

**THE MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND SECONDARY SPECIAL EDUCATION
THE UZBEK STATE UNIVERSITY OF WORLD LANGUAGES**

*Approved by the dean
of the first English
philology T. Madrahimov*

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A COURSE OF LECTURES ON COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY

Tashkent 2011

The course of lectures done by Amir Abushayev is recommended by the first
English filology Department August 29, 2011.

The Dean of the 1st English filology: _____Madrahimov T.A
The Head of the Department of
Theoretical Sciences: _____Hakimova G.E

ANNOTATION

The given course of lectures on Comparative Typology is a unified and complex material. It includes all necessary components and parameters aimed at the development of skills in the Comparative Typology of Languages. At the moment, it is presented a significant importance of both design and implementation of such material in deep connection with the actuality and necessity of application of innovation and interaction patterns within the frames of Comparative Typology of languages.

This course of lectures includes the following items:

- 1.Lectures
- 2.Tests
- 3.Questions

The tendency is determined on coordinated and complex assessment of students knowledge and raise of their awareness of Comparative Typology.

The teaching technology on the subject “Typology”

Lecture 1 Linguistic Typology as a subject	Types of scientific comparison; Branches of General Typology; Types of non-linguistic Typology; Subject-matter of Linguistic Typology; Various approaches toward definition of Linguistic typology.
Plan of the lecture(organization of the topic)	1.Types of scientific comparison; 2.Branches of General Typology; 3.Types of non-linguistic Typology; 4.Subject-matter of Linguistic Typology; 5.Various approaches toward definition of Linguistic typology.
Aim of the lesson	To provide full information about Linguistic Typology, to explain historical background: to reveal the main features of this very branch of Linguistics and to analyze different criteria of dividing LT into different types.
Results of the lesson procedure	Define Linguistic Typology, its characteristics and main features Inform on what directions and factors brought a great influence on the development of Linguistic Typology points out the place of LT in modern Linguistic branches
Forms of controlling: Observing: oral, written check: studying task	Maximum point of the topic 1 point Students mark

The gical schedule of the lecture

Lecture (2hours)

Lecture 1	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	Student
1-part the introductory part of the lesson (15minutes)	1 Teacher greets the students and introduces the topic of the Lecture”The Historical development of Comparative Typology”	1 Students listen to the teacher, ask questions,and make notes about the subject
2-part Main part of the lesson (50minutes)	2.1 The teacher asks some questions about the subject 2.2 The teacher asks some questions about the Lecture 2.3 The teacher explains the topic of the Lecture	2.1 Students answer the teachers questions 2.2 Students listen to the Lecture and make notes
3-part of the lesson 15 (minuts)	3.1 The teacher makes the comclution to the Lecture, and gives questions according to the Lecture 3.2 The teacher gives marks for answers	3.1 Students answer teachers questions 3.2 Students get marks

The teaching technology on the subject “Typology”

<p style="text-align: center;">Lecture 2</p> <p>The History of Linguistic comparison</p>	<p>The History of Linguistic comparison; The Major factors fostering development of Linguistic typology; Discussing different classifications/ periodization of the history of Linguistic comparison and factors of its development.</p>	
<p>Plan of the lecture (organization of the topic)</p>	<p>1.The History of comparison; 2.The Major factors fostering development of Linguistic typology; 3.Discussing different classifications/ periodization of the history of Linguistic comparison and factors of its development.</p>	
<p style="text-align: center;">Aim of the lesson</p>	<p>To raise students awareness of phonetic and phonological levels of the English and native Languages in comparison</p>	
<p style="text-align: center;">Results of the lesson procedure:</p>	<p>1 ability to explain the phonetic and phonological level in comparison 2 informing students about scientists 3 having full understanding of the given material 4 ability to clarify the new terms meaning</p>	
<p>Forms of controlling: observing: oral, written check, study tasks. Tasks for self-study</p>	<p>Maximum topic of the topic: 1 point Students mark:</p>	<p>Teachers Signature</p>

The technological schedule of the lecture

Lecture 2 (2hours)

