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UDK

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**COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF AFFIXATION IN THE ENGLISH AND
UZBEK LANGUAGES**

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DISSERTATION

for academic Master's degree

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INTRODUCTION

As a result of obtaining independence teaching and learning foreign languages in Uzbekistan became of great importance. This is what was said about it by President I.A. Karimov: "Currently it is difficult to assess the value of a profound knowledge of foreign languages of our people for our country which is striving to take a worthy place in the world community; for our nation sees its great future in harmony and cooperation with foreign partners.

Teaching and learning foreign languages in Uzbekistan became a state policy after President I.A.Karimov issued the order of further developing of foreign language teaching system in Uzbekistan.

The President of the Republic of Uzbekistan I. A. Karimov mentioned the importance of well educated generation in his speech at international conference "Upbringing of educated and intellectually advanced generation as the most important condition of sustainable development and modernization of country": "Today there is no need to prove that the 21st century is commonly acknowledged to be a century of globalization and vanishing borders that of information and communication technologies and the internet the age of ever growing competition worldwide and in the global market.

In circumstances like these, only that nation considers itself viable that has among its vital priorities, incessantly, the mounting investments and inputs into human capital, upbringing an educated and intellectually decisive power in furthering the goals of democratic development, modernization and renewal".

The **topicality** of our research work is explained by the following facts:

First, the topic of our research paper has not yet been investigated. Second, foreign language teaching has become of greater importance in

our Republic. As was mentioned above, it has become a state policy here. Third, contrastive linguistics to which our research belongs is the lingua didactic basis of foreign language teaching (Yusupov U.K. 2007, 21). Fourth, most Uzbek students know little about English affixes and their meanings. As we know, the knowledge of the meaning of an affix enables us to decode the meaning any other word having the same affix.

Object of the research is derivational affixes in the English and Uzbek languages.

Subject matter of the research is the similarities and differences between them.

Aim of the research is to reveal and show the peculiar features of English and Uzbek derivational affixes.

During working on the research work I tried to solve the following **objectives**:

- to read and generalize current literature on our topic;
- to generalize and systematize the existing opinions of linguists of affixal word building;
- to reveal the similarities and differences between English and Uzbek derivational affixes;
- to work out recommendations for teachers and students on how to use our findings in teaching and learning English.

Methods of the research: observation and comparative methods.

Methodological basis of the research are the works and orders of I.A. Karimov, President of the Republic of Uzbekistan, “The Law of Education”, “The National Program of Personnel Preparation” of the Republic of Uzbekistan and many other State documents.

The works and theoretical views of scholars such as B.Ilysh, I.V.Arnold, A.Khojiev, U.Q.Yusupov, D.B. Bankevich, A.Muminov and many others have been effectively involved in the dissertation.

Scientific findings and theoretical value of the research: the similarities and differences between English and Uzbek derivational affixes have been established. Thus one of the gaps in contrastive linguistics of the English and Uzbek languages has been filled up.

Practical value of the research is that the results of the research can be applied in teaching English in Uzbek auditorium, in delivering lectures on contrastive linguistics of the English and Uzbek languages and on English lexicology.

As language material for the research work has been used extracts from the works by English, American, Uzbek writers and journals, the examples of the used literature.

The dissertation consists of introduction, three chapters, general conclusion, summary, glossary and the list of used literature.

The first chapter is dedicated to the morphological structure of words, types of morphemes and the general view of the ways of word formation in English and Uzbek.

The second chapter clears English and Uzbek derivational suffixes are subjected to comparison. This chapter also describes the derivation of suffixes in the parts of speech.

The third chapter deals with comparison of prefixes of the two languages. In this chapter were shown prefixes in the parts of speech in the English and Uzbek languages, was revealed the similarities and differences between English and Uzbek derivational prefixes.

CHAPTER I. MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF WORDS

1.1. Morphemes and their types

In linguistics, a “morpheme” is the smallest meaningful unit in a language. The field of study dedicated to morphemes is called “morphology”. A morpheme is not identical to a word and the principal difference between the two is that a morpheme may or may not stand alone, whereas a word, by definition, is freestanding. Every word comprises one or more morphemes.

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

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

Every morpheme can be classified as either free or bound. These categories are mutually exclusive, and as such, a given morpheme will belong to exactly one of them. Free morphemes can function independently as words, e.g. “town”, “dog” and can appear with other lexemes, e.g. “townhall”, “doghouse”.

Bound morphemes appear only as parts of words, always in conjunction with a root and sometimes with other bound morphemes. For

example, *un-* appears only accompanied by other morphemes to form a word. Most bound morphemes in English are affixes, particularly prefixes and suffixes, examples of suffixes are: *-tion*, *-ation*, *-ible*, *-ing*, etc. Bound morphemes that are not affixes are called cranberry morphemes.

In Uzbek: *kiyiko't*, *gultojixo'roz* are examples of free morphemes, and *mehnat-kash*, *no-munosib* are examples of bound morphemes.

According to the role they play in constructing words. Morphemes are subdivided into roots and affixes. The latter are further subdivided, according to their position, into prefixes, suffixes and infixes, and according to their function and meaning, into derivational and functional (grammatical) affixes, the latter also called “endings” or “outer formatives”.

When a derivational or functional affix is stripped from the word, what remains is a stem (or a stem base). The stem expresses the lexical and the part of speech meaning. For the word *hearty* and for the paradigm *heart* (sing.)-*hearts* the stem may be represented as *heart-*. This stem is a single morpheme, it contains nothing but the root, so it is a simple stem. It is also a free stem because it is homonymous to the word “*heart*”.

A stem may also be defined as the part of the word that remains unchanged throughout its paradigm. The stem of the paradigm *hearty* — *heartier* — (the) *heartiest* is *hearty-*. It is a free stem, but as it consists of a root morpheme and an affix, it is not simple but derived. Thus, a stem containing one or more affixes is a derived stem. If after deducing the affix the remaining stem is not homonymous to a separate word of the same root, we call it a bound stem. Thus, in the word *cordial* “proceeding as if from the heart”, the adjective-forming suffix can be separated on the analogy with such words as *bronchial*, *radial*, *social*. The remaining stem, however, cannot form a separate word by itself, it

is bound. In *cordially* and *cordiality*, on the other hand, the derived stems are free.

Bound stems are especially characteristic of loan words. The point may be illustrated by the following French borrowings: *arrogance*, *charity*, *courage*, *coward*, *distort*, *involve*, *notion*, *legible* and *tolerable*, to give but a few. After the affixes of these words are taken away the remaining elements are: *arrog-*, *char-*, *cour-*, *cow-*, *-tort*, *-volve*, *not-*, *leg-*, *toler-*, which do not coincide with any semantically related independent words.

Roots are main morphemic vehicles of a given idea in a given language at a given stage of its development. A root may be also regarded as the ultimate constituent element which remains after the removal of all functional and derivational affixes and does not admit any further analysis. It is the common element of words within a word-family. Thus, *-heart-* is the common root of the following series of words: *heart*, *hearten*, *dishearten*, *heartily*, *heartless*, *heartly*, *heartiness*, *sweetheart*, *heart-broken*, *kind-hearted*, *whole-heartedly*, etc. In some of these, as, for example, in *hearten*, there is only one root; in others the root *-heart* is combined with some other root, thus forming a compound like *sweetheart*.

The root word *heart* is unsegmentable, it is non-motivated morphologically. The morphemic structure of all the other words in this word-family is obvious — they are segmentable as consisting of at least two distinct morphemes. They may be further subdivided into:

1) those formed by affixation or affixational derivatives consisting of a root morpheme and one or more affixes: *hearten*, *dishearten*, *heartily*, *heartless*, *heartly*, *heartiness*;

2) compounds, in which two, or very rarely more, stems simple or derived are combined into a lexical unit: *sweetheart*, *heart-shaped*, *heart-broken*.

3) derivational compounds where words of a phrase are joined together by composition and affixation: *kind-hearted*. This last process is also called phrasal derivation ((*kind heart*) + *-ed*)).

It will at once be noticed that the root in English is very often homonymous with the word. This fact is of fundamental importance as it is one of the most specific features of the English language arising from its general grammatical system on the one hand, and from its phonemic system on the other. The influence of the analytical structure of the language is obvious. The second point, however, calls for some explanation. Actually the usual phonemic shape most favoured in English is one single stressed syllable: *bear, find, jump, land, man, sing*, etc. This does not give much space for a second morpheme to add classifying lexico-grammatical meaning to the lexical meaning already present in the root-stem, so the lexico-grammatical meaning must be signalled by distribution.

In the phrases *a morning's drive, a morning's ride, a morning's walk* the words *drive, ride* and *walk* receive the lexico-grammatical meaning of a noun not due to the structure of their stems, but because they are preceded by a genitive.

An English word does not necessarily contain formatives indicating to what part of speech it belongs. This holds true even with respect to inflectable parts of speech, i.e. nouns, verbs, adjectives. Not all roots are free forms, but productive roots, i.e. roots capable of producing new words, usually are. The semantic realisation of an English word is therefore very specific. Its dependence on context is further enhanced by the widespread occurrence of homonymy both among root morphemes and affixes. Note how many words in the following statement might be ambiguous if taken in isolation: *A change of work is as good as a rest.*

The above treatment of the root is purely synchronic, as we have taken into consideration only the facts of present-day English. But the

same problem of the morpheme serving as the main signal of a given lexical meaning is studied in etymology. Thus, when approached historically or diachronically the word *heart* will be classified as Common Germanic. One will look for cognates, i.e. words descended from a common ancestor. The cognates of *heart* are the Latin *cor*, whence *cordial* “hearty”, “sincere”, and so *cordially* and *cordiality*, also the Greek *kardia*, whence English *cardiac condition*. The cognates outside the English vocabulary are the Russian *cepдye*, the German *Herz*, the Spanish *Corazon* and other words.

To emphasise the difference between the synchronic and the diachronic treatment, we shall call the common element of cognate words in different languages not their root but their radical element.

These two types of approach, synchronic and diachronic, give rise to two different principles of arranging morphologically related words into groups. In the first case series of words with a common root morpheme in which derivatives are opposable to their unsuffixed and unprefixed bases, are combined, cf. *heart*, *hearty*, etc. The second grouping results in families of historically cognate words, cf. *heart*, *cor* (Lat.), *Herz* (Germ.), etc.

Unlike roots, affixes are always bound forms. The difference between suffixes and prefixes, it will be remembered, is not confined to their respective position, suffixes being “fixed after” and prefixes “fixed before” the stem. It also concerns their function and meaning.

A suffix is a derivational morpheme following the stem and forming a new derivative in a different part of speech or a different word class, cf. *-en*, *-y*, *-less* in *hearten*, *hearty*, *heartless*. When both the underlying and the resultant forms belong to the same part of speech, the suffix serves to differentiate between lexico-grammatical classes by rendering some very general lexico-grammatical meaning. For instance, both *-ify* and *-er* are verb suffixes, but the first characterises causative verbs,

such as *horrify, purify, rarefy, simplify*, whereas the second is mostly typical of frequentative verbs: *flicker, shimmer, twitter* and the like.

If we realise that suffixes render the most general semantic component of the word's lexical meaning by marking the general class of phenomena to which the referent of the word belongs, the reason why suffixes are as a rule semantically fused with the stem stands explained.

A prefix is a derivational morpheme standing before the root and modifying meaning, cf. *hearten — dishearten*. It is only with verbs and statives that a prefix may serve to distinguish one part of speech from another, like in *earth n — unearth v, sleep n — asleep* (stative).

It is interesting that as a prefix *en-* may carry the same meaning of being or bringing into a certain state as the suffix *-en*, cf. *enable, encamp, endanger, endear, enslave* and *fasten, darken, deepen, lengthen, strengthen*.

Preceding a verb stem, some prefixes express the difference between a transitive and an intransitive verb: *stay v* and *outstay (sb) vt*. With a few exceptions prefixes modify the stem for time (*pre-, post-*). An infix is an affix placed within the word. But English and Uzbek do not have them

Derivational and functional (grammatical) affixes

Lexicology is concerned with derivational affixes, the other group belongs to grammar.

Language being a system in which the elements of vocabulary and grammar are closely interrelated, our study of affixes cannot be complete without some discussion of the similarity and difference between derivational and functional morphemes.

The similarity is obvious as they are so often homonymous. Otherwise the two groups are essentially different because they render different types of meaning.

Functional affixes serve to convey grammatical meaning. They build different forms of one and the same word. A word form, or the form of a word, is defined as one of the different aspects a word may take as a result of inflection. Complete sets of all the various forms of a word when considered as inflectional patterns, such as declensions or conjugations, are termed paradigms. A paradigm has been defined in grammar as the system of grammatical forms characteristic of a word, e. g. *near, nearer, nearest; son, son's, sons, sons'*.

Derivational affixes serve to supply the stem with components of lexical and lexico-grammatical meaning, and thus form different words. One and the same lexico-grammatical meaning of the affix is sometimes accompanied by different combinations of various lexical meanings. Thus, the lexico-grammatical meaning supplied by the suffix *-y* consists in the ability to express the qualitative idea peculiar to adjectives and creates adjectives from noun stems. The lexical meanings of the same suffix are somewhat variegated: “full of”, as in *bushy* or *cloudy*, “composed of”, as in *stony*, “having the quality of”, as in *slangy*, “resembling”, as in *baggy*, “covered with”, as in *hairy* and some more. This suffix sometimes conveys emotional components of meaning. E.g.: *My school reports used to say: “Not amenable to discipline; too fond of organising,” which was only a kind way of saying: “Bossy.”* (M. Dickens). *Bossy* not only means “having the quality of a boss” or “behaving like a boss”; it is also a derogatory word.

This fundamental difference in meaning and function of the two groups of affixes results in an interesting relationship: the presence of a derivational affix does not prevent a word from being equivalent to another word, in which this suffix is absent, so that they can be substituted for one another in context. The presence of a functional affix changes the distributional properties of a word so much that it can never be substituted for a simple word without violating grammatical standard.

To see this point consider the following familiar quotation from Shakespeare:

Cowards die many times before their deaths;

The valiant never taste of death but once.

