hom" ) help to emphasize a strong refusal.<sup>67</sup>

Commissive : Intent "I will repay the money I borrowed." "I promise to repay the money I borrowed." (I intend) to repay the money I borrowed. "I swear to tell the truth,..." (I intend) to tell the truth.

"I will pay back the money I borrowed." "I promise to pay back the money I borrowed." (I intend to) pay back the money I borrowed. "I swear to tell the truth..." (I) am telling the truth.

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<sup>65</sup> Jurayev MI Old views of family and social relations. 2022. - p. 165

<sup>66</sup>Eva Nuriana. A descriptive study of directive speech act in teaching and learning English. Thesis. 2017. - p. 33

<sup>67</sup>Son of NMVasliddin. The main categories of the speech act. Request/exclamation speech act. Article. "Science and Innovation" International Scientific journal. Volume 1. Issue 8.

In each language, speech acts appear in different ways. If in one language the urge to perform an action is reflected directly in the speech act, in another language it is addressed to the listener by showing courtesy and humility. For example: *Can you help me?* - *Can you help me?* or *Would you mind if I ask your help?* such as.

While comparing the English and Polish languages, we encountered the following inconsistency between them. Polish people use the word *mozebysmy* ( *maybe* ) when they want to express propositional speech, which is a type of directive speech act .

*Mozebysmy poszli do kina?*

*'Perhaps we would go to the cinema?* - Maybe we will go to the cinema.

And the British use the term *would you mind* .

*Would you mind going to the cinema?* - How about going to the cinema with me?

Even when giving advice to someone, Poles express their goals directly in their speech.

*Ja ci radze powiedz mu prawde.*

*"I advise you: tell him the truth ."*

And the English people leave the action in this regard to the discretion of the listener.

*If I were you I would tell him the truth .*<sup>68</sup>

The speech and instructions of representatives of Persian-speaking polite society are usually awkward and abrupt. In other words, Persian culture values indirectness. Although speech acts can be direct, most everyday conversations are indirect.<sup>69</sup>

"In the Russian linguistic and cultural tradition, instructions are usually expressed directly, using the imperative. In such situations, imperatives are the most natural.

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<sup>68</sup> Anna Wierzbicka. Different cultures, different languages, different speech acts: Polish and English. 1985. - p. 145-178.

<sup>69</sup> R. Vaezi. S. Tabatabaei. M. Bakhtiarvand. A Comparative Study of Speech-acts in Textbooks by Native and Non-native Speakers: A Pragmatic Analysis of New Interchange Series vs. Locally-made EFL Textbooks. Article. Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 4, No. 1, pp. 167-180, January 2014

Vy doljny often interested my sport , chtoby what zabalot - To prevent disease, you need to exercise often. Sometimes it is noticeable that the command tendency is expressed in a slightly soft tone.

*Davaite* + first person plural future tense or infinitive verb.

For example, *Davaite vmeste vypolnim here zadanie* - Let's do the task together.<sup>70</sup>

### Questions about the topic

1. How many types of speech acts are divided?
2. What do you mean by locative act?
3. What do you mean by illocutionary act?
4. What are the differences between English and Polish speech acts?
5. What can you say about the 5 main categories of speech act?
6. In what situations do perlocutionary speech acts occur?

### **15th lecture. The main problems and characteristics of morphological and syntactic levels. Basic units of morphological and syntactic levels and their similar and differential problems.**

**Morphology** (Greek morphe - form and logia-word). 1) morphological structure of the language; 2) the doctrine of word forms. In the first sense, it means an object, and in the second sense, it means the branch of linguistics that studies this object. It is also divided into 3 large groups: 1) independent word groups; 2) auxiliary words; 3) intermediate words (separate words). Morphology studies word groups, their specific grammatical meanings, grammatical categories specific to each group, grammatical forms and grammatical meanings that create these categories.<sup>71</sup>

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<sup>70</sup> Liu Chengcheng. RFFernandez. Determination and Classification of the Speech Act of Proposal in the Russian language. Conference paper. Convention 2019 "Modernization and Multiple Modernities" Volume 2020

<sup>71</sup><https://uz.wikipedia.org/wiki/Morphology>

The main units of morphology are morpheme and word. Morpheme-the smallest meaningful part (teach-teacher); the main unit of the language with the character of word naming.

In agglutinative languages, words are formed by combining small morphemes. Each morpheme has its own meaning and function. For example, Turkic languages, Finnish, Hungarian and Korean belonging to agglutinative languages can form thousands of words from one root.