	The plot of the action	
Parts, Time	Teacher	Student
1-part the introductory part of the lesson (15minutes)	1 Teacher greets the students and introduces the topic of the Lecture;"Comparison of phonetic and phonological level of English and native languages"	1 Students listen to the teacher, ask questions,and make notes about the subject
2-part Main part of the Lesson (50minutes)	2.1 The teacher asks some questions about the subject 2.2 The teacher asks some questions about the Lecture 2.3 The teacher explains the topic of the Lecture	2.1 Students answer the teachers questions 2.2 Students listen to the Lecture and make notes
3-part of the Lecture	3.1 The teacher makes the comclusion to the Lecture, and gives questions according to the Lecture 3.2 The teacher gives marks for answers	3.1 Students answer teachers questions 3.2 Students get marks

The teaching technology on the subject “Typology”

Lecture 3	Major parameters identifying the branches of Linguistic typology.
Plan of the lecture	1. System/Structural identity; 2. Genetic identity; 3. Quantitative limitation/non-limitation; 4. Areal limitation; 5. Etic/emic identity; 6. Deep and Surface identity; 7. One level approach to comparison; 8. Cross-level approach to comparison; 9. Content approach; 10. Formal approach; 11. Limitation of etalon language; 12. Completion of typology operations.
Aim of the lesson	To raise students awareness of morphological systems of English and native languages in comparison
Results of the lesson	Ability to explain the morphological systems of learning and native languages in comparison Getting acquainted with the two primary categories to distinguish all the languages.
Tasks for self-study	Task 1 Being acquainted with the Lecture materials and answering the questions Task 2 Answering the questions Task 3 Working on the recommended literature
Forms of self-control: Observing: oral, written check Studying task	Maximum point of the topic 1 point Students mark 1) What does the term “Phonetics” mean?

The technological schedule of the lecture

Lecture 3(2hours)

Lecture 3	The plot of the action	
Partc,time	Teacher	Student
1-part the introductory part of the lesson (15minutes)	1 Teacher greets the students and introduces the topic of the Lecture;" "The typology of morphological system of English and native languages	1 Students listen to the teacher, ask questions,and make notes about the subject
2-part Main part of the lesson (50minutes)	2.1 The teacher asks some questions about the subject 2.2 The teacher asks some questions about the Lecture 2.3 The teacher explains the topic of the Lecture	2.1 Students answer the teachers questions 2.2 Students listen to the Lecture and make notes
3-part of the lesson (15 minutes)	3.1 The teacher makes the comclusion to the Lecture, and gives questions according to the Lecture 3.2 The teacher gives marks for answers	3.1 Students answer teachers questions 3.2 Students get marks

The teaching technology on the subject “Typology”

Lecture 4	Genetic/Genealogical typology.
Plan of the lecture, organization	1.Genetic diachronic typology; 2.Genetic synchronic typology; 3.Distinctive features of Genetic typology.
Aim of the lesson	To give full information on word-combinations (phrases): to explain English word combinations systems and analyze native languages word combinations.
Results of the lesson	Ability to explain what is word-combination Syntactic level paradigm Having full understanding of types of word-combinations Ability to clarify the new terms meanings
Tasks for self-study	Task 1 Being acquainted with the lecture materials and answering questions Task 2 Self-control questions Task 3 Working on recommended literature
Teachers Signature:	

The technological schedule of the lecture

Lecture 4 (2hours)

Lecture4		
The plot of the action		
Parts times	Teacher	Student
1-part the introductory part of the lesson (15minutes)	1 Teacher greets the students and introduces the topic of the Lecture;" "The typology of word-combinations"	1 Students listen to the teacher, ask questions,and make notes about the subject
2-part Main part of the lesson (50minutes)	2.1 The teacher asks some questions about the subject 2.2 The teacher asks some questions about the Lecture 2.3 The teacher explains the topic of the Lecture	2.1 Students answer the teachers questions 2.2 Students listen to the Lecture and make notes
3-part of the lesson (15 minutes)	3.1 The teacher makes the conclusion to the Lecture, and gives questions according to the Lecture 3.2 The teacher gives marks for answers	3.1 Students answer teachers questions 3.2 Students get marks

The teaching technology on the subject “Typology”

