«ҚИЁСИЙ ТИПОЛОГИЯ» ФАНИ БЎЙИЧА МАЪРУЗА МАТНЛАРИ

C O M P A R A T I V E   T Y P O L O G Y

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The Subject-matter of Comparative Typology

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

1. Non-linguistic and
2. Linguistic typology

<u>**Non-linguistic**</u> typology is the subject matter of the sciences except linguistics.

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

Typological Classification of Languages

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

They are: 1. Comparative Method, 2. Comparative-historical Method, 3. Comparative (or Contrastive) Linguistics, 4. Comparative Typology, 5. Comparative Grammar, 6. Confrontational grammar, 7. Descriptive-Comparative Linguistics and so on. The terms used in Russian and Uzbek are not exact either.

They are: сравнительная грамматика, сопоставительная грамматика, сравнительно-историческое язикознание, контрастивная лингвистика, сравнителная типология in Russian and =иёсий типология, =иёсий-тарихий тилшунослик, =иёсий грамматика, =иёсий тилшунослик and so on in Uzbek.

Classification of Linguistic Typology

According to the notion of comparison of linguistics phenomenon and the aim directed on we may classify linguistic typology into the following parts. a) genetic or genealogical typology, b) structural typology, c) areal typology and d) comparative typology.

Geneological typology is a branch of linguistic typology which studies the similarities and the relationship between the related languages. It is applicated to the systems of genetically related languages. Geneological typology developed from the comparative-historical linguistics dominated during the 19th century in Europe. It's origin was stimulated by the discovery of Sanskrit, the ancient classical language of India. The discovery of Sanskrit disclosed the possibility of a comparative study of languages. The concept of relative languages was confirmed by the existence in India of a sister of the familiar languages of Europe e.g. Sanskrit " mata" means "mother", in the accus. case "matarum"

> dvau - two
> trayah - three
> as ti - he is   etc.

Before the discovery of Sanskrit European linguistics possessed very vague similarities for the current grammars built on the Greek model. They didn't set clearly the features of each languages. It is worth to mention that at the same time Sanskrit discovery gave rise to confuse notions of linguistic relation which lived for a brief time that European languages were derived from Sanskrit. But this

opinion gave way to a correct explanation, namely Sanskrit, Latin, Greek, and others were later forms of one prehistorical language.

Comparativists gave two kinds of classification of languages *-geneological and morphological.*

Geneological classification deals with the family relationship of languages which descend from one common ancestor. It distributes languages into different families.

Morphological classification deals with the classification of languages according to their structural features instead of a geneological origin.

According to the morphological classification the languages are divided into:

isolating (Chinese, Vietnamese, Japanese, etc.),

analytic (Russian, English, German, etc.),

agglutinative (Turkic languages) and others.

Genetic Typology compares the systems of languages in two ways: *diachronically and s synchronically.* But in the second case genetic relationship is not taken into consideration.

Structural Linguistic Lypology can be understood as a systematisation of linguistic phenomenon from different languages according to their specific structural features.

Structural typological research makes it possible to establish some traits that are *universal, unique and special.*

Language Universals

The languages of the world present us with a vast array of structural similarities and differences/ One way of answering this question is to adopt a historical persrective, investigating the origins of language and pointing to the importance of linguistic change/ An alternative approach is to make a detailed description of the similarities or differences, regardless of their historical

antecedents, and proceed from there to generalize about the structure and function of human language. There are two main ways of approaching the similarities and differences of language structures: If we look for the structural features that all or most languages have in common, so we are searching for **the languge universals**; If we focus our attention on the features that differentiate the languages so we are involving ourselves in language typology. In principle, the two approaches are complementary (going together), but sometimes they are associated with different theoretical conceptions of the nature of linguistic enquiry.

As has been mentioned above the notion of language universals is closely connected with the process of unification of linguistic facts with a process of establishing common features between the systems of different languages.

With the process of generalisation of linguistic phenomenon the investigations or language universals began at the end of 1950 s The main event in this field is the international conference held in April, 1961 in New-York.

At this conference a report called "Memorandum" concerning the language universals was presented by the American linguists J. Greenburg, Ch. Ostgood and J. Genkins. In the former Soviet Union B.A. Uspensky published his monographic research "Структурная типология язика" (1965).

In 1966 there appeared J. Greenberg's book "Language universals with special references to feature hierarchies".

These works were followed by a number of other research works published as articles and special volumes.

According to the "Memorandum" language universals are by their nature summary statements about characteristics or tendencies shared by all human speakers. As such they constitute the most general laws of a science of linguistics.

Language universals study the universal features in the systems of different languages of the world. They find similarities which are typical of the absolute or overwhelming majority of languages.

Types of universals are as follows: 1. Definitional universals, 2. empirical universals.

Definitional universals are connected with the fact which the speaker possesses and uses his extrapolation. It means that linguistic phenomenon exists in the system of those languages which the scholar does not know.

E.g. Indo-European languages have the opposition of the vowels and consonants. This phenomenon may be considered to be systems of other languages of the world.

Empirical universals are connected with the mental or imaginary experience that is a definite linguistic feature may exist in all languages, secondly he or she does not know if this or that feature exists in all languages. E.g. composition may exist in all languages in spite of their morphological structure.

Unrestricted universals. According to this type of universals linguistic supposition of hypotheses is not restricted. E.g. all languages have vowels or for all languages the numbers of phonemes is not fewer than 10 or more than 70 or every language has at least 2 vowels.

The universalist ideal is to be able to make short and interseting statements that hold, without exeption, for all languages. In practice, very few such statements can be made; short ones often seem to state the obvious (e.g.: All languages have vowels); and the interesting ones often seem to require considerable technical qualification.

Most of the time, in fact it is clear that absoluta (or exeptionless) universals do not exist. As a result, many lanuists look instead for trends or tendencies across languages - 'relative' universals - which can be givenstatistical expression. For example, in over 99% of languages whose word order has been studied, grammatical subjects precede objects. And in a phonological study of over 300 languages less than 3% have no nasal consonant. Linguistic features that are ststistically dominant in this way are often referred to as 'unmarked', and grammar that incorporates norms of this kind is knownas a 'core grammar'.

Substantive. Substantive universals comprise the set of categories that is needed in order to analyse a language, such as 'noun', 'quesyion', 'first- person', 'antonym' and 'vowel'. Do all languages have nouns and vowels? The answer seems to be 'yes'. But certain categories often thought of as universal turn out not to be so: not all languages have case endings, prepositions or future tenses, for example, there are certain surprising limitations or the range of vowels and consonants that typically occur. Analytical considerations must also be born in mind. Do all languages have words? The answer depends on how the concept of 'word' is defined.

Formal. Formal universals are a set of abstract conditions that govern the way in which a language analysis can be made - the factors that have to be written into a grammar, if it is to account sucsessfully for the way sentences work in a language. For examp;e, because all languages make statements and ask related questions (such as 'The car is ready vs Is the car ready? some means has to be found to show the relationship between such pairs. Most grammars derive question structures by some kind of transformation. (In the above example move the verb to the beginning of the sentence.) It is claimed that such transformations are necessary in order to carry out the analysis of these (and other kinds of) structures, as Chomskyan theory does, then they would be proposed as formal universals. Other cases include the kinds of rules used in grammar or the different levels recognized by a theory.

Implicational. Implicational universals always take the fom 'If X, then Y', their intention being to find constant relationships between two or more properties of the language. For example, three of the universals proposed in a list of 45 by the American linguist Joseph Greenberg(1919-   ) are as follows:

Universal 17.: With overwelming more-than-chance frequency, languages with dominant order VSO have the adjective after the noun.

Universal 31.: If either the subject or object noun agrees with the verb in gender, then, the adjectivenalways agrees with the noun in gender.

Universal 43.: If a language has gender categories in the noun, it has gender categories in the pronoun.

As is suggested by the phraising, implicational statements have a statistical basis and for this reason are sometimes referred to as 'ststistical' universals.

Universal implication involve the relationship between two characteristics. If a language has a certain characteristics, it has also some particular characteristics but not vice-versa i.e. the presence of the second doesn't imply the presence of the first.

E.g. If a language has a category of dual number it has also a category of plural but not vice-versa. Such implications are numerous particularly in the phonological aspect of languages.

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

Since the end of 18 th century, the chief concern has been to explain the nature of of linguistic diversity. This was the focus of comparative philology and dialectology, and it led to eraly attempts to set up genetic and structural typologies of languages.

Comparative method is a way of systematically comparing a series of languages in order to prove a historical relationship between them. Scholars begin by identifying a set of formal similarities and differences between languages and try to work out (or reconstruct) an earlier stage of development from which all the forms could have derived. The process is known as internal reconstruction. When languages have been shown to have a common ancestor they are said **to be cognate**.

The clearest case are those where the parent language is known to exist. For example, on the basis of various words for **"father"** in the Romance languages, it is possible to see how they all derived from the Latin word **"pater**". If Latin no longer existed, it would be possible to reconsruct a grat deal of its form, by comparing large numbers of words in this way. Exactly the same reasoning is used

for cases where the parent language does not exist, as when the forms in Latin, Greek, Sanscrit, Welsh, etc., are compared to reconstruct the IndoEuropean form ***"pater".**

IE

*pater

Clas.Greak	Sanscrit	Latin	Gothic	Old Irish
pat^er	piter	pater	fadar	fathir

Latin

pater

Italian	Spanish	French	Portuguese	Catalon
padre	padre	pere	pai	pare

How the reconstructed forms were pronounced is a matter debate; some scholars are happy to assign phonetic values to the forms and pronounce them as if they were part of a real language; others argue that the forms are little more than abstract formulae, summerizing the sets of correspondences.