<b>Finnish</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Uzbek</b>
Talo	house	uy
Taloni	my house	mening uyim
Talossa	in the house	uyda
Talossani	in my house	mening uyimda
Taloja	houses	uylar
Taloissa	in the houses	uylarda

According to the famous linguist Edward Finegan, words in agglutinative languages are formed as a result of adding morphemes to the vocabulary one after the other in a certain order. Turkic languages, including Uzbek, do not have the defining words "am, is, are" or "the" that are important to other languages.

*The meeting ended.*

*The meeting has started.*

They appear as follows:

<b>root</b>	+	<b>word-forming</b>	+	<b>formative</b>	+	<b>word-changing</b>
<b>morpheme</b>		<b>morpheme</b>		<b>morpheme</b>		<b>morpheme</b>

suv-chi-lar-ning.

Gul-chi-lik-ning

The morphology of inflectional languages conveys grammatical information such as number, tense, agreement, or case. English has relatively few inflectional morphemes, but many other languages have much richer systems of inflectional morphology.

Number in the noun is an inflectional morphology. While the plural form of nouns in English is –s or –es (eg books, cars, dishes), some languages have another morpheme to denote exactly two of something, and a special morpheme for more than two numbers.

### **Manam (Papua New Guinea)**

/áine ŋara/	<i>that woman</i>	singular
/áine ŋara <u>diaru</u> /	<i>those two women</i>	dual
/áine ŋara <u>di</u> /	<i>those women</i>	plural

Adverbs expressing the tense of the verb are also studied in the structure of inflectional morphology. For most English verbs, the past tense is written with -ed, (walked, cooked, climbed), but there are many English verbs in which the tense change is a change in the vowel of the verb. is indicated by (sang, write, eat ). English does not have a specific future tense morpheme, but many languages do.

Another type of inflectional morphology is the adaptation of person and number. In French, Spanish, and Italian, the suffix at the end of the verb changes depending on the person it is used with. For example: In French.

1sh.	je chante	<i>I sing</i>	<i>men kuylayman</i>
2 sh.	tu chantes	<i>you sing</i>	<i>sen kuylaysan</i>
3sh.	elle chante	<i>she sings</i>	<i>u kuylaydi</i>
1sh.	nous chantons	<i>we sing</i>	<i>biz kuylaymiz</i>
2sh.	vous chantez	<i>you (pl.) sing</i>	<i>siz kuylaysiz</i>
3sh.	elles chantent	<i>they sing</i>	<i>ular kuylaydi</i>

Analytical languages have a low ratio of morphemes to words. In these languages, each morpheme also acts as a word. Comparing the analytic languages Chinese and Vietnamese with English, we encounter the following inconsistency. **One day** in English , two days in Chinese **yītiān** , **yì tiān** "one day", **sāntiān** , **sān tiān** "two days" appear in the following form.

A fusional language is one in which one form of morpheme can encode several meanings at the same time. Fusional languages can have a large number of morphemes per word. Most European languages are somewhat fusional.

In Spanish, the *-ó* in the word *habló* (to speak) simultaneously indicates the third person, singular, and past tense. If one of the components of this meaning changes, it causes the form of the verb suffix to change. For example : *hablo* means *I speak* , *habló* means *he spoke* .<sup>72</sup>

Another typical feature of fusional languages is their declension systems. For example, in German, definite and indefinite articles differ according to gender, person-number and other cases.

<sup>72</sup>[https://www.austincc.edu/jevatt/accents/about\\_accent\\_marks.html](https://www.austincc.edu/jevatt/accents/about_accent_marks.html)

## Definite Articles

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Plural
Nominative	der	die	das	die
Accusative	den	die	das	die
Dative	dem	der	dem	den
Genitive	des	der	des	der

## Indefinite Articles

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Plural
Nominative	ein	eine	ein	viele
Accusative	einen	eine	ein	viele
Dative	einem	einer	einem	vielen
Genitive	eines	einer	eines	vieler

**Syntax** is an integral part of grammar, like morphology. If the object of study of morphology is a word, the object of study of syntax is a phrase and a sentence. Because the main function of language is a tool for exchanging ideas between people, this communication is carried out through words. So, the sentence is important as a communicative unit. Sentence fragments, word combinations make up the construction of the sentence. Thus, in syntax, issues such as parts of sentences, methods and means of their mutual syntactic relationship, word combinations and sentences, their construction, type, larger units than sentences, logical-grammatical relationship of components are studied.<sup>73</sup>

<sup>73</sup><https://elib.buxdu.uz/index.php/pages/referatlar-mustaqil-ish-kurs-ishi/item/12266-tilning-syntaktik-hususiylari>

The main unit of the syntactic level is the word group forming the subordinate-syntactic relationship and the main communicative unit is the sentence. The main unit of the supersyntactic level is the text.