Here no one-morpheme word can be substituted for the words *cowards*, *times* or *deaths* because the absence of a plural mark will make the sentence ungrammatical. The words containing derivational affixes can be substituted by morphologically different words, so that the derivative *valiant* can be substituted by a root word like *brave*. In a statement like *I wash my hands of the whole affair* (Du Maurier) the word *affair* may be replaced by the derivative *business* or by the simple word *thing* because their distributional properties are the same. It is, however, impossible to replace it by a word containing a functional affix (*affairs* or *things*), as this would require a change in the rest of the sentence.

The American structuralists B. Bloch and G. Trager formulate this point as follows: "A suffixal derivative is a two-morpheme word which is grammatically equivalent to (can be substituted for) any simple word in all the constructions where it occurs". This rule is not to be taken as an absolutely rigid one because the word building potential and productivity of stems depend on several factors. Thus, no further addition of suffixes is possible after *-ness*, *-ity*, *-dom*, *-ship* and *-hood*.

A derivative is mostly capable of further derivation and is therefore homonymous to a stem. *Foolish*, for instance, is derived from the stem *fool-* and is homonymous to the stem *foolish-* occurring in the words *foolishness* and *foolishly*. Inflected words cease to be homonymous to stems. No further derivation is possible from the word form *fools*, where the stem *fool-* is followed by the functional affix *-s*. Inflected words are neither structurally nor functionally equivalent to the morphologically simple words belonging to the same part of speech. *Things* is different

from *business* functionally, because these two words cannot occur in identical contexts, and structurally, because of the different character of their immediate constituents and different word-forming possibilities.

The semantic, functional and positional difference that has already been stated is supported by statistical properties and difference in valency (combining possibilities). Of the three main types of morphemes, namely roots, derivational affixes and functional affixes (formatives), the roots are by far the most numerous. There are many thousand roots in the English language; the derivational affixes, when listed, do not go beyond a few scores. The list given in "Chambers's Twentieth Century Dictionary" takes up five pages and a half, comprising all the detailed explanations of their origin and meaning, and even then the actual living suffixes are much fewer. As to the functional affixes there are hardly more than ten of them. Regular English verbs, for instance, have only four forms: *play*, *plays*, *played*, *playing*, as compared to the German verbs which have as many as sixteen.

The valency of these three groups of morphemes is naturally in inverse proportion to their number. Functional affixes can be appended, with a few exceptions, to any element belonging to the part of speech they serve. The regular correlation of singular and plural forms of nouns can serve to illustrate this point. Thus, *heart* - *hearts*; *boy* - *boys*, etc. The relics of archaic forms, such as *child* - *children*, or foreign plurals like *criterion* - *criteria* are very few in comparison with these.

Derivational affixes do not combine so freely and regularly. The suffix *-en* occurring in *golden* and *leaden* cannot be added to the root *steel*-. Nevertheless, as they serve to mark certain groups of words, their correlations are never isolated and always contain more than two oppositions, e. g. *boy* - *boyish*, *child* - *childish*, *book* - *bookish*, *gold* - *golden*, *lead* - *leaden*, *wood* - *wooden*. The valency of roots is of a very different order and the oppositions may be sometimes isolated. It is for

instance difficult to find another pair with the root *heart* and the same relationship as in *heart - sweetheart*.

Knowing the plural functional suffix *-s* we know how the countable nouns are inflected. The probability of a mistake is not great.

With derivational affixes the situation is much more intricate. Knowing, for instance, the complete list of affixes of feminisation, i.e. formation of feminine nouns from the stems of masculine ones by adding a characteristic suffix, we shall be able to recognise a new word if we know the root. This knowledge, however, will not enable us to construct words acceptable for English vocabulary, because derivational affixes are attached to their particular stems. To sum up, derivational and functional morphemes may happen to be identical in sound form, but they are substantially different in meaning, function, valency, statistical characteristics and structural properties.

There are cases, indeed, where it is very difficult to draw a hard and fast line between roots and affixes on the one hand, and derivational affixes and inflectional formatives on the other. The distinction between these has caused much discussion and is no easy matter altogether.

1.2. Ways of word formation in English and Uzbek.

Word formation is the process of creating new words from the material available in the language after certain structural and semantic formulas and patterns.

Word formation is that branch of the science of language which the patterns on which a language forms new lexical units, i.e. words. (*H. Marchand.*) The term “*word formation*” is applied to the process by which new words are formed by adding prefixes and suffixes or both to a root — form already in existence. (*J.A. Sheard*). Thus, word formation is the creation of new words from the elements existing in the language.

Every language has its own structural patterns of word formation. Words like «*writer*», «*worker*», «*teacher*», «*manager*» “*yozuvchi*”, “*ishchi*”, “*o’qituvchi*”, and many others follow the structural pattern of word formation «*V + er*» in English and “*V+ chi*” in Uzbek.

Word-formation may be studied synchronically and diachronically. With regard to compounding, prefixing and suffixing word formation proceeds either on a native or on a foreign basis of coining. The term native basis of coining means that a derivative must be analysable as consisting of two independent morphemes (in the event of a compound as *rainbow*) or of a combination of independent and dependent morpheme (in the case of prefixal and suffixal derivatives as *un-just*, *boy-hood*).

By word formation on a foreign basis of coining we understand derivation on the morphologic basis of another language. In English most learned, scientific or technical words are formed on the morphologic basis of Latin or Greek. (*Marchand*)

Two principal approaches are applied in the science of language: the synchronic and the diachronic one. With regard to word formation the synchronic linguist would study the present day system of formation words types while the scholar of the diachronic school would write the history of word formation.

Marchand points out that mere semantic correlation is not enough to establish a phonological (phonemic), morpho-phonemic opposition. For the speaker «*dine*» and «*dinner*», «*maintain*» and «*maintenance*» and many others are semantically connected but a derivative connection has not developed out of such pairs, so their opposition is not relevant to word formation.

Thus, synchronically we study those of word formation which characterize the present-day English and Uzbek linguistic systems, while diachronically we investigate the history of word formation. The

synchronic type of word formation does not always coincide with the historical system of word formation. *For example:* The words *childhood*, *kingdom* were compound words: *hood* OE had (state, rank), *dom* OE dom condemn. But synchronically they are considered as derived words because “-dom”, “-hood” became affixes. The words “return” and “turn” historically had semantic relations and “return” was considered as a word derived from “turn”. But synchronically these words have no semantic relations and we can't say that “return” is derived from “turn”.

Synchronically the most important and the most productive ways of word formation are: affixation, conversion, word-composition. Besides them there are other types of word formation such as: shortening, sound interchange, blending, back-formation etc. In the course of the historical development of a language the productivity of this or that way of word formation changes.

For example, sound interchange (*blood — bleed, strike — stroke*) was a productive way of word formation in old English and it is an important subject-matter for a diachronic study of the English language. Sound interchange has lost its productivity in Modern English and no new words can be formed by means of sound interchange. Affixation on the contrary was productive in Old English and is still one of the most productive ways of word formation in Modern English.

Two types of word formation may be distinguished: word-derivation and word-composition. Words formed by word-derivation have only one stem and one or more derivational affixes (*For example, kindness* from *kind*). Some derived words have no affixes because derivation is achieved through conversion (*For example, to paper* from *paper*). Words formed by word composition have two or more stems (*For example, bookcase, note-book*). Besides there are words created by derivation and

composition. Such words are called derivational compounds (*For example, long-legged, узун - оёқли*).

Before proceeding to comparing affixation in English and Uzbek we should like to briefly dwell on all the ways of word formation in English and Uzbek.

Affixation

Affixation is the formation of words with the help of derivational affixes. As it was said above all morphemes are subdivided into two large classes: *roots* (or *radicals*) and *affixes*. The latter, in their turn, fall into *prefixes* which precede the root in the structure of the word (as in *re-read\ mis-pronounce, unwell*) and *suffixes* which follow the root (as in *teach-er, cur-able, diet-ate*).

Words which consist of a root and an affix (or several affixes) are called *derived words* or *derivatives* and are produced by the process of word-building known as *affixation* (or *derivation*).

Derived words are extremely numerous in the English vocabulary. Successfully competing with this structural type is the so-called *root word* which has only a root morpheme in its structure.

Affixation is subdivided into prefixation and suffixation. *For example*, if a prefix “*dis-*” is added to the stem “*like*” (*dislike*) or suffix “*-ful*” to “*law*” (*lawful*) we say a word is built by an affixation. Derivational morphemes added before the stem of a word are called *prefixes* (*un + like*) and the derivational morphemes added after the stem of the word are called *suffixes* (*hand+ful*). Prefixes modify the lexical meaning of the stem meaning, i.e. the prefixed derivative mostly belongs to the same part of speech. *For example, like (v.)— dislike (v.). kind (adj.) — unkind (adj.)* but suffixes transfer words to a different part of speech, *For example, teach (v.) — teacher (n.)*.

In Uzbek affixation also consists of two types:

a) *So'z yasovchi ort qo'shimchalar* (suffixes).

Examples: *o't+loq, chiri+k, tosh+qin, ish+chan, arra+la* .

b) *So'z yasovchi old qo'shimchalar* (prefixes).

Examples: *be+tinim, no+to'g'ri, ba+ma'ni, ser+harakat, anti+demokratiya*.

From the point of view of etymology affixes are subdivided into two main classes: the native affixes and the borrowed affixes. By native affixes we shall mean those that existed in English in the Old English period or were formed from Old English words. The latter category needs some explanation. The changes a morpheme undergoes in the course of language history may be of very different kinds. A bound form, for instance, may be developed from a free one. This is precisely the case with such I English suffixes as *-dom, -hood, -lock, -ful, -less, -like, -ship*; e.g. ModE *dom* < OE *dom* "fate", "power", cf. ModE *doom*. The suffix *-hood* that we see in *childhood, boyhood* is derived from OE noun *had* "state". The OE *lac* was also a suffix denoting state. The process may be summarized as follows: first *lac* formed the second element of compound words, then it became a suffix and lastly was so fused with the stem as to become a dead suffix in *wedlock*. The nouns *freedom, wisdom*, etc. were originally compound words.

The most important native suffixes are: *-d, -dom, -ed, -en, -fold, -ful, -hood, -ing, -ish, -less, -let, -like, -lock, -ly, -ness, -oc, -red--ship, -some, -teen, -th, -ward, -wise, -y*.

The suffixes of foreign origin are classified according to their source into Latin (*-able/-ible, -and/-ent*), French (*-age, -ance/-ence, -ancy/-ency, -ard, -ate, -sy*), Greek (*-ist, -ism, -ite*), etc.

The term borrowed affixes is not very exact as affixes are never borrowed as such, but only as parts of loan words. To enter the morphological system of the English language a borrowed affix has to

satisfy certain conditions. The borrowing of the affixes is possible only if the number of words containing this affix is considerable, if its meaning and function are definite and clear enough, and last but not least, if its structural pattern corresponds to the structural patterns already existing in the language.

If these conditions are fulfilled the foreign affix may even become productive and combine with native stems or borrowed stems within the system of English vocabulary like *-able*. Lat. *-abilis* in such words as *laughable* or *unforgettable* and *unforgivable*. The English words *balustrade*, *brigade*, *cascade* are borrowed from French. On the analogy with these in the English language itself such words as *blockade* are coined.

It should be noted that many of the borrowed affixes are international and occur not only in English but in several other European languages as well.

By their origin the Uzbek affixes like English ones are divided into native and borrowed. The suffixes: *-chi*, *-gar*, *-zor*, *-lik*, *-li* are native suffixes, but *-izm*, *-atsiya*, *-bo*, *-no*, *-namo*, *-ki* are of borrowed origin. The affixes may be divided into different semantic groups. These semantic groups of affixes may be different in different languages. For example, diminutive affixes in Uzbek are more than in English.

Productive and non-productive affixes

The synchronic analysis of the preceding paragraphs studies the present-day system and patterns characteristic of the English vocabulary by comparing simultaneously existing words. In diachronic analysis lexical elements are compared with those from which they have been formed and developed and their present productivity is determined. The diachronic study of vocabulary establishes whether the present morphological structure of each element of the vocabulary is due to the

process of affixation or some other word-forming process, which took place within the English vocabulary in the course of its development, or whether it has some other source. The possible other sources are:

1) the borrowing of morphologically divisible words, e.g. *il-literate* from Lat. *illiteratus* or *literature* from Lat. *Litteratura*

2) remotivation, e.g. when in a number of Latin verbs borrowed in the second participle form with the suffix *-at (us)*, this suffix became *-ate (separate)*, and came to be understood as a characteristic mark of the infinitive;

3) false etymology: when a difficult, usually borrowed, word structure is distorted into some form suggesting a motivation, as, for instance, in the change of *asparagus* into *sparrow-grass*, or OF and ME *crevice* into *crayfish*.

Synchronic analysis concentrates on structural types and treats word-formation as a system of rules, aiming at the creation of a consistent and complete theory by which the observed facts can be classified, and the non-observed facts can be predicted. This aim has not been achieved as yet, so that a consistently synchronic description of the English language is still fragmentary, still requires frequent revision. Diachronic analysis concentrating on word-forming processes is more fully worked out.

All the foregoing treatment has been strictly synchronic, i.e. only the present state of the English vocabulary has been taken into consideration.

To have a complete picture of affixation, however, one must be acquainted with the development of the stock of morphemes involved. A diachronic approach is thus indispensable.

The basic contrast that must be dealt with in this connection is the opposition of productive and non-productive affixes. That is to say, the word-forming activity of the affixes may change in the course of time:

some affixes remain productive while others become non-productive. The process may continue so that in the long run some affixes become “dead”, i.e. they cannot be segregated by analysis into IC’s, and; the words containing them are morphologically indivisible.

We call productive those affixes and types of word-formation which are used to form new words in the period in question. The proof of productivity is the existence of new words coined by these means. Therefore when we see that a notion that could not possibly have existed at some previous stage has a name formed with the help of some affix, the affix is considered productive. For instance, the word *telly* is unquestionably a neologism, as there were no television sets in people’s homes some two decades ago. The diminutive suffix *-ie/-y* may therefore be called productive in present-day English.