In the 20 th century a new science of lingustics appeared, which continually stressed the variety of languages in the world, partly in reaction against the traditions of the 19 th century prescriptivism,where one language, commonly Latin, had been regarded as a standard of exellence.

Since the 1950 s, the focus on diversity has been replaced by a research paradigm, stemming from the work of the American linguist Noam Chomsky (1928-), in which the nature of Linguistic Universals holds a central place. Chomsky's generative theory of language proposes a single set of rules from which all the grammatical sentences in a language can be derived. The 'rules' of a

genetive grammar have no implication of sosial correctnes. They are objective descriptions of the grammatical patterns that occur. In order to define these rules in an accurate and economical way, a grammar has to rely on certain general principles - abstract constraints that govern the it takes and the nature of the categories with which it operates. These principles are concieved as universal properties of language-the properties that are biologically necessary and thus innate (natural).

The **notion of Universals** is important, it is argued, not only because it deepens our understanding of language inits own right, but because it provides an essential first step in the task of understanding human intellectual capacity. In Chomsky's view, therefore, the aim of linguistics is to go beyond the study of individual languages, to determine what the universal properties of language are, and to establish a 'universal grammar', that would account for the range of linguistic variation that is humanly possible. The question is simple: What are the limits on human language variability? Languages do not make use of all possible sounds, sound sequences or word orders. Can we work oyt the reasons? It might be possible to draw a line between the patterns that are essential features of language, and those that no language ever makes use of it. Or perhaps there is a continium between these extremes, with some features being found in most (but not all) languages, and some being found in very few.

The Port-Royal Grammar

Contemporary ideas about the nature of linguistic universals have several antecedents in the works of the 17 th century thinkers. The 'Grammaire generale et raisonee'(1660) is widely recognized as the most influential treatise of this period. It is often referred to as the 'Port-Royal grammar', because it was written by scholars who belonged to the community of intellectuals and religious established between 1637-1660 in Port royal, Versalles.

Although published anonimously, the authorship of the grammar has been ascribed to Claude Lancellot (1615-95) and Antoine Arnould (1612-94). Its substitute, refering to 'that which is common to all languages, and their principle differences... ' provides a neat summary of the current preoccupation with universals and typology. However, the approach of modern lingustics is less concerned with how language relates to logic and reality and more with its arbitrary properties.

The distinction between typological and universalist approaches to language study is doubtless ultimately an arbitrary one; and bothe have considerable insights to offer. But the two approaches, as currently practised, differ greatly in their procedures.

Typologists typically study a wide range of languages as part of their enquiry, and tend to make generalizations that deal with the more observable aspects of structure, such as word order, parts of speech,and types of sound.

In contrust with the empirical breadth of such studies, universalists rely on in-depth studies of single languages, especially in the field of grammar... English, in particular, is a common language of exemplificcation and tend to make generalizations about the more abstract, underlying properties of language.

As to N. Chomsky English is a human language, it must therfore incorporate all universal properties of language, as well as thoese individual features that make it specifically 'English'. One way of finding out about these properties, therefore, is the detailed study of single languages. The more languages we introduce into our enquiry, the more difficult it can become to see the central features behind the welter of individual differences. On the other hand, it can be argued that the detailed study of single languages is enevitably going to produce a distorted picture.

There are features of English, for exampe, that are not commonly met with in other languages, such as the use of only one inflexional ending in the present tense.(3 rd person sing. as in 'she runs') or the absense of a second-person

singular/plural distinction (cf.: French lu/vous). Without a typological perspective, some way, it is notpossible to anticipate the extent to which sense of priorities will be upset. If languages were relatively homogeneous entities, like samples iron ore, this would not be a problem. But typologists argue, languages are unpredictably irregular and idiosyncratic. Under these circumstanstances, a focus on breadth, rather than depth, is desirable.

Comparative typology compares the systems of two or more concrete languages and creates common typological laws. The comparison of the system of languages is based on small systems, i.e. small systems of two languages are compared first of all. E.g. the category of mood in English is considered to be a small system. Having completed the comparison of languages investigator takes the third language to compare and so on. Comparative typology is sometimes characterised by some scholars as characterology which deals with the comparison of the systems only.

Comparatie-typological Analysis of the Phonological Systems of English and Uzbek

In the linguistic literature phoneme is defined as the smallest distinctive unit. Unlike the other bigger units of language as morpheme and word it doesn't have its meaning but helps us to distinct the meaning of words and morphemes. Comp: **b**oy-**t**oy, **b**etter-**le**tter-**la**tter-**li**tter-**la**ter; **б**ола-**х**ола-**т**ола-**о**ла, **н**он-=он-**с**он-**о**н, **у**н-**у**н(*товуш*)- **ў**н-**ў**нг(мо=), б**ў**з(*ўзлаштирилмаган*)-б**ў**з(*материал*), б**ў**л-б**ў**л(*та=симла*)   etc. From the acoustic and articulatory points of view the phonemic system of any language may be divided into vowels and consonants

The System of Vowel Phonemes

From the acoustic point of the view vowels are speech sounds of pure musical tone. Their oscillographic melody tracings are characterised by periodically.

From the point of view of articulation vowels are speech sounds in the production of which there are no noise producing obstructions. The obstructions by means of which vowels are formed may be of two kinds:

1) the fourth obstruction without which neither vowels nor voiced consonants are formed;

2) the third obstruction characteristic of both: English and Uzbek vowels;

The channels formed in the mouth cavity for vowel production by moving a certain part of the tongue and keeping the lips in a certain position cannot be regarded as obstructions. They change the shape and volume of the resonance chamber, and in this way, help to achieve the timbre (or quality) of voice, characteristic of the vowel in question.

In modern English we distinguish 20 vowel phonemes:

10 monophthongs [e,i,u,   ]

9 diphthongs [ei, ai,au,   ], 2 diphthongoids [i:, u:]

In modern Uzbek we find 6 vowel letters and corresponding ^ vowel phonemes [а, о, у, е, э, и]

The main principles of classifying the vowel phonemes are as follows: a) according to the part (place of articulation or horizontal movement) of the tongue; b) according to the height (vertical movement) of the tong; c) according to the position of lips; d) according to quantity (length) of vowels.

1.according to the part (horizontal movement) of the tongue vowel may be divided into:

 central [   ], front[   ] and back [   ] vowels.

2.according to the height of the tongue into: **close**(high) [
medial [   ] and **open** [   ] vowels.

   In the languages, in which not only the quality but also quantity of vowels is of certain phonemic or positional value,-one more subdivision appears.

3. according to vowel length the vowels may be divided into **short [   ] and long** [   ] vowels. (In this case it belongs only to the English vowels as far as in Uzbek the length of the vowel is of no importance).

4. according to the position of the lips vowels may be : rounded (or labilialized) [
] and unrounded (non-labialized) [   ] vowels.

5. we may also subdivide vowels according to their tensity or laxity into: lax [
] and tense [   ] vowels.

Vowel quality, vowel length and the position of the lips are denoted in the classification by transcription symbols of the phoneme itself. For instance   is a long diphtongized vowel phoneme, pronounced with lips unrounded and   is a rounded long diphtongized vowel,   while   and   are an unrounded monophtongs. The first and the second principles constitute the basis of any vowel classification. They were first suggested by H. Sweet (1898).

	Front	Mixed	Back
Close			
Mid.			
Open			

Vowel table of this kind can be also sufficient for the classification of Uzbek vowels.

Comparative Vowel Table

The first comparative vowel tables appeared in the 19th century. Their aim was to prove the common origin of some two modern languages belonging to the same family. In the 1920s of the XX century Prof. D.Jones suggested a classification based on the principle of the so called "cardinal vowels". But these cardinal vowels are abstract notion and have nothing to do with the comparison of two languages from the typological viewpoint.

The aim of our comparison is pedagogical. Every phoneme of the English language should be compared with the Uzbek vowels as comparison of an unknown language phoneme with that of one's mother tongue is of great use. The aim of our comparison (does not need any universal principle) and is to underline the specific features of vowel formation in the two languages in question. The tables of English vowels (accepted in our country) are based on the principles of acad. L.V.Sherba's vowel classification, later on Prof. G.P Torsueva's. and prof. V.A.Vasiljev's classification.

1. According to the position of the tongue in the horizontal plane English vowels are divided into 3 groups: close, medial, and open. Each of them are subdivided into: narrow and broad.

2. According to the part of the tongue: front, front-retracted, mixed, back advanced and back.

In comparing the English and Uzbek vowel systems one more principle should be accepted - central vowels must be divided into: 1)central proper and central retracted.

Comparison shows, that:

1. the Uzbek [   ] should be classified as broad open central retracted vowel

2. the neutral vowel [   ] in English was pronounced by the English speakers examined as a broad medial, central retracted vowel.

3. the English [   ] was pronounced as an open narrow, central retracted vowel (evidently thanks to the new tendency to make it less back).

As there is no subdivision of Uzbek vowels according to their quantity into long and short ones there is no perceptible, difference in their tensity or laxity. So the Uzbek vowel phonemes are differentiated by their qualitative features.

 The main philological relevant features of the Uzbek vowels phonemes are: front-central-back, according to which they may form phonological opposition: close-mid-open (сил-сел-сал, кыр-кир, кыл-кел, тор-тер, etc.)