Syntax also appears differently in languages. For example, while comparing the syntactic system of German and English languages, we encountered the following inconsistency.

1. In English, the verb "do" helps in forming interrogative and negative forms in the present indefinite tense. In German, the participle comes at the beginning of the sentence.

I like tea. Do you like tea?

Ich mag Tee-I like tea. Do you like Magst du Tee-tea?

2. German has 4 conjugations, English has 3 conjugations.
3. German nouns have a stem category, but English does not.
4. Both languages have phrasal verbs.
5. In both languages, possessive and participle agree in person-number.
6. Word order is more complex in German than in English.

If we compare the syntactic system of English, Uzbek and Russian languages, the main difference between them is visible in the order of words in sentences. Russian and Uzbek languages have free word order, but English word order is strict.

Uzbek: You can't understand it.

You cannot understand this.

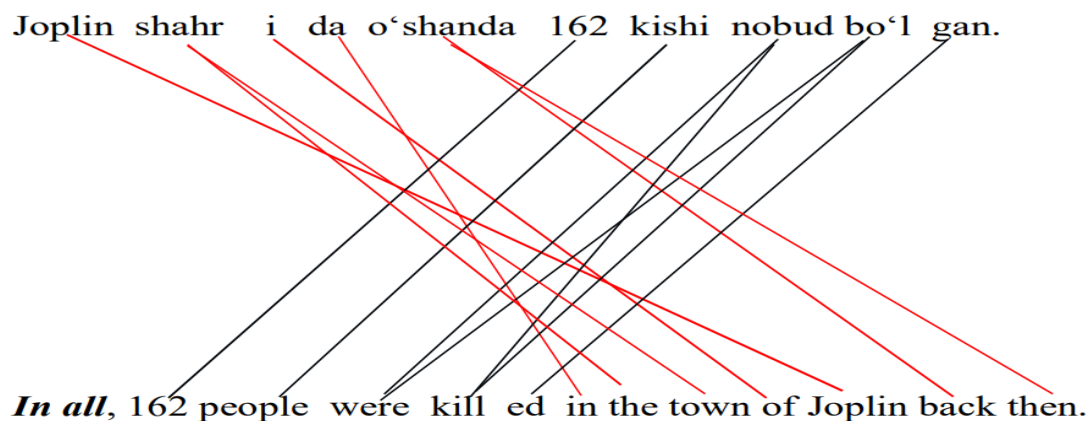
In Russian : Vam etogo what pony



Etogo and what pony

In English: You cannot understand this<sup>74</sup>

We can see the syntactic compatibility of sentences in English and Uzbek through the diagram below.



When forming the possessive and participle syntactically, we should pay attention to whether they are singular or plural. In some languages, nouns are found in singular, binary and plural forms, in Latin, Finnish, Hebrew, and Italian languages, pronouns and verbs are also present, which creates some complications in forming sentences grammatically in these languages. In these languages, including Italian, the possessive pronoun is required only when it is combined with a participle.<sup>75</sup> English belongs to the group of synthetic languages. The suffix –s can form the plural form of nouns, and can be added to verbs that come after the possessor in the 3rd person singular. In English, every part of a sentence is important. Omitting a part of a sentence means that the sentence is syntactically incomplete. In Romance languages, the possessive can be omitted in the sentence, because the subject is determined by the participle.

<sup>74</sup>AANaswali's daughter. Syntactic and semantic features of comparison in English, Uzbek and Russian languages. Article. Science and Education. Volume 2. 2020 .

<sup>75</sup>Roberta D'Alessandro. Adam Ledgeway. Syntactic variation and the dialects of Italy: an overview. July 12. 2021. -p.6

*He is not here* (in English)- ( *El* ) *nu esta acolo* (in Roman).

**Questions on the topic:**

1. What is the object of syntactic typology?
2. What basic units do you know for comparison in syntactic typology?
3. Define the term "speech".
4. How is the sentence characterized in the syntax of the compared languages? (Views of I. Mestchaninov, V. Skalicka and J. Grinberg).
5. Describe and compare the types of syntactic communication in English, Uzbek and Russian languages.
6. The problem of intervention in the process of teaching a foreign language (Syntactic level).

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