The most productive English prefixes and some new words containing them are: *de-* (*decontaminate*), *re-* (*rethink*), *pre-* (*prefabricate*), *non-* (*non-operational*), *un-* (*unfunny*), *anti-* (*antibiotic*). The most productive noun suffixes, besides the highly productive *-ing*, *-ness* and *-er* with their almost unlimited valency, are *-ation* (*automation*), *-ee* (*evacuee*), *-ism* (*racialism*), *-ist* (*racialist*), *-ry* (*gimmickry*), and also *-or* (*reactor*), *-ancel-ancy* (*redundancy*), *-ics* (*cybernetics*) and some others in technical neologisms. The verb-forming suffixes are only three: *-ate*, *-ify*, *-isel-ize*, they are all equally productive and form mostly words having special terminological meaning (*oxidate*, *denazity*, *vitaminize*). The productive adjective-forming suffixes are *-able*, *-ed*, *-ic*, *-ish*, *-less*, *-y*: *manoeuvrable*, *ultra-heat-treated*, *electronic*, *smartish*, *jobless*, *tweedy*.

The productivity of an affix should not be confused with its frequency which is a synchronic characteristic and means the existence in the vocabulary of a great number of words containing the morpheme in question. An affix may occur in a great number of words, but if it is

not used to form new ones, it is not productive. Such is for instance the case with the noun-forming suffix *-th* and its allomorph *-t* which may be traced: back to OE and is combined with adjective stems: *health* (OE *hsele*), *height* (OE *hiehpū, heahpū*), *truth* (OE *treowfi*); also with verbal stems, *i* as in *flight* (OE *flyht*), *frost* (OE *frost, forst*), *growth* (OE *yowan*). The list of examples may be very long and yet as there are no neologisms with *-th/ -t* this suffix is considered non-productive.

It is interesting to note that such non-productive suffixes as *-all/-ial/-ual*, *-ve*, *-ancy/-ency*, *-antt-ent* and *-ve* are among the 32 most frequent suffixes of the English language. (Arnold I.V.1973)

The non-productive affixes are readily recognized as separate morphemes and possess clear-cut semantic characteristics. It is for instance quite obvious that such verbs as *deepen*, *fasten*, *moisten* and the like, are analysable into an adjective stem and a verb-forming suffix *-en* coining verbs with the meaning “to obtain or increase the quality denoted by the stem”.

The lexical and lexico-grammatical meaning of this suffix remains the same when it occurs with noun stems in such verbs as *heighten* or *strengthen*.

No matter how long a list of examples containing the suffix *-ful* one might compile (*beautiful*, *grateful*, *helpful*, *peaceful*, *trustful*, *useful*, etc.), there is no denying the fact that no new words have been coined of late on this pattern, and so the suffix is non-productive. The same is true about *-ly* as an adjective-forming suffix, as contrasted to its highly productive homonym, the adverb-forming *-ly*. The adjective forming *-ly* has survived in words that came down from some earlier period. Thus, from the Old English we have *deadly* (OE *deadlic*), *goodly* (OE *sodlic*), *friendly* (OE *frSondllce*), *heavenly* (OE *heofonrice*). The Middle English period created *beastly*, *gentlemanly*, *sickly*, *womanly* and others. Early Modern English is responsible for *elderly*, *kindly*, *lonely*, etc. In all these

cases the suffix *-ly* is quite distinct as a separate morpheme, but not as distinct semantically as the suffix *-ful*.

The lexical meaning of a non-productive suffix often fades off so that only its lexico-grammatical meaning remains. Alongside with *-ly* the non-productive adjective-forming suffix *-some* may be mentioned: cf. *cumbersome, handsome, loathsome, lonesome, tiresome, troublesome, wholesome*.

As seen from the above list the suffix *-some* is characteristic of a definite class of adjectives, namely qualitative adjectives. The past of non-productive affixes may be different. For some of them (as, for instance, for the native suffixes *-hood, -ship, -th*) there was a time when they were productive English suffixes. Other affixes, on the contrary, were never productive on English soil, but were borrowed from other languages together with the words that contained them. Due to the fact that there were other loan words containing the same morpheme, the affixes came to be recognized as such. This group comprises a great number of elements: *-ant, -ent, -ive, -ous*, etc.

It is worthy of note that an affix may lose its productivity and then be revived for a new spell of active word-formation. This happened, for instance, to the suffix *-dom*. For a long period of time it was non-productive but in the last hundred years *-dom* got a new lease of life, so that more than two hundred abstract nouns were coined with its help, such as *boredom, serfdom, slavery* and others. A similar fate befell the suffix *-ship*.

There are also suffixes on which opinions differ. Some authors, for instance, consider *-ment* and *-ation/-tion/-sion/-ion* productive, others class them as non-productive which is clearly a mistake, shown by such examples as *automation* or *hospitalization*.

It should be also noted that there are cases when affixes non-productive in general speech can be found in technical neologisms.

Thus, a large number of new formations can be quoted with the suffixes *-ance* (*conductance, transmittance*) or *-ic* (*antibiotic, electronic*), *-ile* (*tactile*), etc.

The term dead suffixes is used for suffixes disclosed by etymological analysis but having no relevance for the present state of the language. As a rule they are combined with bound stems. A few examples are: *-d* (*deed, seed*), *-le/-l/-el* (*bridle, sail, hovel*), *-lock* (*wedlock*), *-nd* (*friend*), *-red* (*hatred*), etc. Also in verbs: *-k* (*walk, talk*), *-I* (*kneel, whirl*). These suffixes are fused with their stems. A suffix can also drop from the language altogether, like the Old English verbal suffix *-ettan* (*dropettan*), or be substituted by some other suffix or suffixes (OE *staniht* – ModE *stony*).

In this part of our dissertation we considered only general features of affixes, in chapter II and chapter III affixes of English and Uzbek are subjected to comparison.

Word composition

Compounding or word-composition is one of the productive types of word-formation in Modern English. Modern English is very rich in compound words. Compound words are made up by joining two or more stems. A compound word has a single semantic structure. We distinguish the meaning of the compound words from the combined lexical meanings of its components. *Pencil-case* is a case for pencils. The meaning of the compound words is derived not only from the combined lexical meanings of its components but also from the order and arrangement of the stems. A change in the order of components of compound words brings a change in their lexical meaning.

Compound words are classified into completely motivated, partially motivated and non-motivated compound words.

In the Uzbek language word composition is also one of the

productive way of forming new words. We came across most similarities when the process of comparing these two languages: *ko'zoynak* - ot+ot modeli, *oqqush* – sifat+ot modeli, *qirqog'ayni* – son+ot modeli.

Conversion

Conversion, one of the principal ways of forming words in Modern English and Uzbek is highly productive in replenishing the English and Uzbek word-stock with new words. The term “conversion”, which some linguists find inadequate, refers to the numerous cases of phonetic identity of word-forms, primarily the so-called initial forms, of two words belonging to different parts of speech. As a rule we deal with root words, although there are exceptions. This phenomenon may be illustrated by the following cases: *work - to work*, *love - to love*, *brief - to brief*;

In Uzbek: *kasal adj. - kasal noun*.

Conversion has been the subject of a great many linguistic discussions since 1891 when H. Sweet first used the in his New English Grammar. Various opinions have been expressed on the nature and character of conversion in the English language and different conceptions of conversion have put forward.

Conversion has already been defined as a shift from one part of speech to another without derivational affixes. But this functional change has also been observed in a shift from one kind of noun to another, or one kind of verbs to another, or one kind of adverb to another; and seems logical to regard conversion as functional change not only between the parts of speech but also within each part of speech. It should be insisted also that conversion and derivational change are two distinct processes; derivational change by the use of prefixes and suffixes shifts words between the parts of speech by producing different forms, as, for example, the adjective “wide”, the noun “width”, and the verb

“widen”.

Abbreviation

The shortening of words consists in substituting a part for a whole. The process of shortening is not confined only to words, many word groups also become shortened in the process of communication. Therefore, the term “shortening of words” is to be regarded as conventional, as it involves the shortening of both words and word-groups.

Distinction should be made between shortening of words in written speech and in the sphere of oral intercourse. Shortening of words in written speech results in graphical abbreviations which are, in fact, signs representing words and word groups of high frequency of occurrence in various spheres of human activity, note, for instance, RD for Road and St for Street in addresses on envelopes and in letters; tu for tube, aer for aerial in Radio Engineering literature, etc. English graphical abbreviations include rather numerous shortened variants of Latin and French words and word groups; e.g. a.m. (anti meridiem)- “in the morning, before noon ; p.m. (post meridiem)- “in the afternoon, afternoon ”; i.e. (id est)- “that is”.

The characteristic feature of graphical abbreviations is that they are restricted in use to written speech, occurring only in various texts, articles, books, advertisements, letters, etc. In reading many of them are substituted by the words and phrases that they represent, e.g., *Dr.* = *doctor*, *Mr.* = *mister*, *Oct.* = *October.*, the abbreviations of Latin and French words and phrases being usually read as their English equivalents. It is only natural that in the course of language development some graphical abbreviations should gradually penetrate into sphere of oral intercourse and, as a result, turn into lexical abbreviations used both in oral and written speech. That is the case, for instance, with *M.P.* =

Member of Parliament, S.O.S. = Save our Souls.

We must distinguish shortened variants of words (kg-kilogram; kg-kilogram) and shortened variants of phrases (*The USA-the United States of America; AQSH-Amerika Qo'shma Shtatlari*) used as independent lexical units with a certain phonetic shape and a semantic structure of their own. Some of them occur both in oral and written speech, others only in oral colloquial speech, cf. *bus, mike, phone, on the one hand, and trig, maths, sis*, on the other.

In most cases a shortened word exists in the vocabulary together with the longer word from which it is derived and usually has the same lexical meaning differing only in emotive charge and stylistic reference. The question naturally arises whether the shortened forms and the original forms should be considered separate words. Some linguists hold the view that as the two units do not differ in meaning but only in stylistic application, it would be wrong to apply the term word to the shortened unit. In fact, the shortened unit is a word-variant (e.g. *exam is a word-variant of the word examination*).

Other linguists contend that even when the original word and its shortened form are generally used with "a difference in the implied tone of feeling" they are both to be recognized as two distinct words. Among shortenings of the lexical type distinction should be made between lexical abbreviations and clipping. Lexical abbreviations are formed by a simultaneous operation of shortening and compounding. They are made up of the initial sounds or syllables of the components of a word group or a compound word usually of a terminological character.

As a general rule, lexical abbreviations first make their appearance in written speech, mostly in newspaper style and in the style of scientific prose, and gradually find their way into the sphere of oral intercourse.

Clipping

Clipping consists in the cutting off one or several syllables of a word. In many cases the stressed syllable is preserved, e.g. *sis* from *sister*, *Jap* from *Japanese*, *doc* from *doctor*, etc. diminutives of proper names are often formed in this way, e.g. *Alf* from *Alfred*, *Ed* from *Edward*, *Sam* from *Samuel*, etc. Sometimes, however, it is the unstressed syllable that remains, e.g. *phone* from *telephone*, *plane* from *airplane*, etc. Traditionally clippings are classified into several types depending on which part of the word is clipped:

1) Words that have been shortened at the end — the so-called apocope— apokopa, e.g. *ad* from *advertisement*, *lab* from *laboratory*, etc.

2) Words that have been shortened at the beginning — the so-called aphaeresis — aferezis, e.g. *car* from *motor-car* , *phone* from *telephone*.

3) Words in which some syllables or sounds have been omitted from the middle — the so-called syncope - sinkopa, e.g. *maths* from *mathematics*, *pants* from *pantaloons*, *specs* from *spectacles*, etc.

4) Words that have been clipped both at the beginning and at the end, e.g. *flu* from *influenza*, *tec* from *detective*, *frig* from *refrigerator*, etc.

It is typical of word clipping in Modern English that in most cases it is the nouns that are shortened. There are very few clipped adjectives all of them belonging to jargonisms, e.g. *ard* from *ardent*, *dilly* from *delightful* and some others. As for clipped verbs it is usually a case of conversion from clipped nouns, e.g. *to taxi* from *taxi*, *to phone* from *phone*, *to perm* from *perm*- “a permanent wave”, etc.

In Uzbek colloquial speech long first names tend to be clipped: Mavjuda - Mavju; Javohir- Javoh; Adiba -Adi etc.

Back-formation

In considering the diachronic and the synchronic approach to

language reference was made, in particular, to the verb *to beg* derived from the noun *beggar* borrowed from Old French. The noun *beggar* was later presumed to have been derived from a shorter word on the analogy of the derivative correlation of the “*speak-speaker*” type. This process of word formation is called back-formation and has diachronic relevance only. It does not affect the derivative correlation for present-day speakers who do not feel any difference between the relationship “*speak-speaker*”, on the one hand, and “*beg-beggar*”, on the other. Example of back-formation are numerous: “*to burgle*” from “*burglar*”; “*to edit*” from “*editor*”, etc.

Back-formation seems to be nonexistent in Uzbek.

Sound -interchange.

Sound-interchange is the gradation of sounds occupying one and the same place in the sound-form of one and the same morpheme in various cases of its occurrence. Both sound- and stress-interchange may be regarded as ways of forming words only diachronically because in Modern English not a single word can be by changing the root-vowel of a word or by shifting the place of the stress. Sound-interchange as well as stress- interchange is absolutely non-productive and in fact has turned into a means of distinguishing between different word, primarily between words of different parts of speech and as such is rather widespread in Modern English, e.g. *to sing-song*, *to live-life*, *to breathe-breath*, etc. it also distinguishes between different word-forms, e.g. *man-men*, *wife-wives*, *to know-knew*, *to leave-left*, etc.

Sound-interchange naturally falls into two groups: vowel-interchange and consonant-interchange.

By means of vowel-interchange we distinguish different parts of speech, e.g. *full - to fill*, *food - to feed*, *blood - to bleed*, etc. in some cases vowel-interchange is combined with affixation, e.g. *long - length*,

strong - strength, broad - breadth; nature - natural, nation - national, etc. Intransitive verbs and corresponding transitive ones with a causative meaning also display vowel-interchange, e.g. *to rise - to raise, to sit - to set, to lie - to lay, to fall - to fell*.