   It should be kept in mind that there is a difference between the phonetic and phonological classification of phonemes. In the phonetic classification articulation and acoustic features are taken into consideration. Every point of its difference is of pedagogical use.

   But philological classification is based on the abstract differential features of phonemes. They serve the purpose of their differentiating, and are called philologically relevant attributes of phonemes. They may be defined with the help of philological opposition in some pairs of words.

Comparative Analysis of the English and Uzbek Vowels Systems

As has been mentioned above the system of English vowel phonemes consists of monophtongs, diphtongized vowels and diphthongs. There are 21 vowel phonemes in English. They are:

There are 6 vowel phonemes in Uzbek. They are:

The main point of difference of similarity between the English monophtongs, diphthongizes vowel and Uzbek may be summed up as follows:

1. The English and Uzbek vowel phonemes are characterised by the oral formation. There are no nasalized vowels in the languages compared.

2. According to the part of the tongue in the formation of vowel phonemes there are no front-retracted, central proper (or mixed) vowels in Uzbek. Resemblance may be found in the pronunciation of the back vowels in English and Uzbek. The Uzbek [   ] and the English [   ] are back-advanced vowels. The Uzbek [   ] and the English   [   ], also [   ] are back retracted vowels. Therefore, it is comparatively easy to teach the Uzbeks pronunciation of back English vowels.

3. According to the height of the tongue in English there are vowels of all the 6 levels. Uzbek vowels belong to the narrow varieties of the 3 levels. In Uzbek there are no vowel phonemes like the English   [   ],[   ], [   ]. These vowels are difficult for the student to master, especially the neutral vowel. But nevertheless the neutral   [   ] can be compared with Uzbek unstressed in the words like кетди, келди, китоб etc.

4. According to the position of the lips in the formation of vowels English vowels are rounded without protrusion. Uzbek vowels [   ],   [are more closely rounded and protruded, where as the English   ,   are slightly rounded and [   ], [   ] are closely rounded without protrusion. All the front and central vowels in English and Uzbek are unrounded. In articulating the English vowels [   ] and the Uzbek vowels [   ], [   ], the lips are

neutral. In articulating the English vowels [   ], [   ], [   ] and the Uzbek [   ] the lips may be either neutral or spread. In articulating the Uzbek [   ] the lips may be either neutral or spread.

In teaching the Uzbeks to pronounce the rounded English vowels care should be taken not to protrude the lips.

5. Besides considerable qualitative difference there is a quantitative difference between vowel phonemes of English and Uzbek. Traditionally all English vowels are divided into short and long. Short-[   ], long [   ].

But at present the quantitative features of the English vowel phonemes have become their main property and quantity must be regarded as additional. The Uzbek vowel phonemes may only be differentiated by their quality. Philologically there is no quantitative difference in the Uzbek vowel phonemes . They are typical "middle sounds", neither long nor short. Sometimes the English vowels [   ], [   ] may sound like the Uzbek [   ]and [   ] when they are pronounced short. This acoustic resemblance makes it possible to compare the vowels in question.

6. The English vowels are usually neutralised and may be substituted by [   ] in unstressed position. The Uzbek vowels may be used either in stressed or unstressed position. Thus there is little difference between stressed and unstressed vowels in Uzbek. It is better to pronounce the correct pronunciation of the English [   ] without trying to find any parallels in the native tongue. (Compare the Uzbek [ ] in an unstressed position. e.g. келди, кетди, айтди)ю

According to the part of the tongue	Front		Central		Back	
Height of the tongue	front proper	front retract.	central proper	central retract.	back advanced	back retract.
Close	narrow					

	broad					
Mid. **(medial)**	narrow					
	broad					
Open	narrow					
	broad					

The Diphthongs.

There are 9 diphthongs in English. [   ]

The English diphthongs are stable combination, no syllable division is possible in them. They may form phonological opposition either with monophtongs, diphtongized vowels or with each other.

E.g. bed-bid-bade-beard-bowed; letter-latter-later-litter

[   ] is not an English phoneme, but a version of the vowel [   ]. The first element of the diphthongs, which is called the nucleus, is pronounced distinctly and clearly. The second element is glide. There are no diphthongs in Uzbek. According to the phonological approach combination of "vowel- j" and vice versa, such as the Uzbek u-u, u-y, u - o, u- a, are considered to be these sequences of a vowel and consonant [y-c]. They are not stable combinations but sometimes may be destroyed by the syllable division: суй-унчи, туй-улиш.

The first element of the diphthongs [   ], to a certain degree acoustically resemble the Uzbek vowels[   ]

and [   ]. Therefore it is not difficult to teach the Uzbeks to pronounce the nucleus of these diphthongs into [j] which is the most usual mistake in the pronunciation of the Uzbeks.

There are also two combinations often used which consists of three vowels in English. They are: [   ]. The first element of them may be regarded as diphthongs

and the third consists of the vowel. Usually they are called triphthongs. But there is no triphtongs in Uzbek.

Comparative Analysis of the Consonants of English and Uzbek

Consonants are speech sounds in the pronunciation of which noise is heard. The degrees of noise are different. There are consonants in the production of which only noise is heard, there are consonants in the production of which noise and voice are heard, and there are consonants in the production of which voice prevails over noise, but the fact is that noise in different degrees and forms is always present. Consonants do not give periodic voice waves.

The consonants should be classified on the following 3 principles:
1. the manner of production
2. the active organs employed in the production
3. the place of production

The last division is very important, due to it the principal difference in the formation of consonants in English and of consonants in Uzbek may be clearly shown. The system of English consonants consists of 24 consonants. They are: [p, t, k, b, d, g, m, n, l, n, f, v, s, z, w, j,   ]   and the problematic phoneme   .

The system of Uzbek consonant phonemes consists of 25 phonemes. They are: [п, т, к, б, д, г, м, н, л, нг, в, р, с, й, ш, з, х, щ, ф, р, ж, ч, с, =, \   ]

Some of the English consonants like [θ] and [ð]   have no counterparts in Uzbek. There are also some Uzbek consonants which do not exist in the system of the English consonant phonemes. They are: [х,ц, =, \ ]

Many consonants have their counterparts in the languages compared, but they differ in their articulation. The difference in the articulation and acoustics of English and Uzbek consonants phonemes may be summed up as follows:

1. The English [f,v] are labio-dental fricatives, whereas the Uzbek [ф,в] are bilabial fricatives. They have labio-dental versions in dialects. So Uzbek [в] pronounced in the same way as the English [w], especially in the middle of words. E.g. =овун, совун, шавла, давлат, шавкат, =увват. Uzbek students often substitute [w] for [v]: wine-vine.

2. [t, d, n, s, z] also [l] are alveolars in English. The corresponding consonants in Uzbek are dentals. The English [t, d, n] require apical articulation, while their Uzbek counter-parts are dorsal (dental). The dorsal articulation does not exist in English.

3. The English [r] is a post - alveolar fricative, while the uzbek [p] is a post-alveolar rolled (thrilled) consonant.

4. The English [l] phoneme consists of the main member; the clear alveolar [l], used before the vowels and semi-vowel and its positional, also dialectal, versions dark [l] which besides being alveolar is also velar.The latter is used before consonants and in word final position. The Uzbek [л] is dental consonants.

5. The English [h] is pharyngeal. Uzbek has: a)the velar fricative [x], b) the pharyngeal fricative [щ]. The replacement of [h] by   [x] is a phonemic mistake. The English [h] is weak and there is less friction than in the production of the   Uzbek [x].

6. The English affricates [ʃ], [tʃ] and fricatives [   ] are palato-alveolar, while Uzbek [ш, ж] are post-alveolar fricatives and [ж]   may be palatalised.

7. The English voiceless [p,n,k,s]   are more energetic than the corresponding Uzbek voiceless consonants. In the Uzbek [n, т, к] there is less aspiration than in the corresponding English voiceless plosives. While the English voiced [b, l, g, z]   are less energetic than the corresponding Uzbek voiced consonants.

8. We regard the jotal combination [   ] as a separate phoneme in English. It is not a chance combination, it is very often used and there is a letter in the alphabet to denote it in spelling. According to its first element it may be

regarded as a consonants phoneme [c-v] may form phonological opposition with the vowel [u:]. This opposition is an example of vowel-consonant dichotomy de-due (dew), loote-lute.

9. The English [j] is a palatal semi-vowel. The Uzbek [й] is a palatal fricative. Comp. yet- ет [йет].

10. The English [   ]   are interdentals. The interdental articulation is unknown in Uzbek. They are extremely difficult for the Uzbek to master.

11. The English sonants [m, l, n] in word-final position are very sonorous and somewhat prolonged before a pause, especially when they are preceded by a short vowel, whereas the corresponding Uzbek sonants are less sonorous in the same position. Comp. **Bell, Tom, on;** Uzbek: **бел, том, он**.

12. The English voiced consonants remain voiced in word final position and before voiceless consonants, while the Uzbek voiceless consonants become devoiced in the same position. The Uzbek students of English are apt to make phonologic mistakes: **bed-bet, course-cause**.

Comparative analysis of the morphological systems of English and Uzbek

Morphological structure of words

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

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

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

Like a word a morpheme is a two-facet language unit, an association of a certain meaning with a certain sound-pattern. But unlike the word a morpheme is

not an autonomous body (unit) and can occur in speech only as a constituent part of the word. It cannot be segmented into smaller units without losing its constitutive essence.