Lecture 5	Structural typology and its parts.
Plan of the lecture	1.Linguistic Universals; 2.Etalon Language; 3.Typological Classification; 4.Typological theory 5.Typological classification of Edward Sapir
Aim of the lesson	To give full information on the sentence: criteria of dividing sentences into types: to point out main features in classification of sentences
Results of the lesson	Ability to explain what is a sentence, definition of a sentence, Giving information on English, Russian. Having full understanding about classification of sentences.
Tasks for self-study	Task 1. Being acquainted with the lecture materials Task 2. Answering self-control questions Task 3 Working on recommended literature
Forms of control	Maximum point from the topic 1 point Students mark
	Teachers Signature

The technological schedule of the lecture

Lecture 5(2hours)

Lecture 5	The plot of the action	
Parts times	Teacher	Student
1-part the introductory part of the lesson (15minutes)	1 Teacher greets the students and introduces the topic of the Lecture;" "The typology of word-combinations"	1 Students listen to the teacher, ask questions,and make notes about the subject
2-part Main part of the lesson (50minutes)	2.1 The teacher asks some questions about the subject 2.2 The teacher asks some questions about the Lecture 2.3 The teacher explains the topic of the Lecture	2.1 Students answer the teachers questions 2.2 Students listen to the Lecture and make notes
3-part of the lesson (15 minutes)	3.1 The teacher makes the conclusion to the Lecture, and gives questions according to the Lecture 3.2 The teacher gives marks for answers	3.1 Students answer teachers questions 3.2 Students get marks

The teaching technology on the subject “Typology”

Lecture 6	Comparative typology and its major distinctive features.	
Plan of the lectures	1.Quantitative limitation of compared languages; 2.Deep and Surface identity; 3.Indifference to Genetic identity; 4.Content approach to comparison.	
Aim of the lesson	To give full information about typology of lexical units of English, Russian and Uzbek languages.	
Results of the lesson	Ability to explain what is word-combination Syntactic level paradigm Having full understanding of types of word-combinations Ability to clarify the new terms meanings	
Tasks for self-study	Task 1 Being acquainted with the lecture materials and answering questions Task 2 Self-control questions Task 3 Working on recommended literature	
Forms of self-control Observing, written check	Maximum point from the topic 1 point Students mark	Signature of the teachers

The technological schedule of the lecture

Lecture 6

Lecture 6	The plot of the action	
Parts,times	Teacher	Student
1-part the introductory part of the lesson (15minutes)	1 Teacher greets the students and introduces the topic of the Lecture;” Typology of Lexical system of English and native languages”	1 Students listen to the teacher, ask questions,and make notes about the subject
2-part Main part of the lesson (50minutes)	2.1 The teacher asks some questions about the subject 2.2 The teacher asks some questions about the Lecture 2.3 The teacher explains the topic of the Lecture	2.1 Students answer the teachers questions 2.2 Students listen to the Lecture and make notes
3 -part of the lesson (15 minutes)	3.1 The teacher makes the conclusion to the Lecture, and gives questions according to the Lecture 3.2 The teacher gives marks for answers	Students answer teachers questions 3.2 Students get marks

Lecture 1

1. *Types of scientific comparison*
2. *Branches of General typology.*
3. *Types of non-linguistic typology*
4. *Subject-matter of Linguistic typology*
5. *Various approaches toward definition of Linguistic typology.*

Basic types of scientific comparison

Substantial

**Non
Substantial**

Linguistic typology

Typology as a method of scientific study is characteristic to many fields of scientific knowledge because the taxonomic description, classification and systemic comparison of various objects are universal methods of cognition and apply to both non-linguistic and linguistic sciences. Taxonomy is a science studying theory of classification and systemizing.

Basic types of scientific comparison

There are 2 types of scientific comparison: a) substantial, and b) non-substantial.

- a) Substantial comparison deals with comparison of real objects materializing substances, e.g. sounds, digits, numbers, etc.
- b) Non-substantial comparison deals with comparison of systems and their elements (e.g. phonemes, morphemes).

At the early stages of development of typology as a science the major role belonged to substantial comparison which is considered primary. Yuri Rojdenstvenskiy' wrote that "...in General linguistics the relations between language systems base on substantial features. The languages were considered cognate because the linguists found principal similarity in their substance: sound and content".

Non-substantial comparison played a significant role in shaping typology as an independent science.

Branches of General typology

As a method of scientific cognition General typology binds Non-linguistic and Linguistic typologies. Both of them have general strategies, objectives and principles of identifying isomorphic and allomorphic features of substances, phenomena, facts, etc.