Sound-interchange is poorly developed in Uzbek: *ko'r- ko'z, bo'r-bo'z*.

The type of consonant-interchange typical of Modern English is the interchange of a voiceless fricative consonant in the corresponding verb, e.g. *use - to use, mouth - to mouth, house - to house, advice - to advise*.

There are some particular cases of consonant-interchange:

(k) - (ch): *to speak-speech, to break- breach*;

(s) - (d): *defense-to defend, offence-to offend*

(c) - (t): *evidence-evident, importance-important* ;

Consonant-interchange may be combined with vowel-interchange, e.g. *bath-to bathe, breath- to breathe, life- to live*.

Stress -interchange

Many English verbs of Latin-French origin are distinguished from the corresponding nouns by the position of stress. Here are some well-known examples of such pairs of words: *export n - to ex'port v; import n - to im'port v; 'conduct n - to con'duct v; present n - to pre'sent v ; 'contrast n - to con'trast v. 'frequent adj. - to fre'quent v , `absent adj. - to ab'sent v. etc.*

Stress -interchange does not exist in Uzbek.

CONCLUSION TO CHAPTER I

The morpheme is the smallest grammatical unit in a language. A morpheme is not identical to a word and the principal difference between the two is that a morpheme may or may not stand alone, whereas a word, by definition, is freestanding. Every word comprises one or more morphemes.

Every morpheme can be classified as either free or bound.. Free morphemes can function independently as word whereas bound morphemes appear only as parts of words, always in conjunction with a root and sometimes with other bound morphemes.

According to the role they play in constructing words, morphemes are subdivided into roots and affixes. The latter in English and Uzbek are further subdivided, according to their position, into prefixes and suffixes and according to their function and meaning, into derivational and functional (grammatical) affixes, the latter also called endings or outer formatives.

When a derivational or functional affix is stripped from the word, what remains is a stem (or a free base). The stem expresses the lexical and the part of speech meaning. This stem is a single morpheme, it contains nothing but the root, so it is a simple stem. It is also a free stem because it is homonymous to the word heart.

A stem containing one or more affixes is a derived stem. If after deducing the affix the remaining stem is not homonymous to a separate word of the same root, we call it a bound stem.

In English bound stems are especially characteristic of loan words.

Roots are main morphemic vehicles of a given idea in a given language at a given stage of its development. A root may be also regarded as the ultimate constituent element which remains after the removal of all functional and derivational affixes and does not admit any

further analysis. It is the common element of words within a word-family.

Unlike roots, affixes are always bound forms.

A suffix is a derivational morpheme following the stem and forming a new derivative in a different part of speech or a different word class.

A prefix is a derivational morpheme standing before the root and modifying meaning.

Preceding a verb stem, some prefixes express the difference between a transitive and an intransitive verb Compare: *stay* V intr-*outstay* V trans.

Lexicology is concerned with derivational affixes, the other group belongs to grammar.

Functional affixes serve to convey grammatical meaning. They build different forms of one and the same word. Derivational affixes serve to supply the stem with components of lexical and lexico-grammatical meaning, and thus form different words. One and the same lexico-grammatical meaning of the affix is sometimes accompanied by different combinations of various lexical meanings.

The semantic, functional and positional difference that has already been stated is supported by statistical properties and difference in valency (combining possibilities). Of the three main types of morphemes, namely roots, derivational affixes and functional affixes (formatives), the roots are by far the most numerous. There are many thousand roots in the English language; the derivational affixes, when listed, do not go beyond a few scores.

The valency of these three groups of morphemes is naturally in inverse proportion to their number. Functional affixes can be appended, with a few exceptions, to any element belonging to the part of speech they serve. Derivational affixes do not combine so freely and regularly. Derivational and functional morphemes may happen to be identical in

sound form, but they are substantially different in meaning, function, valency, statistical characteristics and structural properties.

Lexicology is concerned with derivational affixes, the other group belongs to grammar.

Functional affixes serve to convey grammatical meaning. They build different forms of one and the same word.

Derivational affixes serve to supply the stem with components of lexical and lexico-grammatical meaning, and thus form different words. Word formation is the process of creating new words from the material available in the language after certain structural and semantic formulas and patterns. The ways of word formation in English are as follows: affixation (suffixation and prefixation), word composition, conversion, abbreviation, clipping, back-formation, sound-interchange, stress-interchange. In Uzbek there are all these ways of word formation but stress-interchange. But they differ from one another in their statistic peculiarities.

CHAPTER II. SUFFIXATION

2.1. Noun-forming suffixes

Suffixation is the formation of words with the help of suffixes. Suffixes usually modify the lexical meaning of stems and transfer words to a different part of speech. There are suffixes, however, which do not shift words from one part of speech into another; a suffix of this kind usually transfers a word into a different semantic group, e.g. a concrete noun becomes an abstract one, as is the case with *child-childhood*, *friend-friendship*, etc.

Depending on the purpose of research, various classifications of suffixes have been used and suggested. Suffixes have been classified according to their origin, their meaning, parts of speech they serve, to form, their frequency, productivity and other characteristics.

Within the parts of speech suffixes have been classified semantically according to lexico-grammatical groups and semantic fields, and last but not least, according to the types of stems they are added to.

Suffixes are classified according to their meaning:

- 1) the agent suffixes: *-er*, *-or*, *-ist*, *-ee* etc. (baker, sailor, typist, employee);
- 2) appurtenance: *-an*, *-ian*, *-ese* (Arabian, Russian, Chinese, Japanese);
- 3) collectivity: *-age*, *-dom*, *-hood*, *-ery* (peasantry, marriage, kingdom, childhood);
- 4) diminutiveness: *-let*, *-ock*, *-ie* etc (birdie, cloudlet, hillock);
- 5) quantitiveness: *-ful*, *-ous*, *-y*, *-ive*, *-ly*, *-some*.

Suffixes may be divided into different groups according to what part of speech they form:

- 1) noun-forming, i. e. those which form nouns:
-er, *-dom*, *-ness*, *-ation*, *-ity*, *-age*, *-ance*/. *-ence*, *-ist*, *-hood*, *-ship*, *-ment* etc;

2) adjective-forming: *-able/, -ible/, -uble, -al, -ian, -ese, -ate, -ed, -ful, -ive, -ous, -y* etc;

3) numeral-forming: *-teen, -th, -ty* etc;

4) verb-forming: *-ate, -en, -ify, -ize* etc.;

5) adverb-forming: *-ly, -ward, -wise* etc.

Suffixes may be added to the stem of different parts of speech. According to this point of view they may be:

1) those added to verbs; *-er, -ing, -ment, -able*;

2) those added to nouns: *-less, -ish, -Jul, -ist, some* etc;

3) those added to adjectives: *-en, -ly, -ish, -ness* etc.

Suffixes are also classified according to their stylistic reference:

1) suffixes, which characterize neutral stylistic reference: *-able, -er, -ing* (For example, *dancer, understandable "helping"*);

2) suffixes which characterize a certain stylistic reference: *-oid, -form, -tron* etc. (*astroid, rhomboid, cruciform, cyclotron* etc.)

Suffix	Meaning	Examples
-ance	state	Performance
-ence	quality of	independence
-er, -or	a person who a thing which	programmer, operator compiler, accumulator
-ist, -yst	a person who	analyst, typist
-ian	pertaining to	Electrician
-tion, -ation	the act of	compilation
-ness	condition of	Readiness
-ion	action/state	Conversion
-ing	activity	multiplexing
-ment	state, action	measurement

-ity	state, quality	Electricity
-ism	condition/state	Magnetism
-dom	domain/condition	kingdom, freedom
-ship	condition/state	relationship, partnership
-ize/-ise	to make	Computerize
-ate, -ify	to make	automate, activate, calculate simplify
-en		harden, widen

The lexical meanings and grammatical functions of Uzbek words are indicated primarily by adding elements called suffixes to the ends of the words. This process of suffixation (also called agglutination) is regular and clear in the sense that it does not require changing the phonetic shapes of words and suffixes; for example, *ko'zlarim* (eye+s+my = my eyes)

Word formation suffixes

Nominals and verbals with new lexical meanings are created in Uzbek through suffixation. Adding a suffix to a nominal root or word results in a nominal or a verbal with a new lexical meaning:

Bosh (head - *anatomy*)

Boshliq (chief, foreman)

Boshlamoq (to begin -*infinitive*)

Adding a new suffix to a verbal root or word also produces a nominal or a verbal with a new lexical meaning:

Boshlanmoq (to be begun -*infinitive*)

Boshlang'ich (beginning, elementary)

Grammatical Suffixes

The indication of grammatical functions like number, case, mood or tense is accomplished by adding suffixes to words. These grammatical suffixes change the relationship of one word to other words in a sentence; however, they do not change the basic lexical meaning of the word.

Lexical: *uy* (home) *uylamog* (to marry) *uylanmog* (to get married)

Plural Suffix

The Uzbek suffix plural *-lar* is added to nominals to indicate that there is more than one subject or object, but also to verbals to indicate that there is more than one subject. After numeral, the plural suffix is not added to a nominal:

qiz (daughter) *qizlar* (daughters)

keldi (he came) *keldilar* (he came)

Case Suffixes

Case suffixes express relationships between nominals and verbals and are equivalent to English 'to', 'in', 'from', and other ideas:

O'g'il (son) *xalq* (people) *kitob* (book)

Possessive Suffixes

Uzbek has several means of expressing possession. One means requires adding possessive suffixes to a nominal:

Kitobimiz (our book)

kitobingiz (your book - plural)

A second means requires the possessive relationship construction. In Uzbek, the possessor or of an object is placed first, often with the suffix *-ning*, while the person or the object possessed is placed second, always with the suffix *i/si* (plural *-lari*). The Uzbek equivalent of an English phrase like “*my daughter's book*” is the following: *qizimning kitobi* (daughter+my+of+book+her= my daughters book)

Infinitive Suffix

The Uzbek equivalent of the English infinitive of verbs ('to enter,' 'to see,' etc.) is created by adding the suffix *-moq* to the verbal root. Without this or other suffixes, the verbal root expresses the familiar or at times impolite imperative mood:

Kirmoq (to enter -infinitive)

kir! (enter! -singular, familiar, impolite)

Mood Suffixes

To express moods like the imperative or the conditional, Uzbek adds suffixes to verbal roots:

Kiring (come in -singular, familiar, polite)

kirsa (if he enters)

Nominal suffixes are often employed to derive abstract nouns from verbs, adjectives and nouns. Such abstract nouns can denote actions, results of actions, or other related concepts, but also properties, qualities and the like. Another large group of nominal suffixes derives person nouns of various sorts. Very often these meanings are extended to other, related senses so that practically each suffix can be shown to be able to express more than one meaning, with the semantic domains of different suffixes often overlapping.

A lexico-grammatical class may be defined as a class of lexical elements possessing the same lexico-grammatical meaning and a common system of forms in which the grammatical categories inherent in these units are expressed. The elements of one class are substituted by the same prop-words and characterized by identical morphological patterns and a common set of derivational affixes. Taking up nouns we can subdivide them into proper and common nouns. Among common nouns we shall distinguish personal names, names of other animate beings, collective nouns, falling into several minor groups, material nouns, abstract nouns and names of things.

Abstract nouns are signalled by the following suffixes: *-age, -ance/-ence, -ancy/-ency, -dom, -hood, -ing, -ion/-tion/ -ation, -ism, -ment, -ness, -ship, -th, ty.*

Personal nouns that are emotionally neutral occur with the following suffixes: *-an (grammarian), -ant/-ent (servant, student), -arian (vegetarian), -ee (examinee), -er (porter), -ician (musician), -ist (linguist), -ite (sybarite), -or (inspector),* and a few others.

Feminine suffixes may be classed as a subgroup of personal noun suffixes. These are few and not frequent: *-ess (actress), -ine (heroine), -rix (testatrix), -ette (suffragette).*

-er

This Germanic suffix is combined with a great variety of both verbal and nominal stems and is polysemantic.

a) A large number of nouns derived from verbs denote persons following some special trade or profession: *driver, drawer, baker.* There are cases when *-er* is added not to a verbal but to a nominal stem to denote occupation, profession: *gardener, jeweler, farmer.*

b) Very often verbal derivatives in *-er* denote persons doing a certain action generally or at the moment in question. It is possible to coin new agent-nouns from practically all verbs available: *to bathe- bather, to choose- chooser, to listen- listener.*

c) *-er* often helps to form nouns denoting things which “do what the stem denotes”: *cutter, fighter, reaper.*

d) In some cases derivatives in *-er* denote persons who live in a certain country or locality. *-er* is added in similar occasions to nouns and adjectives: *Londoner, New-Yorker, villager.*

e) Very often the suffix is added to nouns without any visible meaning. Derivatives in *-er* denote in these cases persons or things connected in some way with what the noun stem expresses: *lunger, header, facer.*

The scope of such words in *-er* widens largely, if we take into account the so-called compound-derivative words. These encompass all the meanings typical of *-er*: *pearl-fisher*, *machine-gunner*, *single-seater*.

It should be remembered that many derivatives in *-er* have several meanings. It happens that a derivative in *-er* denotes person, on the one hand, and a thing, on the other: a) *sweater* 1) sviter; 2) ekspluatator.

-ance (with its variants -ence/-ancy/-ency)

Attaching mostly to verbs, *-ance* creates action nouns such as *absorbance*, *riddance*, *retardance*. The suffix is closely related to *-cy/-ce*, which attaches productively to adjectives ending in the suffix *-ant/-ent*. Thus, a derivative like *dependency* could be analyzed as having two suffixes (*depend-ent-cy*) or only one (*depend-ency*). The question then is to determine whether *-ance* (and its variants) always contain two suffixes, to the effect that all action nominals would in fact be derived from adjectives that in turn would be derived from verbs. Such an analysis would predict that we would find *-ance* nominals only if there are corresponding *-ant* adjectives. This is surely not the case, as evidenced by *riddance* (*riddant*), *furtherance* (*furtherant*), and we can therefore assume the existence of an independent suffix *-ance*, in addition to a suffix combination *-ant-ce*.