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

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

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

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

e.g. verb - to write- ёзмо=

noun -writer - ёзувчи

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

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

Inflexions (word-forming suffixes express different morphological categories.

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

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

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

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

'throughout' -a composite word where 'out' of the roots;

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

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

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

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

The model of modern Uzbek word can be drawn similarly to the English one, i.e. **'Pr-Rt-LxS-GrS' ,**

e.g.: бад-жащл-лиг(к)-инг-из-дан-дир, но-умид-лик-нинг'.

But it should be kept in mind that the use of prefixes is not native for the Uzbek language, as the prefixes in this language is borrow mostly from Persian or Arabic languages. But being a representative of agglutinative (Turkic) languages Uzbek has a peculiarity of its own that makes it unsimilar to English. Unlike English in Uzbek the root of the word can be followed by a number of (*up to 10*) lexical and grammatical suffixes.

E.G.: бе-маза-гар-чи-лиг-и-нг-из-дан

бе-кор-чи-лик-дан-дир-да-а?

{ Pref-root-lex.suf-lex.suf-gram.suf.}

The syntagmatic connections of morphemes within the model form two types of structure in Modern English:

W' = [Pr-(R-L)-Gr]

W" = {[(Pr-R)-L]-Gr }

As to the structure of the Uzbek words they display following models:

W'= [Pr-(R-L)-Gr]   E.g.: *но-умид-лик-нинг*

W"= (R-L)Gr(1-10)   E.g.: *механизация-лаш-тир-а-ол-ма-ган-лик-лар-и-нгиз-дан-дир-да-а?*

Parts of speech.

A word is known as the smallest naming unit of the language. According to L. Bloomfield, word is a minimum free form. Close observation and comparison of words clearly shows that a great number of words have a composite nature and are made up of smaller units, each possessing sound-form and meaning. In other words, the term *word* denotes the basic unit of a given language resulting from the association of a particular *meaning* with a particular *group of sounds* capable of a particular *grammatical employment*. A word is therefore simultaneously a *semantic, grammatical* and *phonologically unit*.

The words of every language fall into classes which are called parts of speech. The problem of parts of speech is one of the controversial problems of modern linguistics. The theoretical side of this problem is the subject matter of the theoretical grammar. Therefore we should base our comparison of system of parts of speech on the generally recognised (acknowledged) opinions of grammarians.

In order to make easier to learn the language the grammarians usually divide the word-stock of the language into some subclasses called in linguists **the parts of speech**.

The main principles of classifying words into parts of speech are: their **meaning, form and function**, that is to say, the words of any language differ from each-other in meaning, in form and in function. Different parts of speech have different lexical meanings. E.g. verbs denote process or state; nouns express the names of objects, adjectives their properties...

Some parts of speech have different grammatical categories. Verbs have the category of mood, tense, aspect, voice, person, number etc., nouns-case, number, adjectives-comparison, etc. The parts of speech also differ from each other in their syntactic function e.g. Verbs are used in the sentence structure as predicates, nouns-as subjects, adjectives as attributes... etc.

All words of the comparing languages may be divided into three main groups:

1. Notional words;
2. Structural words;
3. Independent element.

Notional words have distinct lexical meanings and perform independent syntactic functions in the sentence structure. They serve as primary or secondary parts of the sentence. To this group belong the following parts of speech: *Nouns, verbs, adjectives, pronouns, numerals, statives and adverbs.* It should be kept in mind that statives in Uzbek are often interchanged with adjectives and not treated as an independent part of speech.

Structural words differ from the notional words semantically; their lexical meaning is of a more general character than that of the notional words (e.g.: in, and, even, alas). Moreover they sometimes altogether avoid it if they are isolated from the context (e.g.: article **the**, conjunction **that,** interjection **oh** etc.)

Structural words do not perform any independent syntactic function in the sentence structure but serve either to express various relations between the words in a sentence. (e.g: trees **in** the garden, Tom **and** Joe, etc.) or to specify the meaning of the words (e.g.: there is **a** book on the table; **the** book on the table is mine, etc.

The following parts of speech are to be treated as *structural words* : **articles, particles** (only, solely, exclusively, mainly)**, prepositions and conjunctions**. Articles and prepositions are of individual character of English differentiating it from Uzbek as the functions of these parts of speech in Uzbek are performed by other elements of the language.

Independent elements are words which are characterised by their peculiar meanings of various kinds. (yes, no, certainly, oh, alas, etc.) They usually have no grammatical connections with the sentence in which they occur, i.e. they do not perform any syntactic function in the sentence. E.g.: *They **certainly** will come to the party.*

Sometimes independent elements can even serve as sentences themselves. E.g.: Yes., No., Alas.

Independent class of words include: **modal words, interjections, words of affirmation & negation.**

It is noteworthy that the division of words into parts of speech can be accepted only with certain reservations; there are words which cannot be classed among any of the above mentioned parts of speech (such as *please, anyway, щар =алай, маршамат, etc.)*

Typological categories of English and Uzbek words.

The words of any language are characterised by their ability to express definite notions existing in this society, thus changing their forms. Most of the notions existing in the society have common peculiarities, i.e. they have universal character.

Among the linguistic categories which can be traced in most of the languages of the world we can see the categories which display typologically general character but can be expressed in different languages in different ways. Studying these linguistic facts figuring out their similarities and differences is of much importance for the man of letters, especially for the graduates of the language faculties of universities who are going to become English teachers and interpreters in near future.

For instance, such linguistic notions as case, gender, person, tense voice, possession, etc. are of general character for the comparing languages, but they may be expressed by typologically different means of the language. In this chapter we try to generalise the main means of expressing the notions which are of peculiar type for the comparing languages.

Typological category of case.

The system of grammatical forms indicating the syntactic relations of nouns (or pronouns) is usually treated as the category of case; in other words, case is a grammatical form which takes part in the formation of the paradigm of nouns (or pronouns). Grammarians seem to be divided in their opinion as to the case system of the English nouns. The most common view is that they have only two case: **common (subject) and possessive (genitive) cases.** The common case is characterised by a zero morpheme (suffix) (e.g.: child, boy, student, girl) and the possessive case by the inflexion -'s and its phonetic variants as [s], and [iz].

The Uzbek language is said to have six cases: **бош, =арат=ич, тушум, ырин-пайт, жыналиш ва чи=иш** келишиклари.

The Uzbek *бош келишиги* (common or subject case) corresponds in meaning and function to the English common case; both of them are unmarked member of the case opposition and perform similar syntactic function (*of a subject*) in the sentence structure.

English common case and other five cases of Uzbek are marked members of the case opposition in both languages. The English possessive case is marked by the suffix **-'s** which can sometimes be substituted by the preposition '**of**' (e.g.: my father's room > the room of my father) and therefore is sometimes called '*of-genitive*' case. This case denotes possession of a thing or a person and in Uzbek it has its correspondence in the Uzbek **=арат=ич келишиги** which is expressed by the case ending suffix **-нинг.**

Dealing with notion of possession one should keep in mind that in Uzbek this category may be expressed not only by the nouns but also their antecedents (modifiers) in the pleonastic phrases such as *Менинг опа-м, Сизнинг паспорт-ингиз.* In this case we have to face the problem of **redundancy** and often try to avoid it using the modified noun only which contains the possessive suffix. e.g: Опа-**м** келди. In this case the suffix of possession can be rendered in English an in Russian by means of special possessive pronouns. e.g.: *My sister came. Моя сестра пришла .*

Meanings and functions of the other Uzbek cases may be denoted in Uzbek either by means of prepositions *(which displays English as an analytical language whereas Uzbek reveals its ability as a flective language)* or by word order. For instance, the meaning and function of the Uzbek **тушум келишиги** is expressed in Uzbek by means of the case ending **-ни** which denotes the object acted upon and it may be expressed in English by means of ***word order*** which is characterised in this language to be very strict in comparison with Russian or Uzbek (*e.g: Кырдим юзингни =олдим балога, =айга борайин энди давога? - Видел я твои очи черные (и заболел), куда мне теперь идти на лечение?*) Some English

grammarians (O.Curme, M.Deutschbein) recognise word order in English as *dative case*).

Dealing with this case one has to keep in mind the structure of the sentence i.e. the word order in the sentences of the comparing languages - **SOV** (in Uzbek e.g.: *Мен укамни кырдим*) and **SVO** (in English *I saw my brother*).

The Uzbek **ырин-пайт келишиги** denotes the place of the thing or a person in the space and it can be rendered in English by means of prepositions *at, in, on, by, over, above, among, between, behind etc.* (e.g.: Китоб жавонд**а** -The book is *in* the bookcase). It should be kept in mind that most of the English prepositions may contain (more) additional meaning denoting the place of the thing or a person. (Cf.: in -**ичи**-да, behind-**ор=аси**-да, between-**ораси**-да, under - **ости**-да, etc.)

The Uzbek **жыналиш келишиги** denotes the direction of an action performed by the subject of the sentence and is expressed by means of the case ending -**га. I**t can be rendered in English also by means of prepositions **to, at, into, etc. e.g:** *У (йигит) мактаб-**га** кетди.* He went **to** school. *У(=из) мен-**га** =аради.* She looked **at** me.

Чи=иш келишиги of Uzbek nouns denotes the beginning point of the action denoted by the verb. It can be rendered in English by means of prepositions **from, out of, from under,** etc. e.g.: У (=из) Лондон-**дан** келди. -She came **from** London. У (йигит) сумкаси-**дан** =ыл=опларини олди. - He took his gloves **out of** his bag.