The distribution of the different variants is not entirely clear, several doublets are attested, such as *dependence*, *dependency*, or *expectance*, *expectancy*. Sometimes the doublets seem to have identical meanings, sometimes slightly different ones. It appears, however, that forms in *-ance/-ence* have all been in existence (sic!) for a very long time, and that *-ance/-ence* formations are rather interpreted as deverbal, *-ancy/-ency* formations rather as de-adjectival (Marchand 1969:248f).

-ist

This suffix derives nouns denoting persons, mostly from nominal and adjectival bases (*ballonist*, *careerist*, *fantasist*, *minimalist*). All nouns in *-ism*

which denote attitudes, beliefs or theories have potential counterparts in *-ist*. The semantics of *-ist* can be considered underspecified ‘person having to do with X’, with the exact meaning of the derivative being a function of the meaning of the base and further inferencing. Thus, a balloonist is someone who ascends in a balloon, a careerist is someone who is chiefly interested in her/his career, while a fundamentalist is a supporter or follower of fundamentalism.

-ity

Words belonging to this morphological category are nouns denoting qualities, states or properties usually derived from Latinate adjectives (e.g. *curiosity*, *productivity*, *profundity*, *solidity*). Apart from the compositional meaning just described, many *-ity* derivatives are lexicalized, i.e. they have become permanently incorporated into the mental lexicons of speakers, thereby often adopting idiosyncratic meanings, such as *antiquity* ‘state of being antique’ or ‘ancient time’, *curiosity* ‘quality of being curious’ and ‘curious thing’. All adjectives ending in the suffixes *-able*, *-al* and *-ic* or in the phonetic string [Id] can take *-ity* as a nominalizing suffix (*readability*, *formality*, *erraticity*, *solidity*).

The suffix is capable of changing the stress pattern of the base, to the effect that all *-ity* derivatives are stressed on the antepenult syllable. Furthermore, many of the polysyllabic base-words undergo an alternation known as trisyllabic shortening (or trisyllabic laxing), whereby the stressed vowel or diphthong of the base word, and thus the last but two syllable, becomes destressed and shortened, as in *obsc[i]ne* - *obsc[e]nity*, *prof[au]nd* - *prof[au]ndity*, *verb[ou]se* - *verb[ou]sity*). Another phonological peculiarity of this suffix is that there are systematic lexical gaps whenever *-ity* attachment would create identical onsets in adjacent syllables, as evidenced by the impossible formations *actutity*, *completity*, *obsoletity* or *candidity*, *sordidity*.

In the Uzbek language has several lexical-semantic ways of forming nouns. There are following types of forming nouns:

- 1) noun forming suffixes denoting persons (shaxs oti yasovchi suffikslar);

2) noun forming suffixes denoting things (objects) (narsa-buyum oti yasovchi suffikslar);

3) noun forming suffixes denoting abstract notions (mavhum ot yasovchilar);

4) noun forming suffixes denoting places (joy nomlarini bildiruvchi ot yasovchilar).

Noun forming suffixes denoting persons in the Uzbek language	
-chi	kurashchi, suvoqchi
-kor	paxtakor, xaloskor
-soz	soatsoz, shishasoz
-furush	Do'ppifurush, eskifurush
-shunos	zarshunos, tilshunos
-paz	kabobpaz, oshpaz
-xo'r	O'laksaxo'r, mayxo'r
-boz	kaptarboz, xo'rozboz
-xon	kitobxon, she'rxon
-navis	qissanavis, hikoyanavis
-parast	molparast, shuhratparast
-go'y	duogo'y
-dosh	sinf-dosh, kasbdosh

-chi

-chi is one of the most productive noun-forming suffixes and it forms following types of nouns:

1. nouns denoting profession: *sportchi, musiqachi*.
2. persons following some special trade or profession: *haydovchi, tikuvchi*.
3. participants of certain actions: *namoyishchi, muzokarachi*.

4. certain groups, clubs, sport societies and formed nouns denoting a person acting in this society: *paxtakorchi, navbahorchi*.

The suffixes denoting things in Uzbek are: *-(i)n, -(i)ndi, -(i)q, -ma, -noma, -gich*.

E.g.: cho'kindi, toshma, ilgich, shartnoma and etc.

In the Uzbek language there are following suffixes denoting abstract notions: *-lik, -chilik, -v, -sh*.

-chilik

This suffix is formed by combining suffixes – *chi* and – *lik*. It has following features:

1. It forms a noun denoting relating to the identity: *qo'shnichilik, qudachilik*.

2. It forms a noun denoting a particular profession: *kulolchilik, me'morchilik*.

3. – *chilik* added to noun forms a noun denoting individuals belongs to a particular sector: *baliqchilik, ipakchili*.

4. It also forms a noun denoting abstract meaning: *xizmatchilik, qarichilik*.

2.2. Adjectival suffixes

The adjectival suffixes of English can be subdivided into two major groups. A large proportion of derived adjectives are *relational adjectives*, whose role is simply to relate the noun the adjective qualifies to the base word of the derived adjective. For example, *algebraic mind* means ‘a mind having to do with algebra, referring to algebra, characterized by algebra’, *colonial officer* means ‘officer having to do with the colonies’, and so on.

On the other hand, there is a large group of derived adjectives that express more specific concepts, and which are often called *qualitative adjectives*. Sometimes, relational adjectives can adopt qualitative meanings, as can be seen from the derivative *grammatical*, which has a relational meaning - ‘having to do

with grammar' in the sentence *She is a grammatical genius*, but which also has a qualitative sense "conforming to the rules of grammar", as in *This is a grammatical sentence*. Note that relational adjectives usually occur only in attributive position, i.e. as prenominal modifiers (as in *a lexical problem*). If we find them in predicative position in a clause (as in *This sentence is grammatical*), they usually have adopted a qualitative sense.

-able

The suffix chiefly combines with transitive and intransitive verbal bases, as in *deterrable* and *perishable*, respectively, as well as with nouns, as in *serviceable*, *fashionable*. The semantics of deverbal *-able* forms seem to involve two different cases, which have been described as "capable of being Xed" (cf. *breakable*, *deterrable*, *readable*), and "liable or disposed to X" (cf. *agreeable*, *perishable*, *variable*; *changeable* can have both meanings). What unites the two patterns is that in both cases the referent of the noun modified by the *-able* adjective is described as a potential non-volitional participant in an event. In this respect, *-able* closely resembles episodic *-ee*. Denominal forms can convey the same meaning, as e.g. *marriageable*, *jeepable*, *kitchenable*, *roadable*. There are also some lexicalized denominal forms with the meaning "characterized by X", as in *fashionable* (but cf. the concurrent compositional meaning "that can be fashioned"), *knowledgeable*, *reasonable*. Phonologically, *-able* exhibits diverse properties. Only some lexicalized derivatives exhibit stress shift (e.g. *cómparable*), and base verbs in *-ate* are often, but not systematically, truncated, as in *allocable*, *irritable*, *navigable*, *permeable*, *operahnble* vs. *cultivable*, *emancipatable*, *operatable*.

In established loan words we also find the orthographic variant *-ible*: *comprehensible*, *discernible*, *flexible*, *reversible*.

-ish

This is a productive suffix of Germanic origin. Being added to adjectives it helps to build new adjectives meaning "somewhat", "approaching the quality"

(of the stem- adjective), that is, denoting a weaker degree of the quality expressed by the adjectival stem: *reddish, shrewish*. Such adjectives are rendered in Russian mostly by adjectives in *-oem*, in Uzbek *-g'ish, -ona*: *qizg'ish, ayyorona*.

When the suffix *-ish* is added to nouns, such adjectives mean “having the nature of”, “looking like”, “belonging to”: *boyish, childish, foolish*.

Note.- The suffix *-ish* occurs also in a number of adjectives denoting persons of different nationalities: *English, Turkish, Spanish*. The bulk of them are indivisible in Modern English.

Sometimes the suffix is added to proper names, thus forming adjectives meaning “looking or acting like a certain person”: *John-Bullish*.

-al

This relational suffix attaches almost exclusively to Latinate bases (*accidental, colonial, cultural, federal, institutional, modal*). All derivatives have stress either on their penultimate or antepenultimate syllable. If the base does not have its stress on one of the two syllables preceding the suffix, stress is shifted to the antepenult of the derivative (e.g. *colony - colónial*).

Apart from the allomorphy there are two variants *-ial* (as in *confidential, labial, racial, substantial*) and *-ual* (as in *contextual, gradual, spiritual, visual*). With bases ending in [s] or [t], *-ial* triggers assimilation of the base-final sound to [s] (e.g. *facial, presidential*). The distribution of *-ial* and *-ual* is not entirely clear, but it seems that bases ending in *-ant/ance* (and their variants) and *-or* obligatorily take *-ial* (e.g. *circumstantial, professorial*).

There are following adjective forming suffixes in the Uzbek language. We make the table according to active and passive adjectival affixes:

Active adjective forming suffixes in the Uzbek language	
-li	Vijdonli, kuchli
-lik	Pastlik, go'daklik

-siz	Odobsiz, baxtsiz
-gi	Yozdagi, risoladagi
-ki (-aki)	Jizzaki, xomaki
-k (-uk, -ik, -ak) -ak	Chirik, ochiq, buzuq, iliq, murg'ak
-dor	Xomilador, xabardor
-kor	Tashabbuskor, fidokor
-gar	Sehrgar, xiylagar
-iy, -viy	Ommaviy, hayoliy
-ma	Uydirma, tug'ma
Passive adjective forming suffixes	
-vor	Ulug'vor, jangovor
-loq	Baqaloq, toshloq
-qin	Sotqin, toshqin
-kor	Ehtiyotkor, tezkor
-qoq	Yopishqoq, tirishqoq
-kash	Dilkash, kirakash
-chan	Ishchan, o'zgaruvchan
-chi	Tilanchi, qiziqchi
-mand	Ixlosmand, hunarmand
-mon	Bilarmon, ustamon
-chiq	Sirg'anchiq, qizg'anchiq
-choq	Erinchoq, tortinchoq
-on	Charog'on, shodon
-in	Keskin, erkin
-ag'on	Bilag'on, topag'on
-qa	Jiqqa, loyqa
-s	O'tmas, indamas
-namo	Kamnamo, majnunnamo

-omuz	Masxaromuz, zaxaromuz
-soz	Mashinasoz, soatsoz

Let's bring examples from the Uzbek language.

-siz

The suffix *-siz* joins basically the abstract nouns designating absence: intellectual qualities of the person: *uyatsiz, baxtsiz, sharmsiz, gunohsiz, diyonatsiz, oriyatsiz, odobsiz, insofsiz, va'dasiz, betsiz, itoatsiz, vijdonsiz, omadsiz*;

- mental facilities of the person: *bilimsiz, mulohazasiz, essiz, fahmsiz, ilmsiz*;

- good breedings, cultures: *iste'dodsiz, madaniyatsiz, ta'limsiz, tarbiyasiz* Except for that the making bases designating the general (common) concept "person" are found out in model N+-*siz*: *bolasiz, farzandsiz, xotinsiz, kishdisiz, o'g'ilsiz*.

-li

This suffix has two functions:

- 1) It forms new word;
- 2) It forms form.

The suffix forms following types of adjectives:

- adjective belonging to the person or to a thing: *bolali (xotin), boshhoqli (ekin)*;
- it forms the adjective denoting one's character: *odobli, aqlli*.

The suffixes – *li* and – *siz* are antonym suffixes in Uzbek.

Besides that there are some adjective forming suffixes indicating relativeness in Uzbek (*nisbiylikni bildiruvchi sifat yasovchilar*): *-gi, -lik, -iy/ -viy, -ma, -simon*. E.g.: *yozgi, urug'lik, hayotiy, naysimon* and etc.

2.3. Adverbial suffixes

There are only four adverb forming suffixes in English which form adverbs from adjectives, nouns and rarely numerals: *-ly*, *-wise*, *-ward(s)*, *-fold*.

-ly

The presence of this exclusively de-adjectival suffix is for the most part syntactically triggered and obligatory, and it can therefore be considered inflectional. However, in some formations there is a difference in meaning between the adjective and the adverb derived by *-ly* attachment: *shortly*, *hardly* and *dryly* are semantically distinct from their base words and *hotly*, *coldly* and *darkly* can only have metaphorical senses. Such changes of meaning are unexpected for inflectional suffix, which speaks against the classification of adverbial *-ly* as inflectional.

-wise

This suffix derives adverbs from nouns, with two distinguishable sub-groups: manner/dimension adverbs, and so-called view-point adverbs. The former adverb type has the meaning “in the manner of an action”. It is, however, not always possible to distinguish clearly between the “manner” and “dimension” readings (e.g. is “*cut X crosswise*” an instance of one or the other). The smaller and much more recent group of viewpoint adverbs is made up of adverbs whose meaning can be rendered as “with respect to, in regard to, concerning X”. The scope of the viewpoint adverbs is not the verb phrase, but the whole clause or sentence, a fact which is visible in the surface word-order in *They make no special demands food-wise* and *Statuswise, you are at a disadvantage*.

-ward(s)

This suffix is Germanic, semi-productive. It is added to nouns and, sometimes, adverbs, the suffix forms adverbs denoting the direction of movement: *skywards*, *kitchenward*, *westward*, *inward*.

-fold

The suffix is Germanic, semi-productive. It added to numerals and has the meaning “times”: *eightfold*, *tenfold*, *hundredfold*.

2.4. Verbal suffixes

There are four suffixes which derive verbs from other categories (mostly adjectives and nouns), *-ate*, *-en*, *-ify* and *-ize*.

-ate

Forms ending in this suffix represent a rather heterogeneous group. There is a class of derivatives with chemical substances as bases, which systematically exhibit so-called ornative and resultative meanings. These can be paraphrased as 'provide with X' (ornative), as in *fluorinate*, or 'make into X' (resultative), as in *methanate*. However, a large proportion of forms in *-ate* do not conform to this pattern, but show various kinds of idiosyncrasies, with *-ate* being apparently no more than an indicator of verbal status. Examples of such non-canonical formations are back-formations (*formate*- *formation*), local analogies (*stereoregular* - *stereoregulate* - *regular* - *regulate*), conversion (*citrate*), and completely idiosyncratic formations such as *dissonate* or *fidate*. Phonologically, *-ate* is largely restricted to attachment to words that end in one or two unstressed syllables. If the base ends in two unstressed syllables, the last syllable is truncated: *mercury* -*mercurate*.

-en

The Germanic suffix *-en* attaches to monosyllables that end in a plosive, fricative or affricate. Most bases are adjectives (e.g. *blacken*, *broaden*, *quicken*, *ripen*), but a few nouns can also be found (e.g. *strengthen*, *lengthen*). The meaning of *-en* formations can be described as causative 'make (more) X'.

-ify

This suffix attaches to base words that are either monosyllabic, stressed on the final syllable or end in unstressed [I]. Neologisms usually do not show stress shift, but some older forms do (*húmid* - *humidify*, *sólid* - *solidify*). These restrictions have the effect that *-ify* is in (almost) complementary distribution with the suffix *-ize*. The only, but systematic, exception to the complementarity of *-ize/-ify* can be observed with trochaic base words ending in /I/, which take *-ify* under loss of that segment (as in *nazify*), or take *-ize* (with no accompanying

segmental changes apart from optional glide insertion, as in *toddyize*). Semantically, *-ify* shows the same range of related meanings as *-ize* (see below), and the two suffixes could therefore be considered phonologically conditioned allomorphs.

-ize

Both *-ize* and *-ify* are polysemous suffixes, which can express a whole range of related concepts such as locative, ornative, causative/factitive, resultative, inchoative, performative, similative. Locatives can be paraphrased as “put into X”, as in *computerize*, *hospitalize*, *tubify*. *Patinatize*, *fluoridize*, *youthify* are ornative examples (“provide with X”), *randomize*, *functionalize*, *humidify* are causative (“make (more) X”), *carbonize*, *itemize*, *trustify* and *nazify* are resultative (“make into X”), *aerosolize* and *mucify* are inchoative (“become X”), *anthropologize* and *s* (“perform X”), *cannibalize*, *vampirize* can be analyzed as similative (“act like X”).

Derivatives in *-ize* show rather complex patterns of base allomorphy, to the effect that bases are systematically truncated (i.e. they lose the rime of the final syllable) if they are vowel-final and end in two unstressed syllables (cf. truncated vowel-final *mémory* - *mémorize*, vs. non-truncated consonant-final *hóspital* - *hóspitalize*). Furthermore, polysyllabic derivatives in *-ize* are not allowed to have identical onsets in the two last syllables. In the pertinent cases truncation is used as a repair strategy, as in *feminine* - *feminize* and *emphasis* - *emphasize*.

The Uzbek language has special aspects of forming verbs. Nowadays in Uzbek productive verb forming suffixes are: *-lan*, *-lash*, *-lantir*, *-lashtir*. Others have turned to non-productive affixes.

-la

This suffix forms following new verbs from the noun:

1. a noun that means the name denotes tools perform this action: *arralamoq*, *dazmollamoq*;
2. verbs indicating the direction: *pastlamoq*, *ichkarilamoq*;

3. verbs denoting “supplying with smth”.: *o’g’irlamoq, asfaltlamoq*;

4. verbs denoting action and time: *salqinlamoq, qishlamoq*;

This suffix also forms new words from the following parts of speech:

1) from the adjective: *oqla, yaxshila*;

2) from the pronoun: *senla, sizla*;

3) from the adverb: *tezla, sekinla*.

-lashtir

This suffix forms new verbs from the noun and from the adjective. It has following meanings:

1. supplying with smth.: *gazlashtirmoq, elektrlashtirmoq*;

2. creating smth.: *loyihalashtirmoq, sahnalashtirmoq*;

3. action: *ko’kalamzorlashtirmoq, tartiblashtirmoq*.

It forms from adjectives new words denoting “situation”:
sog’lomlashtirmoq, obodonlashtirmoq.

The other non-productive verb-forming suffixes are: *-a (guldura)*, *-i (boyi)*, *-illa(chirsilla)*, *-a (r) (oqar)*, *-t (to’lat)* and etc.

2.5. Suffixes forming other parts of speech

In linguistics, ordinal numbers are words representing position or rank in a sequential order. The order may be of size, importance, chronology and so on. In English they are adjectives such as “third” and “tertiary”. They differ from cardinal numbers which represent quantity. This is simple function to add English ordinal number suffix after normal number. Function takes number as a parameter and returns number with suffix. Ordinal numbers may be written in English with numerals and letter suffixes: 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 11th, 21st, 477th, etc. In some countries, written dates omit the suffix, although it is nevertheless pronounced. For example: 5 November 1605 (pronounced “the fifth of November...”); November 5, 1605, (“November Fifth...”). When written out in full with “of”, however, the suffix is retained: the 5th of November.

In Uzbek *-chi* and *-inchi* added to cardinal numerals and they form ordinal numerals: *birinchi, ikkinchi*.

Uzbek cardinal numerals have the categories of piece and approximation which are alien to English.

The category of piece is a system of two-member opposition such as *bir-bitta, o'n-o'nta* which shows whether the thing is a piece thing or non-piece thing.

The category of approximation is represented in opposition like *o'nta-o'ntacha, yuzta-yuztacha* and it shows whether the number is exact or approximate:

<i>O'nta kitob</i>	<i>o'ntacha kitob</i>
<i>yuzta kitob</i>	<i>yuztacha kitob</i>

The suffix *-cha* which expresses approximation is added to the numeral, but in some cases (if the numeral modifies as a numerative word) it is added to the noun.

Mening yuztacha kitobim bor.

Bu yerda yuz qopcha un bor.

The Uzbek morpheme *-cha* expressing approximation is rendered to English by the preposition *about*.

Ordinal numerals show the order of persons or things in a series:

Engl: *first, second, fourth* etc.

Uzb: *birinchi, ikkinchi, o'ninchi* etc.

Ordinal numerals are formed from cardinal ones by means of the suffix *-th* in English, *-(i)nchi* in Uzbek.

Collective numerals exist in Uzbek. They are formed by means of the suffixes *-ov, -ala*. These suffixes are usually added to the numerals from 2 to 9.

1) *ikkovi, uchovi, beshovi*

2) *ikkala, uchala, beshala*

But these suffixes in the Uzbek language are not considered as a new word formation affixes.

CONCLUSION TO CHAPTER II

Suffixation is the formation of words with the help of suffixes. Suffixes usually modify the lexical meaning of stems and transfer words to a different part of speech. There are suffixes, however, which do not shift words from one part of speech into another; a suffix of this kind usually transfers a word into a different semantic group, e.g. a concrete noun becomes an abstract one, as is the case with *child-childhood*, *friend-friendship*, etc.

Depending on the purpose of research, various classifications of suffixes have been used and suggested. Suffixes have been classified according to their meaning, origin, the parts of speech they serve, to form, their frequency, productivity, the types of stems they are added to and other characteristics.

According to their meaning suffixes are classified:

- 1) the agent suffixes: *-er, -or, -ist, -ee, -chi, -ist, -kor, -dor, -furush* etc.;
- 2) appurtenance: *-an, -ian, -ese, -iy* ;
- 3) collectivity: *-age, -dom, -hood, -ery*,
- 4) diminutiveness: *-let, -ock, -ie, -ya* etc;
- 5) quantitiveness: *-ful, -ous, -y, -ive, -ly, -some*.

According to what part of speech they belong to:

- 1) noun-forming, i. e. those which form nouns:

-er, -dom, -ness, -ation, -ity, -age, -ance/, -ence, -ist, -hood, -ship, -ment, -chi -soz, -shunos, -paz, -boz, -parast etc.

- 2) adjective-forming: *-able/, -ible/, -uble, -al, -ian, -ese, -ate, -ed, -ful, -ive, -ous, -u, -qoq, -chan, -mon, -chiq, -on* etc.

- 3) numeral-forming: *-teen, -th, -ty, -nchi*;

- 4) verb-forming: *-ate, -en, -ify, -ize, -la, -lan* etc.;

- 5) adverb-forming: *-ly, -ward, -wise, -ona, -chasiga* etc.

According to the stem of different parts of speech they may be:

- 1) those added to verbs; *-er, -ing, -ment, -able*;

2) those added to nouns: - *less*, -*ish*, -*Jul*, -*ist*, *some* etc;

3) those added to adjectives: -*en*, -*ly*. -*ish*, -*ness* etc.

Suffixes are also classified according to their stylistic reference:

1) suffixes, which characterize neutral stylistic reference: -*able*, -*er*, -*ing*
(*For example, dancer, understandable “helping”*)

2) suffixes which characterize a certain stylistic reference: -*oid*, -*form*, -*tron*
etc (*astroid, rhomboid, cruciform, cyclotron* etc.)

According to their origin suffixes may be native and foreign English and Uzbek suffixes differ in their number, form, meaning, usage and origin.

	In English	In Uzbek
Noun- suffixes:	36	43
Adjective- suffixes:	19	28
Verbal suffixes	4	14
Adverbial suffixes	4	18
Numeral -suffixes	3	2

CHAPTER III. PREFIXATION

3.1. Noun- forming prefixes

Prefixes are called such particles as can be prefixed to full words but are themselves, not words with an independent existence. Native prefixes have developed out of independent words. Their number is small: *a-*, *be-*, *un-* (negative and reversative) *fore-*, *mid-* and (partly) *mis-*. Prefix of foreign origin came into the language ready made, so to speak. They are due to syntagmatic loans from other languages: when a number of analyzable foreign words of the same structure had been introduced into the language, the pattern could be extended to new formations i.e. the prefix then became a derivative morpheme. Some prefixes have secondarily developed uses as independent words as counter sub-arch which does not invalidate the principle that primarily they were particles with no independent existence. The same phenomenon occurs with suffixes also.

We distinguish between two types of prefixes:

a) Those which are functional words (such as prepositions or adverbs)

Ex: but-, over-, up-.

b) Those which are not correlated with any independent words.

Ex: un-, dis-, re-, mis-.

Prefixes out-, over-, up-, under-, etc. are considered as semi bound morphemes.

Prefixation is the formation of words with the help of prefixes. The interpretation of the terms prefix and prefixation now firmly rooted in linguistic literature has undergone a certain evolution. For instance, some time ago there were linguists who treated prefixation as part of word composition (or compounding). The greater semantic independence of prefixes as compared with suffixes led the linguists to identify prefixes with the first component part of a compound word.

At present the majority of scholars the author of this research work treat

prefixation as an integral part of word derivation regarding prefixes as derivational affixes which differ essentially both from root-morphemes and non-derivational pre-positive morphemes. Opinions sometimes differs concerning the interpretation of the functional status of certain individual groups of morphemes, which commonly occur as first component parts of words. H. Marchand, for instance, analyses words like *to overdo*, *to underestimate* as compound verbs, the first components of which are locative particles, not prefixes. In a similar way he interprets words like *income*, *onlooker*, *outhouse* qualifying them as compounds with locative particles as first elements.

According to the available word counts of prefixal derivatives the greatest number are verbs - 42.4 %, adjectives comprise 33.5 % and nouns make up 22.4%. Here are some examples of them:

Prefixal verbs: to enrich, to disagree, to undergo, etc.;

Prefixal adjectives: anti-war, biannual, uneasy, superhuman, etc.;

Prefixal nouns: ex-champion, co-author, disharmony, subcommittee, etc.

It is of interest to mention that the number of prefixal derivatives within a certain part of speech is in inverse proportion to the actual number of prefixes:
22

form verbs, 41 prefixes make adjectives and 42 nouns.

Proceeding from the three types of morphemes that the structural classification involves two types of prefixes are to be distinguished:

- 1) those not correlated with any independent word (either notional or functional) e.g. *no-*, *dis-*, *re-*, *pre-*, *post-*, etc.;
- 2) those correlated with functional words (prepositions or prepositions-like adverbs), e.g. *out-*, *over-*, *up-*, *under-*, etc.

Prefixes of the second type are qualified as semi bound morphemes, which implies that they occur in speech in various utterances both as independent words and as derivational affixes, e.g. «*over* one's head», «*over* the river» (cf. to *overlap*,

to *overpass*), «to run *out*», «to take somebody *out*» (cf. to *outvote*; to *outline*); «to look *up*», «hands *up*» (cf. *upstairs*, to *upset*); «under the same roof»; «to go *under*» (cf. to *underestimate*, *undercurrent*), etc.

It should be mentioned that English prefixes of the second type essentially differ from the functional words, they are correlated with:

a) like any other derivational affixes they have a more generalized meaning in comparison with the more concrete meanings of the correlated words they are characterized by a unity of different denotational components of meaning – a generalized component common to a set of prefixes and individual semantic

component distinguishing the given prefix within the set.

b) They are deprived of all grammatical features peculiar to the independent words they are correlated with;

c) They tend to develop a meaning not found in the correlated words;

d) They form regular sets of words of the same semantic type.

Of late some new investigations into the problem of prefixation in English have yielded interesting results. It appears that the traditional opinion, current among linguists, that prefixes modify only the lexical meaning of words without changing the part of speech is not quite correct with regard to the English language. In English there are about 25 prefixes which can transfer words to a different part of speech in comparison with their original stems. Such prefixes should perhaps be called convertive prefixes, e.g. *to begulf* (cf. *gulf* n), *to debus* (cf. *bus* n); *to embronze* (cf. *bronze* n), etc. If further investigation of English prefixation gives more proofs of the convertive ability of prefixes, it will then be possible to draw the conclusion that in this respect there is no functional difference between suffixes and prefixes, for suffixes in English are also both convertive (cf. *hand* - *handless*) and non-convertive (cf. *father* - *fatherhood*, *horseman* - *horsemanship*, etc).

Some recent investigations in the field of English affixation have revealed a close interdependence between the meanings of a polysemantic affix and the

lexico-semantic group to which belongs the base it is affixed to, which results in the difference between structural and structural-semantic derivational patterns the

prefix forms. A good illustration in point is the prefix *en-*.

When within the same structural pattern *en- + n - V*, the prefix is combined with noun bases denoting articles of clothing, things of luxury, etc. it forms derived verbs expressing an action of putting or placing on, e.g. *enrobe* (cf. *robe*), *enjewel* (cf. *jewel*), *enlace* (cf. *lace*), etc.