Typological category of gender

The typological category of gender consists of the notions of of natural (biological sex and the grammatical (formal) gender. The connection of this category with the natural sex is in the fact, that it (this category) denotes the gender (sex) of people, animals and birds. It is displayed by the nouns and pronouns in English. (But in Russian it can also be expressed by the the adjectives and the past simple tense form of the verbs.) Most of the Uzbek grammar books do not contain any information about the category of gender of Uzbek nouns, because the authors consider Uzbek nouns not to have this category at all.

In accordance with their lexical meanings the nouns of the comparing nouns may be classed as belonging to the masculine, feminine and neuter genders. Names of male beings are usually masculine (e.g.: man, husband, boy, son, nephew, bull, ox, ram(wether), cock, stallion -ота, ы\ил, эркак, щыкиз, бу=а, новвос, =ыч=ор, хыроз, ай\ир) and names of female beings are feminine (e.g.: woman, lady, girl, daughter, wife, niece, cow, heifer (\унаж), ewe [ju:](совли=), hen, mare - аёл, хоним, =из(бола), =из (фарзанд), хотин, сигир, \унажин, совли=, макиён, байтал). All other nouns are said to be neuter gender (e.g.: pencil, flower, rain, bird, sky - =алам, гул, ём\ир, парранда, =уш, осмон).

Gender finds its formal expression in the replacement of nouns by the personal pronouns in the third person singular, i.e. **he, she, it.**

However there some nouns in English which may be treated as either makes or females. e.g.: **friend, cousin**, **doctor, neighbour,** worker, etc. The same can be said about the Uzbek terms of kinship. e.g.: ; жиян, =ариндош, холавачча, =уда, =ышни, табиб, ишчи. They are said to be of common (neuter) gender. When there is no need to make distinction of sex the masculine pronoun is used for these nouns.

There are three ways of expressing the category of gender in the comparing languages: morphological, syntactical and lexical. Morphological way of expressing the category of gender is realised by adding suffixes of gender to the

stem of the word. It is a highly developed way of expressing gender in Russian by means of suffixes ending in: a) **consonants** to be masculine, e.g.: дом, стол, праздник; b) vowels as **-a, -я** to be feminine. e.g.: мама, старуха, тетя; c) vowels **-o, -e** to be neuter. e.g.: ружьё, море, окно и т.п.

English has the only suffix -**ess** which is used to denote feminine gender. e.g.: host-**ess**, actr-**ess**, waitr-**ess**, princ-**ess**, lion-**ess**, tiger-**ess.** Feminine gender in Uzbek may often be expressed by means of the suffix -a which is supposed to be of Arabic origin. e.g.: - раис-**a,** вазир-**a,** шоир-**a,** муаллим-**a,** котиб-**a** etc.

In order to denote the gender syntactic way is also possible. In this case different kinds of combinations of words are formed in which adjunct word (modifier) usually denotes the sex of the head word. e.g.: *man* servant -=арол, *maid* servant - о=соч, *boy* friend-*ы\ил бола* ырто=, **girl** friend-**=из бола** ырто=, **tom** cat-**эркак** мушук, **tabby** cat-ур\очи мушук, **he**-wolf-эркак быри, **she** wolf-ур\очи быри, he goat-така, she goat-она эчки, etc. As is seen from these examples English gender denoted by a syntactic combination (*man servant, she goat*) can be expressed in Uzbek both by syntactically and lexically.*(=арол, она эчки).*

In most cases gender can be expressed lexically, i.e. by the stem of the noun only. e.g.: father-ота, uncle-амаки, niece-(=из) жиян, sister-in-law-келин, lord-жаноб, also names of animals, such as mare-бия, tiger (эрка) йылбарс, ram-=ыч=ор, etc. Names of people can also denote the gender of the person who owns this name. e.g.: Arthur, Christopher, John - Ащмаджон, Бащодир, Шащобиддин, denoting male beings and Mary, Christine, Nelly, - Сайёра, Мещринисо, Гулойим, etc.

Nouns denoting various **kinds of vessels** (*ship, boat, yacht, life-raft*), the noun **'car'**, as well as the **names of countries** are sometimes referred to as feminine gender, i.e. by means of **'she'.**
This fact is usually called **personification.** e.g.:

a. *Sam joined the famous* **whaler** *'Globe'.* ***She*** *was a ship on which any young man would be proud to sail.*

b. **England** *prides **herself** with **her** greenness and tidiness.*

Such nouns as '*storm, thunder, wind, war, death, grave*' are treated as *masculine* gender. Nouns like '*nature, country, mercy, faith, hope, modesty*' are used as *feminine* gender.

Cf.: **Он** работал_   **He** worked

Она работал**a** }- **She** worked }   - **У** ишлади

Оно работал**о**   **It** worked

Typological category of plurality

The system of grammatical forms expressing grammatical degree (number) is termed (called) the category of plurality. This category. In comparing languages the formants indicating this category are usually added to the stem of nouns (or pronouns). We should distinguish the logical number (degree) and grammatical number. From the logical point of view proper nouns usually denote a single thing or a person. e.g.: John, Собир, London, Тыйтепа, etc. The common nouns are used to to denote common type of things, of course, logically more than one.

As we know that the category of plurality denotes more than oneness of thins , people or phenomena. Grammatically it can be based in English on the opposition of '*zero morpheme and the suffix -s, -en, and root changing abilities of some nouns*', i.e. **#// -s, -en.** In Uzbek it is based on the opposition of zero morpheme (#) and suffix -лар, i.e. **# // -лар.** Among the parts of speech this category is distinguished grammatically by nouns, pronouns an verbs. In comparing languages this category may also be denoted lexically by numerals. (e.g.: two, fifteen, thirty, thousand - икки, ын беш, ыттиз, юз, минг). Numerals are not used in the grammatical plural forms because in the plural form they become substuntivized i.e. they become nouns. (*иккилар, олтинчилар*).

It should be kept in mind that there are languages having 'dual' and trial' numbers. (Cf.: OE prounouns - **ic-wit-we** where '**wit'** denoted a dual number).

Plurality of nouns.   Uzbek nouns and pronouns usually denote this number by means of suffix **-лар** (e.g. одам-*лар,* муттащам-*лар*) which can sometimes be used also to denote respect to a person who is spoken about. e.g.: Дадам*лар* келди*лар*. *(But you have to keep in mind that you can't have more than one father).*

English nouns can express the notion of plurality in the following ways:

a) by means of suffixes :

   -s, -es (wife-wives, head-heads),

  -**en** (ox-oxen, child-children, brother-brethren);

  -a datum-data, sanatorium -sanatoria, phenomenon-

   phenomena) etc.

b) by changing the root vowel (man-men, goose-geese)

Plurality of Verbs. The English verbs can denote the notion of plurality in the following ways:

a) by opposing the finite verbs in the third person singular to the other forms with zero morpheme: live-**s** - live#

b) by means of suppletive forms of auxiliary verbs:

   am, is-are; was-were; have-has -had

The Uzbek verbs usually express plurality by means of the following suffixes:

a) -лар (келди-)лар;

b) -миз, -сиз, -нгиз, -дилар (бора-миз, келадилар);

c) -ш, -иш (кел-ишди);

This category can be expressed by means of personal pronouns in both languages: Cf.: I-we; me-us; he|she|it - they; In Uzbek ; мен-биз; сен-сизлар; у-улар;

Lexically this category may be expressed in both languages with the help of numerals. e.g.: army-=ышин, dual-икилик,

majority-кыпчилик, family-оила, pair-жуфт, double-икки(лантирилган), etc.

Plurality can sometimes be expressed by means of prepositions (between, among-ыртасида, орасида) adverbs (arm-in-arm - =ыллашиб), indefinite

pronouns (some-бир неча, анча, бироз), verbs (join-=ышилмо=, бирлашмо=, gather-тыпланмо=, get together-йи\илм=, unite-бирлашмо=), also by quantitative markers (two-seater, many staged, two-storied); and in Uzbek (кыпщад, =ышари=, учкыприк).

Typological category of person

The category of person should be dealt with in close connection with the category of number (plurality). Because in the languages of Indo-European family these categories are expressed by one and the same morpheme simultaneously, i.e. a morpheme denoting number at the same time expresses person as well. For instance, in Latin the morpheme *-nt* in such forms as ***amant, habent, legunt, amabant, habebunt***, etc. expresses simultaneously the third person and the plural number.

In the comparing languages the category of person is a characteristic feature of pronouns and verbs. They (languages) make distinction between the three classes of personal pronouns denoting respectively the person(s) speaking (the first person), the person(s) spoken to (the second person) and the person(s) (or things) spoken about (the third person).

person	*singular*	*plural*
1-person	*the speaker*	*the speaker and some other people*
2-person	*a person spoken to*	*more than one person spoken to*
3-person	*a person or a thing spoken about*	*some people or things spoken about*

The category of person in verbs is represented by the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd person and it expresses the relations between the speaker, the person or people spoken to

and other person or people spoken about. However this system doesn't hold good for the modern English verb and this is for two reasons:

1) there is no distinction of persons in the plural number. Thus the form 'live' may within the plural number be connected with a subject of any person. e.g.: I

you	live
we	live
they	live

2) there is no distinction of numbers in the 1- and 2-person. Thus the form 'live' in these persons may refer to both one and more than one subject. Thus the opposition **3p. s. -all other persons** expresses relation of the 3p.s. with any person of both numbers, i.e. **stem-s | stem#** The marked member of the opposition differs greatly from that of unmarked one both in form and in meaning. It should be kept in mind that in the Subjunctive mood the form 'live' denotes any person of both numbers.