When added to noun bases referring to various land forms, means of transportation, containers and notions of geometry it builds derived verbs denoting an action of putting or placing in.

At present the majority of scholars treat prefixation as an integral part of word derivation regarding prefixes as derivational affixes which differ essentially

both from root-morphemes and non-derivational pre-positive morphemes. Opinions sometimes differs concerning the interpretation of the functional status of certain individual groups of morphemes, which commonly occur as first component parts of words.

Prefixation is the formation of words by means of adding a prefix to the stem. In English it is characteristic for forming verbs. Prefixes are more independent than suffixes. Prefixes can be classified according to the nature of words in which they are used : prefixes used in notional words and prefixes used in functional words. Prefixes used in notional words are proper prefixes which are bound morphemes, e.g. *un-* (*unhappy*). Prefixes used in functional words are semi-bound morphemes because they are met in the language as words, e.g. *over-* (*overhead*) (cf *over the table*).

The main function of prefixes in English is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech. But the recent research showed that about twenty-five prefixes in Modern English form one part of speech from another (*bebutton*, *interfamily*, *postcollege* etc).

Prefixes can be classified according to different principles :

1. Semantic classification :

a) prefixes of negative meaning, such as : *in-* (*invaluable*), *non-* (*nonformals*), *un-* (*unfree*) etc;

b) prefixes denoting repetition or reversal actions, such as: *de-* (*decolonize*), *re-* (*revegetation*), *dis-* (*disconnect*);

c) prefixes denoting time, space, degree relations, such as : *inter-* (*interplanetary*) , *hyper-* (*hypertension*), *ex-* (*ex-student*), *pre-* (*pre-election*), *over-* (*overdrugging*) etc.

2. Origin of prefixes:

a) native (Germanic), such as: *un-*, *over-*, *under-* etc.

b) Romanic, such as : *in-*, *de-*, *ex-*, *re-* etc.

c) Greek, such as : *sym-*, *hyper-* etc.

When we analyze such words as : *adverb*, *accompany* where we can find the root of the word (*verb*, *company*) we may treat *ad-*, *ac-* as prefixes though they were never used as prefixes to form new words in English and were borrowed from Romanic languages together with words. In such cases we can treat them as derived words. But some scientists treat them as simple words. Another group of words with a disputable structure are such as : *contain*, *retain*, *detain* and *conceive*, *receive*, *deceive* where we can see that *re-*, *de-*, *con-* act as prefixes and *-tain*, *-ceive* can be understood as roots. But in English these combinations of sounds have no lexical meaning and are called pseudo-morphemes. Some scientists treat such words as simple words, others as derived ones.

There are some prefixes which can be treated as root morphemes by some scientists, e.g. *after-* in the word *afternoon*. American lexicographers working on Webster dictionaries treat such words as compound words. British lexicographers treat such words as derived ones.

Negative & positive	Size	Location	Time & order	Number
un-	semi-	inter-	pre-	mono-
non-	mini-	super-	ante-	bi-
in-	micro-	trans-	fore-	hex-
dis-		ex-	post-	oct-
re-		extra-		multi-
		peri-		

The most common prefixes used to form new nouns in academic English are: *co-* and *sub-*.

e.g. prefix + noun → noun

Prefix	Meaning	Examples
<i>anti-</i>	against	anticlimax, antidote, antithesis
<i>auto-</i>	self	autobiography, automobile
<i>bi-</i>	two	bilingualism, biculturalism, bi-metalism
<i>co-</i>	joint	co-founder, co-owner, co-descendant
<i>counter-</i>	against	counter-argument, counter-example, counter-proposal
<i>dis-</i>	the converse of	discomfort, dislike
<i>ex-</i>	former	ex-chairman, ex-hunter
<i>hyper-</i>	extreme	hyperinflation, hypersurface
<i>in-</i>	the converse of	inattention, incoherence, incompatibility
<i>in-</i>	inside	inpatient,
<i>inter-</i>	between	interaction, inter-change, interference

<i>kilo-</i>	thousand	kilobyte
<i>mal-</i>	bad	malfunction, maltreatment, malnutrition
<i>mega-</i>	million	megabyte
<i>mis-</i>	wrong	misconduct, misdeed, mismanagement
<i>mini-</i>	small	mini-publication, mini-theory
<i>mono-</i>	one	monosyllable, monograph, monogamy
<i>neo-</i>	new	neo-colonialism, neo-impressionism
<i>out-</i>	separate	outbuilding,
<i>poly-</i>	many	polysyllable
<i>pseudo-</i>	false	pseudo-expert
<i>re-</i>	again	re-organisation, re-assessment, re-examination
<i>semi-</i>	half	semicircle, semi-darkness
<i>sub-</i>	below	subset, subdivision
<i>super-</i>	more than, above	superset, superimposition, superpowers
<i>sur-</i>	over and above	surtax
<i>tele-</i>	distant	telecommunications,
<i>tri-</i>	three	tripartism
<i>ultra-</i>	beyond	ultrasound
<i>under-</i>	below, too little	underpayment, under-development, undergraduate
<i>vice-</i>	deputy	vice-president

Co-

It is Romanic, semi-productive prefix. It is met in nouns, verbs and adjectives to which it adds the meaning “joint (ly), together, mutual (ly)”: *co-partner, co-owner*.

Ex-

It is Romanic, productive prefix. It is added to nouns denoting persons and means “former” one who is no longer in office: *ex-champion, ex-president*.

Sub-

This prefix is Romanic, productive. Being added to nouns and adjectives it lends to them the meaning “subordinate”, “secondary”, “lower”, “being under something”: *sub-group, subtitle*.

Vice-

This is Romanic, semi-productive prefix. The prefix has the meaning in place of second in rank and is added to nouns denoting persons: *vice-admiral, vice-president*. In Russian this prefix is often rendered by means of the prefix *внуче-*.

The number of noun-prefixes in Uzbek is only one: *ham-*. This prefix added to nouns and helps to build nouns denoting compatibility: *hamxona, hamsuhbat, hamqishloq* and etc.

3.2. Adjective- forming prefixes

e.g. negative + adjective → adjective

Prefix	Examples
<i>un-</i>	unfortunate, uncomfortable, unjust
<i>im-/in-/ir- /il-</i>	immature, impatient, improbable, inconvenient, irreplaceable, illegal
<i>non-</i>	non-fiction, non-political, non-neutral
<i>dis-</i>	disloyal, dissimilar, dishonest

In the following we look in more detail at the negative prefixes. The negative prefixes appear to be more complex in their distribution and behavior than most of the other suffixes and their domains overlap considerably.

Non-

When attached to adjectives this prefix has the general meaning of “not X”: *nonbiological, non-commercial, non-returnable*. In contrast to *un-* and *in-*, negation with *non-* does not carry evaluative force, as can be seen from the pairs *unscientific vs. nonscientific, irrational vs. non-rational*. Furthermore, *non-* primarily forms contradictory and complementary opposites. Nouns prefixed with *non-* can either mean “absence of X” or “not having the character of X”: *non-delivery, non-member, non-profit, non-stop*. The latter meaning has been extended to “being X, but not having the proper characteristics of an X”: *nonissue, non-answer*.

In-

Being of a Romanic origin, it is met nearly exclusively in Romanic adjectives and nouns where it denotes negation.

Un-

It has a trend to be used in more colloquial or, at least, neutral words, whereas *in-* prefers more learned and bookish. Both prefixes co-exist in the words ending in *-ive*, *-ory* and *-able*: *unrestrictive*, *impassive*, *insufferable*.

It has several variants depending on the following sound: it is *im-* before *p, b, m*; *ir-* before *r*, *il-* before *l*. It is *in-* before all other consonants and all vowels. The prefix *in-* is non-productive nowadays.

In the Uzbek language there are following types of adjective forming prefixes: *be-*, *ba-/bo-*, *bad-*, *ser-*, *no-*, *anti-*, *kam-*, *xush-* and etc.

No-

This prefix forms adjectives, especially, from adjectives and rarely from nouns.

It added to adjectives and forms negative words: *notekis*, *noaniq*, *noqulay*.

This prefix added to noun and also forms negative nouns: *noumid*, *noo'rin*, *noiloj*.

G'ayri-

It forms adjectives from adjectives. This affix denote the contrary meaning of the given adjective: *g'ayriilmiy*, *g'ayriqonuniy*.

In Uzbek *be-*, *siz-*, *no-* are synonym prefixes.

3.3. Adverb forming prefixes

In English adverb forming prefixes are not so active.

A-

Germanic, semi-productive. This prefix represents the reduced form of the old preposition *on*. Nowadays it occurs in adjectives, adverbs and the words of the category of state. To form these, the prefix is attached to nouns and adjectives: *aside*, *aloud*, *anew*.

Dis-

It is a polysemantic prefix of Romanic origin occurring predominantly in Romanic words. It may denote:

a) negation, the absence of quality: *disproportionate, disagreeable*.

b) the meaning of negation is well combined in some dis- adjectives and nouns with the meaning of opposition: *dissimilar, dissatisfaction*.

Much more evident the meaning of opposition, of undoing and reversing is in verbs: *disroot, disqualify*.

c) Very often the prefix denotes “to deprive of”: *dismember, disbranch*.

In Uzbek there is not any adverb forming prefix. But we may bring the prefix *-be* in some cases (when adverb comes with verb).

E.g. *Ko'chada yomg'ir betinim yog'ardi*.

Bu yo'lda mashinalar beto'xtov harakatlanadi.

3.4. Verb- forming prefixes

e.g. prefix + verb → verb

Prefix	Meaning	Examples
<i>re-</i>	again or back	restructure, revisit, reappear, rebuild, refinance
<i>dis-</i>	reverses the meaning of the verb	disappear, disallow, disarm, disconnect, discontinue
<i>over-</i>	too much	overbook, oversleep, overwork
<i>un-</i>	reverses the meaning of the verb	unbend, uncouple, unfasten
<i>mis-</i>	badly or wrongly	mislead, misinform, misidentify
<i>out-</i>	more or better than others	outperform, outbid

<i>be-</i>	make or cause	befriend, belittle
<i>co-</i>	Together	co-exist, co-operate, co-own
<i>de-</i>	do the opposite of	devalue, deselect
<i>fore-</i>	earlier, before	foreclose, foresee
<i>inter-</i>	Between	interact, intermix, interface
<i>pre-</i>	Before	pre-expose, prejudge, pretest
<i>sub-</i>	under/below	subcontract, subdivide
<i>trans-</i>	across, over	transform, transcribe, transplant
<i>under-</i>	not enough	underfund, undersell, undervalue, underdevelop

Be-

Be- is Germanic, semi-productive prefix. It is a polysemantic prefix. In some cases one can trace its primary meaning “(to cover) all over, about, around”: *bedew, besprinkle*. It is also added to adjectives in –ed to lend to them either the meaning “covered over”: a belabeled suit-case, or, simply, a shade of humour, ridicule or disparagement: *beribboned, bespectacled*. Sometimes the prefix, used to form verbs from nouns and adjectives, means “to turn into”, “to make”: *befool, belittle*.

Dis-

Dis- is closely related semantically to *un-* and *de-*. It forms reversative verbs from foreign verbal bases: *disassemble, disassociate, discharge, disconnect, disproof, disqualify*. Apart from deriving reversative verbs, this suffix uniquely offers the possibility to negate the base verb in much the same way as clausal negation does: *disagree* “not agree”, *disobey* “not obey”, *dislike* “not like”.

Dis- is also found inside nouns and nominalizations, but it is often unclear whether *dis-* is prefixed to the nominalization (cf. [*dis*-[*organization*]]) or to the verb before the nominalizing suffix was attached (cf. [[*disorganiz*]-*ation*]). There are, however, a few forms that suggest that prefixation to nouns is possible, conveying the meaning “absence of X” or “faulty X”: *disanalogy*, *disfluency*, *disinformation*. Finally, *dis-* also occurs in lexicalized adjectives with the meaning “not X”: *dishonest*, *dispassionate*, *disproportional*.

En- (em)-

This is Romanic, non-productive a polysemantic verbal prefix. Being added to noun it mostly denotes “to enclose in”, “to put into”, “to bring into the state of ”: *encycle*, *encode*. When combined with adjectives, the prefix means “to make”: *enfeeble*, *embrittle*. Sometimes the prefix has no well-defined meaning and is used, evidently, with no other reason but emphatic or intensive: *enkindle*, *enclose*.

Note. – The variant *em-* occurs before m, b, p.

Mis-

It helps to build verbs and, more rarely, nouns and adjectives. Being of Germanic origin, it, nevertheless, is added both to Germanic and Romanic stems. In verbs it helps to render the meaning “to do something in a wrong way, mistakenly, or badly ”: *misprint*, *misuse*, etc. In nouns and adjectives mishelps to denote a bad quality, ill deed, wrong action, etc.: *misadventure*, *miscreated*. The prefix has retained its productivity up to date.

3.5. Prefixes forming other parts of speech

Numeral or number prefixes are prefixes derived from numerals or occasionally other numbers. In English and other European languages, they are used to coin numerous series of words, such as *unicycle* – *bicycle* – *tricycle*, *dyad* – *triad* – *decade*, *biped* – *quadruped*, *September* – *October* –

November – December, decimal – hexadecimal, sexagenarian – octogenarian, centipede – millipede, etc.

In the following prefixes, a final vowel is normally dropped before a root that begins with a vowel, with the exceptions of *bi-*, which is *bis-* before a vowel, and of the other monosyllables, *du-*, *di-*, *dvi-*, *tri-*, which are invariable.

The *cardinal* series are derived from cardinal numbers, such as English *one, two, three*. The *multiple* series are based on adverbial numbers like English *once, twice, thrice*. The *distributives* originally meant *one each, two each* or *one by one, two by two*, etc., though that meaning is now frequently lost. The *ordinal* series is based on ordinal numbers such as English *first, second, third*. For numbers higher than 2, the ordinal forms are also used for fractions; only the fraction $\frac{1}{2}$ has special forms.

For the hundreds, there are competing forms: those in *-gent-*, from the original Latin, and those in *-cent-*, derived from *centi-* etc. plus the prefixes for 1–9.

Number prefixes are prefixes that are derived from numbers or numerals. They are used to create some words you will encounter. Recognizing these prefixes and the numbers they represent will help you to learn and better understand the meanings of such words.

Here are prefixes that represent the numbers 1 through 10. Next to each prefix are examples of words that are formed using the number prefix, along with the meanings of the words.

- | | | | |
|----------|-------------|------------------|----------------------------------------------------------|
| 1 | Mono | <i>monologue</i> | A long speech or performance given by <i>one</i> person. |
| | | <i>monorail</i> | A railroad track that has only <i>one</i> rail. |
| 1 | uni | <i>Unicorn</i> | An imaginary animal that has <i>one</i> horn. |
| | | <i>Unicycle</i> | A pedaled vehicle that has <i>one</i> wheel. |

2	bi	<u>Bicycle</u>	A pedaled vehicle that has <i>two</i> wheels.
		<u>Biennial</u>	An event that occurs every <i>two</i> years.
2	du	<u>Duet</u>	A piece of music written for <i>two</i> singers or musical instruments.
		<u>Duplex</u>	A house divided into <i>two</i> units with separate entrances.
3	tri	<u>Triangle</u>	A plane figure that has <i>three</i> angles and <i>three</i> sides.
		<u>Tricycle</u>	A pedaled vehicle that has <i>three</i> wheels.
4	quad	<u>quadrangle</u>	A plane figure that has <i>four</i> angles and <i>four</i> sides.
		<u>quadruple</u>	A number or amount <i>four</i> times as great as another.
5	Penta	<u>pentagon</u>	A plane figure that has <i>five</i> angles and <i>five</i> sides.
		<u>pentatlon</u>	An athletic contest that consists of <i>five</i> events.
5	Quint	<u>Quintet</u>	A group of <i>five</i> persons or things.
		<u>quintuplets</u>	<i>Five</i> children born at the same time to the same mother.
6	Hexa	<u>hexagon</u>	A plane figure that has <i>six</i> angles and <i>six</i> sides.
		<u>hexagram</u>	A <i>six</i> -pointed star.
7	Sept	<u>septenary</u>	A period of <i>seven</i> years.
		<u>septennial</u>	An event that occurs every <i>seven</i> years.
8	Oct	<u>Octet</u>	The first <i>eight</i> lines in a sonnet.
		<u>Octopus</u>	A saltwater animal with <i>eight</i> arms.
9	Nov	<u>November</u>	The <i>ninth</i> month of the year in the ancient Roman

calendar.

Novena *Nine* days of prayers or services.

10 Deca Decade A period of *ten* years.

Decathlon An athletic contest that consists of *ten* events.

CONCLUSION TO CHAPTER III

Prefixation is the formation of words with the help of prefixes. The interpretation of the terms prefix and prefixation now firmly rooted in linguistic literature has undergone a certain evolution. For instance, some time ago there were linguists who treated prefixation as part of word composition (or compounding). The greater semantic independence of prefixes as compared with suffixes led the linguists to identify prefixes with the first component part of a compound word.

At present the majority of scholars the author of this research work treat prefixation as an integral part of word derivation regarding prefixes as derivational affixes which differ essentially both from root-morphemes and non-derivational pre-positive morphemes.

Opinions sometimes differs concerning the interpretation of the functional status of certain individual groups of morphemes, which commonly occur as first component parts of words. H. Marchand, for instance, analyses words like to overdo, to underestimate as compound verbs, the first components of which are locative particles, not prefixes. In a similar way he interprets words like income, onlooker, outhouse qualifying them as compounds with locative particles as first elements.

According to the available word counts of prefixal derivatives in English the greatest number are verbs - 42.4 %, adjectives comprise 33.5 % and nouns make up 22.4 %.

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The differences between English and Uzbek prefixes are mainly in their number, meaning and usage. The table below shows the differences in the number prefixes in English and Uzbek.

	In English	In Uzbek
Noun-prefixes:	18	1
Adjective-prefixes:	15	6
Verbal prefixes	14	-
Adverbial prefixes	2	-
Numeral - prefixes	-	-

Uzbek as compared to English, does not possess adverbial and numeral prefixes.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

This is the first research work to compare English and Uzbek word-building systems.

Word formation is the process of creating new words from the material available in the language after certain structural and semantic formulas and patterns.

Word-formation is the creation of new words from the elements existing in the language. Every language has its own structural patterns of word formation. Words like «*writer*», «*worker*», «*teacher*», «*manager*» “*yozuvchi*”, “*ishchi*”, “*o’qituvchi*”, and many others follow the structural pattern of word formation «V + er» in English and “V+chi” in Uzbek.

Two principal approaches are applied in the science of language: the synchronic and the diachronic one. In our dissertation we study those of word formation which characterize the present-day English and Uzbek linguistic systems. The synchronic type of word formation does not always coincide with the historical system of word formation. *For example:* The word *childhood*, was compound word: In Old English *hood* denoted state, rank. But synchronically it is considered as a derived word because «*-hood*» became an affix. Synchronically the most important and the most productive ways of word formation in English are: affixation, word-composition, conversion, In the course of the historical development of a language the productivity of this or that way of word formation changes.

For example, sound interchange (*blood — bleed, strike — stroke*) was a productive way of word formation in old English. It has lost its productivity in Modern English and no new words can be formed by means of sound interchange. Affixation on the contrary was productive

in Old English and is still one of the most productive ways of word formation in Modern English.

Here are the derivational affixes established by us in the languages compared.

Noun-suffixes in English: *-er, -or, -ist, -ess, -ee, -man, -ster, -ling, -ie, -ette, -et, -let, -ful, -s, -ese, -ism, -ing, -ment, -ance, -ence, -(a)tion, -(e)ry, -ness, -age, -(i)ty, -ship, -al, -hood, -cy, -th, -dom, -`s.*

Noun-suffixes in Uzbek: *-soz, -chi, -ist, -shunos, -kash, -xon, -do`z, -gar, -paz, -boz, -xo`r, -parast, -go`y, -dor, -boya, -furush, -do`sh, -vachcha, -ham, -lik, -chilik, -garchilik, -zor, -loq, -iston, -gox, -don, -xonna, -obod, -noma, -k(-ik, -ak), q(-iq, -uq, -oq), -di(-ki, -g`i, -qi, -g`u), -m(-im, -um), -ma, -qin/-g`in, -in/un, -(i)ndi, -gich(-g`ich, -kich, -qich), -ch, -inch, -machoq(-i)sh, -(u)v/-(o`v), -(u)vchi/-(o`)vchi.*

Adjectival suffixes in English: *-y, -ed, -ish, -like, -less, -ful, -ly, -able, -ous, -ic(al), -en, -some, -ant, -ent, -al, -ive(-ative), -ary, -ory, -an(ian, ean).*

Adjectival suffixes in Uzbek: *-li, -ish, -(i)sh, -dor, -mand, -kor, -soz, -chan, -choq(-chik, -chak), gir(-kir, -qir, -g`ir), -ag`on, -mon, -(a)r, -ki(qi), -k(-q-g`), -kin(qin, -g`in, -g`un), -ma(-a)rli, -mas, -ildoq, -ch, -ivi, -gi(ki, qi), -i, -cha, -namo, -simon, -fki, -bad, -bob.*

Adverbial suffixes in English: *-ly, -ward(s), -fold, -wise.*

Adverbial suffixes in Uzbek: *-cha, -larcha, -siga/-iga, -ona, -lab, -an, -siz, -chang, -lay(in), -(in), -aki*

Verbal suffixes in English: *-ize, -ate, -i(ty), -en*

Verbal suffixes in Uzbek: *-la, -lan, -lash, -n, -illa, -ira, -a, -(a)y, -(a)r, -sira(-i)k/(-i)q, -i, -t.*

Numeral suffixes in Uzbek: *-nchi, -ov.*

In both languages prefixes are much more less than suffixes. In Uzbek almost all the prefixes are of foreign origin.

Prefixation in English

Noun-prefixes: *mid-,by-,fore-, mis-,non-,co-,semi-,ex-,vice-,arch-,neo- pro-, inter-, self-, sub-, pre-, anti-, counter-*.

Adjective-prefixes: *un-,in-. non-,dis-.super-,hyper-,ultra-, semi-,extra- trans-, self-, sub-,pre-, ante-, post-*.

Verbal prefixes: *be-,out-, over-, up-, under-, wth-, fore-, mis- dis-, de- co-, re-, en-/em, pre-*.

Adverbial prefixes: *a-, dis-*.

Prefixation in Uzbek

The number of noun-prefixes in Uzbek is only one: *ham-*.

Adjective-prefixes are: *ser-, ba-,be- no-,anti-,xush-*.

In Uzbek there are no verbal, adverbial prefixes.

So, differences between English and Uzbek affixes are in their number, meaning and usage. The table below illustrates these differences:

	In English	In Uzbek
Noun- suffixes:	36	43
Adjective- suffixes:	19	28
Verbal suffixes	4	14
Adverbial suffixes	4	18
Numeral suffixes	3	2

	In English	In Uzbek
Noun prefixes:	18	1
Adjective prefixes:	15	6
Verbal prefixes	14	-
Adverbial prefixes	2	-
Numeral prefixes	-	-

SUMMARY

The topic of the dissertation is important because of the following reasons:

First, English and Uzbek word-building systems have never been subjected to comparison;

Second, foreign language teaching has become a state policy in our Republic;

Third, contrastive linguistics to which this research belongs is the lingua didactic basis for foreign language teaching;

Fourth, most Uzbek students know little about English affixes and their meanings;

Fifth, as we know, the knowledge of the meaning of an affix enables students to guess the meaning of any other word having the same affixes.

Object of the research is derivational affixes in the English and Uzbek languages.

Subject matter is the similarities and differences between them.

Methods of the research are observation and comparative methods.

As language material for the research work has been used extracts from the works by English, American, Uzbek writers and journals, the examples of the literature used.

The dissertation consists of introduction, three chapters, general conclusion, glossary and the list of used literature.

Introduction includes such vital problems as the aim, objectives, object, subject, theoretical and practical significance of the problem, topicality and novelty.

There are three chapters namely:

1) Morphological structure of words.

2) Suffixation.

3) Prefixation.

The first chapter is dedicated to the morphological structure of words, types of morphemes and the general view of the ways of word formation in English and Uzbek.

The second chapter clears English and Uzbek derivational suffixes are subjected to comparison. This chapter also describes the derivation of suffixes in the parts of speech.

The third chapter deals with comparison of prefixes of the two languages. In this chapter were shown prefixes in the parts of speech in the English and Uzbek languages. I tried to reveal the similarities and differences between English and Uzbek derivational prefixes.

The findings of the research. There have been established all lexical suffixes and prefixes in English and Uzbek and there have also been revealed the differences and similarities between them. A system of exercises has been compiled to apply the results of the research to practice.

The results of the research work can be used in teaching English to Uzbek students, in delivering lectures on “Contrastive Linguistics of the English and Uzbek Languages and on “English Lexicology”.

GLOSSARY

№	English	Uzbek	Russian
1	Abbreviation	Qisqartma so'zlar	Аббревиатура
2	Adjective formation	Sifat yasalishi	Прилагательное образование
3	Affix	Affiks	Аффикс
4	Affixation	Affiksatsiya	Аффиксация
5	Allomorph	Allomorf	Алломорф
6	Antonyms	Antonimlar	АНТОНИМЫ
7	Apocope	Apokopa	Апокопа
8	Category of piece	Donalik kategoriyasi	Категория числа
9	Category of approximation	Taxminiylik kategoriyasi	Категория приблизительное
10	Componential analysis	Tarkibiy qism tahlili	Анализ составной части
11	Compound words	Qo'shma so'zlar	Сложные слова
12	Contrastive linguistics	Chog'ishtirma lingvistika	Контрастная лингвистика
13	Conversion	Konversiya	Конверсия
14	Derivative	Yasama so'zlar	Образованные слова
15	Derivational affixes	So'z yasovchi affikslar	Словообразные аффиксы
16	Functional affixes	So'z o'zgartiruvchi affikslar	Слово изменяющие аффиксы

17	Grammatical category	Grammatik kategoriya	Грамматическая категория
18	Interference	Interferensiya	Интерференция
19	Lexicology	Leksikologiya	Лексикология
20	Loan words	O'zlashma so'zlar	Заимствованные слова
21	Meaning, denotative	Denotativ ma'no	Денотативное значение
22	Meaning, figurative	Majoziy ma'no	Косвенное значение
23	Morpheme	Morfema	Морфема
24	Negative prefixes	Bo'lishsiz prefikslar	Негативные префиксы
25	Non-productive affixes	Mahsuldor bo'lmagan affikslar	Не плодородные аффиксы
26	Noun formation	Ot yasalishi	Образование существительного
27	Ordinal numerals	Tartib sonlar	Порядковые числительные
28	Parts of speech	So'z turkumlari	Части речи
29	Phoneme	Fonema	Фонема
30	Polysemy	Polisemiya	Полисемия
31	Prefix	Prefiks	Префикс
32	Productive affixes	Mahsuldor affikslar	Плодородные слова
33	Prop words	Tayanch so'zlar	Опорные слова
34	Qualitative adjectives	Asliy sifatlar	Качественное прилагательное
35	Referent	Referant	Референт

36	Relative adjectives	Nisbiy sifatlar	Относительное прилагательное
37	Root	O'zak	Основа
38	Seme	Sema	Сема
39	Sound interchange	Tovush almashishi	Чередование звука
40	Substantivation	Otlashuv	Субстантивация
41	Suffixes	Suffikslar	Суффиксы
42	Syllable	Bo'g'in	Слог
43	Synonyms	Sinonimlar	Синонимы
44	Participle	Sifatdosh	Причастие
45	Phraseological unit	Frazeologik birlik	Фразеологические единицы
46	Possessive affixes	Egalik affikslar	Притяжательные аффиксы
47	Verb formation	Fe'l yasalishi	Образование глагола
48	Word formation	So'z yasash	Словообразование
49	Word composition	Qo'shma so'z yasash	Образование сложного слова
50	Word stress	So'z urg'usi	Ударение слова

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