The ending '-s' having four meanings to express simultaneously is of course a synthetic feature, standing rather by itself in the general structure of Modern English.

There a special subclass of the English verbs which do not fit into the system of person and number described above and they must be treated separately both in a practical study of the language and in theoretical analysis. They are called 'modal verbs '**can, may, must'**, etc. Being 'defective verbs' they do not admit any suffix to their stem and do not denote any person or number and usually accompany the notional verbs in speech giving them additional meanings of notions as '*ability, permission, necessity or obligation'* etc.

The verb '**be**' has a system of its own both in the present indicative and in the past:

I	am-	was
He	is	was
she	is	was
it	is	was
You	are	were
They	are	were

There is one more special class of the English verbs called *impersonal verbs.* **H**aving the suffix '*-s'* in the third person, singular of the present simple they do not denote any person or thing as the doer of the action. Such verbs usually denote natural phenomena such as *to rain, to hail, to snow, to drizzle, to thunder, to lighten, to warm up; e.g.: It often rains in autumn. It is thundering and lightening.*

The personal system of the Uzbek verbs is as follows:

Indic. Mood	*person*	*singular*	*plural*
Past	*I*	*бор-дим*	*бор-дик*
	II	*бор-динг*	*борди-нгиз(лар)*
	III	*бор-ди*	*бор-ди-лар* *бор-иш-ди*
Present	*I*	*бор-а-ман*	*бор-а-миз*
	II	*бор-а-сан*	*бор-а-сиз(лар)*
	III	*бор-а-ди*	*бор-а-дилар* *(бор-иш-ади)*
Future	*I*	*бора-ман,* *бор-мо=чи-ман*	*бор-а-миз,* *бор-мо=-чи-миз*

	II	*бор-а-сан,* *бор-мо=чи-сан*	*бор-а-миз,* *бор-мо=чи-миз*
	III	*бор-а-ди,* *бор-мо=-чи*	*бор-а-ди-лар,* *бор-иш-мо=чи*
Imperat. mood	I	*бор-ай*	*бор-ай-лик*
	II	*бор-гин*	*бор-инг-лар, бор-инг-из*
	III	*бор-иш-син,* *бор-син-лар*	*бор-инг-(из)-лар*

In Uzbek we have no the so called modal verbs and impersonal verbs as it is understood in English or Russian (дождит, смеркается, темнеет, похолодало). The functions of the modal verbs are performed in Uzbek by means of the adjectives such as *зарур, керак, даркор, лозим*, etc. As to the problem of impersonal verbs in Uzbek we use the so called **unipersonal verbs** which are combined only with one and the same nouns denoting the names of natural phenomena, such as *=ор, ём\ир, дыл, ча=мо=*, etc. e.g.: *Ём\ир ё\ади, Ча=мо= ча=ди.*

Dealing with the category of person attention must be drawn to the use of the pronominal forms in transposition. The affective value of such 'metaphors' may be traced in many modern languages. The first to be mentioned in English is the use of the personal pronouns **'we, you, they'** in patterns where they are synonymous with the formal generic **'one'** which denotes anyone who occurs in a definite situation. Semantically it corresponds to the Uzbek generic words as ʻ**одам, киши, инсон**.   e.g.:

You (we) don't know what to do in such a situation.

One doesn't know what to do in such a situation.

Бундай щолатда нима =илишингни щам билмайсан киши.

Инсон зоти борки яратганни унутиб, фарзанди томон интилади.

The so called '*editorial*' **'we'** (Lat. plural is modestial) is well known, for instance, as used in many modern languages by authors of scientific papers, monographs or articles in newspapers, etc. The pronoun 'we' is commonly used in proverbs. e.g.:

We shall see what we shall see.

Та=дирда борини кырамиз

We never know the value of the water till the well is dry.

+уду= =уримагунча (Ари=дан о==ан) сувнинг =адрини билмаймиз

Compare the Uzbek proverbs which are also addressed to anyone who appears in a situation. e.g.

Нима эк**санг** шуни ыра**сан**.

Зар =адрини **заргар** бил**ади**.

Билиб туриб билмасликка ола**миз.**

Expressive affect of great subtlety will be found in the use of the pronoun 'we' in such examples:

*'I say' said Hurstwood, as they came up the theatre lobby, **we** are exceedingly charming this evening.*

*'How do **we** feel today?' said the doctor facing the patient.*

Typological categories of tense and aspect

Tense is the form of the verb which indicates time of the action from the point of view of the moment of speech. In English we distinguish three tenses ; past, present and past.

Past tense denotes an action which has taken place at a definite time before the moment of speech.

Present tense denotes a regular or recurrent action happening around the moment of speech.

Future tense denotes an action which will or going to happen after the moment of speech.

The English verbs also distinguish the category of aspect.

Aspect is a particular form of the verb which shows whether the action that is described is a continuing action or an action that happens always, repeatedly or for a moment. In other words it is a form of the verb which serves to express the manner in which the action is performed, i.e. it shows whether it is a single accomplished action (or point), a recurrent action or a continuous process. The notion of aspect can also be described as a form of the verb that shows habituality, continuance or completion of the action or state expressed by the root of the verb. In Uzbek grammars aspect is not studied as a separate category of the verb as it is not always expressed distinctly as it seems because of the lack of the analytical forms.

In the comparing languages the categories of **tense and aspect** are so closely merged together that it is impossible to treat them separately. One and the same form of the verb serves to express tense and aspect at the same time and therefore they should be regarded as a '*tense-aspect forms* 'of the verb.

In the comparing languages we distinguish three aspects of the verb forms; **Simple** (*Common or Indefinite*), **Continuous** and **Perfect** aspects. Combining with

all the tense forms of the verb they form the so called 'tense aspect forms of the verb'.

 Present simple expresses a usual, recurrent or habitual action that takes place in our everyday life. e.g.

The sun rises in the East.

We love our mothers.

Children go to school at the age of 6.

'They call me Nancy' , said the girl.

I know him well. *(Stative action)*

The verbs in the present simple may often be accompanied by adverbs of frequency such as *often, sometimes, usually, seldom, never,* etc. indicating *habitual action.* The main indicator of the English verb forms in the present simple is the opposeme 'live | live-s'. (See the preceding chapter.)

As has been mentioned above **Past simple** denotes an action which happened at a definite time before the moment of speech.

Definite time of the action may be clarified by means of such time expressions as *'yesterday, last week, two years ago, when I was a child, etc.* The main indicator of the verb form in the past simple of the English verbs is the formant '-ed' (for the regular verbs) and the change of the root vowels (or consonants) for the irregular verbs. e.g.: live-**d**, help-**ed**, g**i**ve-g**a**ve, sen**d**-sen**t.** *(As to the verb forms in Uzbek see the table in the chapter dealing with the category of person.)*

The verbs in the Future Simple, as has been mentioned above, indicate the action which will or going to happen after the moment of speech. The main indicators of the future action is the auxiliaries '**will (shall), and going to'** which usually precede the infinitive**.**

e.g.: Give me your suitcase, please. I **will** *carry it for you.*

I'm **going to** *visit my grandfather on Sunday.*

Present Continuous denotes an action happening now, i.e. at the moment of speech. In English the predicate verb is formed by means of the auxiliary verb

'**be-Participle 1**' of the notional verb which correspond to the Uzbek verb forms in the example of the verb '**бор**-':

1 person	singular	-аяпман, -мо=даман
	plural	-аяпмиз, -мо=дамиз
2 person	singular	-япсан, -мо=дасан
	plural	-аяпсиз, -мо=дасиз
3 person	singular	-аяпти, -мо=да
	plural	-аяптилар, -ишаяпти; -мо=далар, -ишмо=да

The Present Continuous expresses three ideas:

1) an activity happening now, i.e. at the moment of speech.

   Cf.: *It **is raining**.   The child is crying. They are looking at you.*

    *Ём\ир ё**аяпти**. Ча=ало= йи\лаяпти. Улар сизга =арашаяпти.*

2) an activity happening around now, but perhaps not at the moment of speech.

  Cf.: *I'm reading a very interesting book on astrology these days.*

Шу кунларда мунажжимлик ща=ида жуда =изи= бир китоб ы=ияпман,

3) a planned future arrangement.

  Cf.: *I'm leaving for London next week.*

Келаси щафтада Лондонга жынаяпман.

Past Continuous of the English verb is formed by means of the combination of **'was (were) -P1'** of the notional verb and denotes an action happening (in progress) at a definite time in the past. Definite time may be expressed by means of time expressions or by a clause of time connected to the principle one with the conjunctions **while** and **when.** In Uzbek in the past continuous the verbs may take the suffixes **-аётган эди, -мо=да эди,**

e.g.: *I was having a shower when you rang me up (**at seven o'clock**).*

*- Сиз менга =ын\иро= =илганингизда (**соат еттида**) мен чымилаётган эдим.*

*Compare: a) I was doing my homework at 7.00 last night. (*Past Continuous - I was in the middle of the action.)

*b) I did my homework last night. (*Past Simple - I started and finished)

Future Continuous is formed by means of the auxiliary 'will (or shall) be - P1' of the notional verb and expresses an action taking place in progress at a definite time after the moment of speech.

Cf.: I shall be waiting for you at the arrival hall at 5 o'clock (when you plane arrive at the the airport).

- Самолётингиз соат 5 да (аэропортга =ынган пайтда) мен сизни кутиш залида кутаётган (кутиб турган) быламан.

As is seen from this example Uzbek future continuous is expressed with the help of the suffix **'-ётган'** and auxiliary verb '**был-мо=**'.

Perfect aspect denotes an action that has happened before now. Present Perfect relates past actions and states to the present. In a sense Present Perfect is a present tense. It looks back from the present into the past and expresses a completed action up to the present moment.

e.g: *I've travelled a lot in Africa. -Африка бўйлаб кўп саёхат =илганман,*

It can also express an action or state which began in the past and continues to the present.

Cf.: I've known Alice for six years. - Мен Алисани олти йилдан буён биламан.

Look at the use of the Past Simple and Present Perfect:

I've lived in Rome for six months.(I still do). -Present Perfect.
I lived in London for a year. (Now I live somewhere else, not in London). - Past Simple).

Present Perfect Continuous is used to express
a)an activity which continues to the present.
  e.g.: *I've been waiting here for hours.*
 b) to refer to an activity with a result in the present.
 e.g.: *I'm hot because I've been running.*

Sometimes there is little or no difference in meaning between the Present Perfect Simple and Continuous.
 e.g.: *How long have you worked here?*
       How long have you been working here?
It should be kept in mind that there is a special class of verbs that have the idea of a long time, such as **wait, work, play, travel,** etc. These verbs are usually used in the Present Perfect Continuous.
 e.g.: *I've been playing tennis since I was a boy.*
The verbs that don't have the idea of a long time such as **find, start, buy, die, lose, break, stop**, etc. and also verbs that express state such as **like, love, know, have (possess**) are not found in the Present Perfect Continuous.

Past Perfect denotes an action in the past which happened before another action in the past.

e.g.: When I arrived at the station the train had already gone.

- Мен вокзалга етиб келганимда поезд алла=ачон жынаб кетган экан.

Where *(When I arrived at the station - Мен вокзалга етиб келганимда)* denotes a definite time in the past.

Compare the use of the Past Perfect and Past Simple in the following sentences:

When I got home, John cooked a meal. (First I got home, then John cooked).

-Мен уйга етиб келганимда(н кейин) Жон ов=ат пиширди.

When I got home, John had cooked a meal.(John cooked a meal before I got home)

- Мен уйга етиб келганимда Жон ов=ат пишириб =ыйган экан.

Future Perfect expresses an activity that will be completed before a definite time in future. In English this notion is expressed by means of the combination '**will (shall) have -PII'** of the notional verb. In Uzbek it is rendered with the help of 'suffixes **'-б, -иб'** & the auxiliary verb '- **был**(мо=).'

Cf.: I shall have finished *my homework by 4 o'clock.*

- *Мен уй ишларимни соат 4 гача* тугаллаб быламан.

Typological category of voice

Voice is the form of the verb which serves to show whether the subject of the sentence is the agent or the object of the action expressed by the predicate verb. In other words as a grammatical category voice is the form of the verb which shows the relation between the action and its subject indicating whether the action is performed by the subject or passes on it. Accordingly there are two voices in English: a) active voice and b) passive voice.

Active voice shows that the action is performed by its subject, that the subject is the doer of the action. It is formed from the pure stem of the finite form of the verb, i.e. the infinitive without the particle 'to'.

 e.g.: **I** *usually* **close** *the door at 5 o'clock.* - **Мен** *эшикни олатда соат 5 да* **ёпаман**.

Passive voice shows that the subject is acted upon i.e. the recipient of the action. It is formed in English by means of the auxiliary verb 'to be' in the required tense form and 'Participle II' of the notional verb.

e.g.: The door **is** *usually* **closed** *at 5 o'clock.* It corresponds to the Uzbek 'Мажщул нисбат' of the verb. Cf.: *Эшик одатда соат 5 да* **ёпилади**.

 Transformational relations for voice may be symbolized as follows: *N1-V act-N2 — N2-Vpass. - by-N1* .

   The choice of thepassive construction is often due to the fact that the agent is unknown, well known or the speaker prefers not to mention him|her. Sometimes passive constructions can also be formed by means of auxiliary **'get'** which can function in a very similar way with 'be'.

   e.g.: He ***got struck*** by a stone.

      -Унга =андайдир бир тош келиб ***урилди***.

My dress *got caught* on a nail.

Кыйлагим бир михга *илиниб =олди*.

 In these examples 'get' seems closer to the true passive auxiliary 'be'. Compare some more examples.:

He *gets punished* regularly. - У доимий равишда *жазоланиб* туради.

She *got blamed* for everything. - Щамма нарса учун у (=из) *айбланарди*.

But it should be kept in mind that we can't say *'Gets he punished regularly?'* which means that unlike the passive auxiliary *'be'* *'get'* is so closely connected to the PII that it can't be separated from notional verb and be used independently.

English is rich with passive constructions:

1. Direct Passive, in which the subject of the passive construction corresponds to direct object of the predicate verb.

 e.g.: The window in a room opposite was being opened. (*очилаётган эди*).

 2. Indirect passive which can be seen in the so called subjective predicative constructions.

 e.g.: She *is said* to be a charming girl. *(айтишларича...)*

 He *was seen* talking to the Minister.(*... гаплашаётганини кыришган*)

 3. Prepositional passive, which can be formed with the help of the verbs requiring prepositional object.

 e.g.: He was highly thought of in the village. (*...унга бино =ыйишарди*)

 The doctor has been sent for (*...одам юборилди*).

 You have been a good deal talked about (*...кып гапирилди*).

Sometimes the subject of such construction may denote the place of the action (i.e. adverbial modifier of place).

 e.g.:**The bed** was not *slept in*. - **Кроватда** щали *ётилмаган эди*.

The room had already *been lived in.* - **Хонада** алла=ачон *яшалаётган эди.*

The chairs had once *been sat in.* - **Стулларда** бир ва=тлар *ытирилган экан.*

As to the voice system of the Uzbek language, it rather intricate as the Uzbek verbs are more flective than their English counterparts. The Uzbek verbs distinguish five voices: ани=лик нисбати (active voice), ызлик нисбати (reflexive voice), орттирма нисбат (causative voice), биргалик нисбати (reciprocal voice) and мажщул нисбат (passive voice).

As has been mentioned above Uzbek ани=лик нисбати fully corresponds to the English active voice, i.e. it is formed from the pure stem of the finite verb.

*e.g.: Мен буни **инкор =иламан**. - I deny that.*

Uzbek ызлик нисбати is formed by adding the suffixes *-ин* to the stem of the mainly transitive verbs after that they become intransitive ones.

Uzbek	Uzbek	English
Transitive	Intransitive	Transitive
арт-мо=	**арт-ин-мо=***	to dry oneself
юв-мо=	**юв-ин-мо=***	to wash oneself
беза-мо=	**беза-н-мо=***	to decorate oneself
сык-мо-=	**сык-ин-мо=***	to curse oneself

In these examples **marked (*) members** of the opposition are used in the ызлик нисбати which corresponds to the English reflexive voice, where the subject of the action is at the same time is an object acted upon.

e.g.; -Эрта тонгда туриб яхшилаб *ювиндим*, хафсала билан *артиндим,* сынгра эринмай *=ириндим*, чунки ишга жойлашиш учун бугун мущим сущбатдан ытишим керак эди.

- I got up early morning and *washed myself* (had a good shower*), dried myself* and then I *shaved myself* properly as I had a very important job interview today.

The Uzbek орттирма нисбат (causative voice) is formed by adding suffixes:

Suffixes	Examples
-дир(тир)	ёз-дир-мо=, кул-дир-мо=, айт-тир-мо=
-газ(-гиз, -\из, -=аз, -=из, -киз-мо=)	кыр-газ-мо=, юр-гиз-мо=, ыт-каз-мо=, ёт-=из-мо=, кет-киз-мо=
-т	ы=и-т-мо=, сыра-т-мо=, ишла-т-мо=
-из	эм-измо=, о=-из-мо=, том-из-мо=
-ир	уч-ир-мо-, оч-ир-мо=
-ар	чи=-ар-мо=, =айт-ар-мо=

In English causation can be expressed syntactically i.e. by means of the following verbs in combination with other parts of speech: to make, to cause, to force, to have, to get, etc.

e.g.: That makes me tremble for her happiness. (=алтира-т-ади).

     She made me put on my coat. (...кий-дирди).

     I was made to put on my coat. (...кий-дир-ишди).

     I had my room whitewashed (...о=ла-ттир-дим)

     I got him rewrite my paper (...ёз-дир-дим).

Uzbek биргалик нисбати (reciprocal voice) is formed by adding the suffixes -**ш, -иш** to the stem of the verb and it denotes that the action expressed by the

predicate verb is performed by more than one person. In English such a notion is expressed syntactically, i.e. by means of the reciprocal pronouns **'each other, one another** in combination with the predicate verb.

e.g.: I knew that my two aunts bitterly *disliked each other*. (...бир бирини ылгудай   ёмон кыришарди)

    They were always *kissing one another* a lot in public. (...роса ыпишишарди)

Uzbek мажщул нисбати corresponds to the English passive voice and denotes that subject of the action is acted upon. The main difference between them is in the fact that in Uzbek sometimes intransitive verbs denoting a human action can be used in the passive voice, such as бор-мо=, юр-мо=, ет-мо= etc.

e.g.: Бу ердан вокзалгача ярим соат чамаси *пиёда юр-ил-ади*, кейин

    муюлишда автобусга *чи=-ил-ади*.

    Расми ёмон хотиндан *=оч-ил-ади*, замона шум былса, яхши хотиндан щам

    =очар экан, киши. (А.+ащщор)

Typological category of comparison

The category of comparison is a characteristic feature of adjectives and adverbs in the comparing languages. Comparisions indicate degrees of differences with adjectives and adverbs and may be equal or unequal.

Equal comparisons

An equal comparison indicates that the two entities are (or not if negative) exactly the same. In this case the sentence in the comparing languages take the following forms:

```
Eng.:  S  + V + as adj. / adv. + as + N/Pr
Uzb.:  S  + N+чалик + Adj./Adv.  + V
```

E.g.: She is as clever as her mother. - У (=из) онаси каби а=лли(дир).

John is not as tall as his brother. - Жон акасичалик новча   эмас(дир).

It should be kept in mind, that the subject form of the English pronoun is always used after th conjaction *"as".*

E.g.: Mary is as tall as I. You look as old as she.

Examples of equal comparisons:

My car is as expensive as yours. (adj.)

Your car runs as fast as mine. (adv.)

Mary speaks Spanish as well as her sister. (adv.)

My work is as hard as yours. (adj.)

The same idea can be expressed in English in the following way:

```
S  + V + the same + (N) + as + N/Pr.
```

But opposite of '*the same'* is '*different from'*.

Cf.*:   My shoes are the same size as yours*

My car is different from John's.

Her mistakes are the same as Mary's.

Their pronunciation is different from ours.

Unequal comparisons

This type of comparative implies that the entities are comparable in a greater or lesser degree.

There are three degrees of unequal comparison : *positive, comparative and superlative degrees.* The positive form is the plain stem of an adjective or an adverb   and it is used when we speak of a single thing, a person, an event or an action is spoken about.

e.g. heavy storm, to speak slowly, straight way, to come early, to walk quickly

-кучли бырон, секин сызловчи, ты\ри йыл, эрта келмо=, тез(ора)да кыришмо=).

Comparative degree is used when we speak of (compare) two things or actions.

e.g.: heavier, slower, more straight, earlier, less quickly - кучлиро=, секинро=, ты\риро=, секинро=

Superlative degree is used when more than two objects, phenomena or actions are compared.

e.g.: the heaviest, the slowest, the earliest, the least quickly

-энг кучли, энг секин (щаракат), энг эрта (пишган), энг имиллаган

There are three ways of forming comparative and superlative degrees: synthetical, analytical and suppletive ways.

1) **Synthetically,** i.e. by adding the suffixes -er, -est in English and -po= in Uzbek. This method is used for a) monosyllabic adjectives and adverbs.

e.g.:

      Positive   Superlative

Comparative

new - янги   newer-янги-ро=   the newest-энг янги[1]

early -эрта   earlier-эртаро=.   the earliest - энг эрта

b) disyllabic adjectives ending in -er, -ow, -y, -e

e.g.:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
clever - а=лли	clever-er - а=лли-ро=	the clever-est - энг а=лли
narrow - тор	narrow-er - тор-ро=	narrow-est - энг тор
happy	happier	the happiest
noble	nobler	the noblest

c) disyllabic adjectives with the stress on the second syllable. e.g.

polite - одобли	politer - одоблиро=	the politest-энг одобли
complete- тугалланган	completer- тугалланганро=	the completest- энг тугалланган

d) a few frequently used adjectives and adverbs:

common-кып учрайдиган	commoner - кыпро= учрайдиган	the commonest-энг кып учрайдиган
quiet-осойишта	quieter-осойиштаро=	the quietest- энг осойишта

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[1] *It should be kept in mind that Uzbek superlative degre is formed analitically, i.e. by adding the particle ' **???'** before the adjective or adverb. e.g.: ??? ????, ??? ????, etc.*

The following spelling rules should be observed in forming the comparative and superlative degrees of the English adjectives.

a) adjectives ending in **-y**   preceeded by a consonant, change -y into **-i-,** i.e. -**ier** or -**iest.** E.g:

funny-=увно=	funnier-=увно=ро=	the funniest-энг =увно=
heavy-о\ир	heavier-о\иppo=	the heaviest- энг о\ир
early -эрта(нги)	earlier- эрта(нги)ро=	the earliest -энг эртанги

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b) monosyllabic adjectives with a short vowel doube their final consonant:

big	bigger	the riggest
smal	smaller	the smallest

But monosyllabic adjectives ending in a double consonant remain unchanged;

thick	thicker	the thickest
fresh	fresher	the freshest

c) adjectives with a mute **[   ]** at hte end have only **-r,** or **-st.**

pale	paler	the palest
fine	finer	the finest

2. *Analitically*, i.e. by means of special words '**more'** for the comparative degree   and   **'most'**   for the superlative degree. The superlative degree of the Uzbek adjectives can also be considered as an analitical one as it is formed by means of the preceeding words "**анча**", "**бироз",   "энг".** This method is widely used in English for:

a) most disyllabic adjectives and adverbs:

careful- эщтиёткор	carefully-эщтиёткорро=	the most careful- энг эщтиёткор
quickly - тез	more quickly - (бироз) тезро=	the most quickly - энг тез (равишда)
carefully - (анча) эщтиёткорона	эщтиёткорлик билан	the most carefully - энг эщтиёткорлик билан

b) adjectives and adverbs of more than two syllables:

adventurous-саргузаштли	more adventurous-анча саргузаштли(ро=)	adventurous- энг саргузаштли
adventurously - саргузаштлар билан	adventurously - анча саргузаштлар билан	the most adventurously - саргузаштларга (энг) тыла щолда

c) adjectives, formed from participles:

tired - энг чарчаган	more tired - чарчаганро=	the most tired - энг чарчаган
annoying -\ашга (жонга) тегадиган	annoying - бироз \ашга (жонга) тегадиган(ро=)	annoying - энг \ашга (жонга) тегадиган

d) adjectives (statives) used only predicatively:

afraid - =ыр==ан	more afraid - =ыр==анро=	the most afraid - энг =ыр==ан
aware - хабардор	aware - хабардорро=	aware - энг (яхши) хабардор

Unequal comrarison can futher be intensified by adding 'much' or 'far' before the comparative form of the English adjectives or adverbs and 'анча' before the Uzbek adjectives and adverbs.

E.g.: Mary's house is much (far) more expensive than yours.

Мэрининг уйи сизникидан анча =иммат туради.

She speaks English far (much) more fluently than you do.

У аёл инглиз тилини сиздан кыра анча яхши гапиради.

Illogical comparisons.

Illogical comparison is one in which unlike entities have been compared. One should be sure that that the items being compared are the same. These forms can be divided into three categories: possessive case of the English nouns [**'s]** , postposional phrases such as **'that of'** (for singular) and **'those of'** (for plural). e.g.:

*His pronunciation is **as perfect as his teacher's**.*

*John's car runs **faster than Mary's**.*

*Lessons in the University **are more interesting than those of** the secondary school.*

*The climate in India is **as hot as that of** Malasia.*

Incorrect to say: His pronunciation is as perfect <u>as his</u> <u>teacher.</u>

John's car runs as fast <u>as Mary.</u>

3. **Suppletively or irregularly**, i.e. by changing the root (stem) of the word.

Afew adjectives and adverbs have irregular forms for the comparative and superlative degrees. Study them.

good - яхши	better - яхширо=	the best - энг яхши
bad - ёмон	worse - ёмонро=	the worst - энг ёмон
far- узо=	farther#further - узо=ро=	the farthest#furthest - энг узо=

many} - (саналадиган) кып

more - кыпро= (анча)   the most - энг кып

much} -(саналмайдиган) - кып

Multiple number comparatives.

Numer multiples can include such words denoting number multiple as, **half, twice, three times, four times,** etc. In this case the sentence expressing multiple number comparatives may have the following structure:

S + V + Num.mult. + as + much/many + N + as + N/P
S + N/P **га караганда** + Num.mult. + Adj./Adv.+**рок** + V

E.g.: Your car costs <u>*twice as much as*</u> *mine. - Сизнинг машинангиз меникига =араганда икки марта =иммат**ро**= туради.*
I bought three <u>*times more English books as*</u> *you did last time. - Мен сиз ытган сафар сотиб олган китобларингиздан уч баравар кыпро= китоб сотиб олдим.*

Remember: It is **incorrect** to say : "Twice more than", etc.

Double comparatives.

Sentences including double comparatives are usually compound sentences. They begin with a comparative construction, and thus the second clause must also begin with a comparative and sentences have the following structure:

Eng.:   **The** +**comparative** + S + V + **the** + **comparative** + S + V.

Uzb.:   S + =**анча** + **comparative** + V + S + **шунча** + **comparative** + V.

*E.g.: **The faster** you run, **the more tired** you feel.*

  +***анча тез(po=)*** *югурсанг,* ***шунча кып(po=)*** *чарчайсан.*

  The more *you sleep, **the more irritable** you you become.*

  +***анча кып(po=)*** *ухласанг,* ***шунча инжи=(po=)*** *быласан.*

There are some adjectives that on account of their meaning do not admitt comparison at all, such as *unique, ful, empty, square round, wooden, daily, major, whole,* etc. The same can be said about the Uzbek "нисбий сифатлар" such as " *хусусий, оилавий, ижтимоий*" etc.