Non-linguistic typology

As a method typology is used in law, math, history, botany, economy, psychology, etc. General and solitary differences and similarities are typical to all sciences. Some branches isolate systemic comparison into an independent sub-branch within the frames of a more general science: e.g. comparative psychology first mentioned in the works of Aristotle who described psychological similarities between animals and human beings. One the most well-known representatives of *Comparative Psychology* was Charles Darwin.

Comparative Pedagogy deals with general and distinctive features, development trends and prospective of theory, applied instruction and upbringing methods, reveals their economic, social political and philosophic backgrounds.

Historical typology analyses historic facts and produces comparative inventory based on the history of each nation/ethnicity to reveal general trends, differences and similarities. E.g. based on French revolution of 1848 the major signs of revolutionary situation were revealed.

Literary criticism (сравнительное литературоведение) got rapid development in the second half of XIX century simultaneously with development of comparative linguistics. In Russia the representatives of comparative linguistics were P.M. Samarin, V.M. Jirmunskiy, M.P. Alekseev, N.I. Conrad, I.G. Neupokoeva, etc.

The two sciences — Linguistic typology and Literary criticism have a number of similarities: a) linguistic comparison deals with identifying universal principles of comparative description of the systems of national languages while Literary criticism establishes general principles of typological description of national literatures; b) both sciences deal with identifying systemic signs (системные признаки) and discover typological isomorphism which can be conditioned structurally, genetically and geographically, etc.

The subject-matter of Linguistic Typology

Linguistic typology is a branch of general linguistics. There is no unanimity in defining the subject matter of linguistic typology. There are broad and narrow interpretations of its subject matter. James Ellis²

The subject-matter theory of translation, dialectology and borrowings to the bulk of Linguistic typology. These branches do have relations to Linguistic typology but also constitute the subject-matter of other special fields of knowledge.

There is a great variety of terms: areal linguistics, structural linguistics, characterology, language universals, translational grammar, comparative philology, contrastive linguistics, confrontational linguistics, etc.

With further development of linguistic science scholars start differentiating the terms "comparison" and "confrontation". While comparative method implied comparison of cognate /related languages, confrontational method was derived to denote comparison of genetically non-related languages.

Roman Jakobson contributed to the definition of subject-matter of Linguistic typology stating that "Genetic method deals with relationship of languages, areal method deals with similarities while typological method deals with isomorphism"³.

Isomorphism can unite various statuses of languages, both synchronically and diachronically or statuses of 2 different languages, areally close or distant; genetically related and non-related.

Definition of the subject-matter of Linguistic Typology

The most popular definition of the subject matter seems to be "Linguistic typology is a branch of general linguistics, field of study aiming at identifying such similarities and distinctive features of languages that do not depend on genetic origin or influence of languages to one another. Typology strives to identify and look at the most significant features that affect other spheres of language systems, e.g. the way

of junction of meaningful parts of the word or the so-called structure of the sentence in the language". Typological studies base on materials of representative sampling (репрезентативная выборка) from many world languages, so that the findings and conclusions made on the results of such analysis can be applied to the entire majority of languages (in cases of linguistic universals).

Linguistic typology shows special interest to the so-called exotic or non-studied languages, e.g. languages of ethnicities of South-East Asia, Africa, Ocean side or American Indian tribes. Still the data of well-known, expanded and well-studied languages may to the similar extent become the subject matter of a typological study.

Linguistic typology not only systemizes, generalizes and classifies the facts of language isomorphism and allomorphism but also explains them.

The majority of prestigious linguistic theories have their own typological agenda aimed at theoretical analysis of structurally different languages, their location and genetic origin.

As we talk of the different standpoints in defining Linguistic typology as a science we distinguish two major approaches:

- a) Linguistic typology is an independent science covering all types of comparison of language systems. In this sense Linguistic typology fully coincides with Comparative Linguistics;
- b) Linguistic typology is a part of Comparative Linguistics. It is opposed to traditional Comparative Historical Linguistics, Characterology and Areal linguistics. In that sense it coincides with Structural typology.

Quantitative limitation of the number of compared languages is of primary significance while defining the subject matter of Linguistic typology. There is no unanimity on that issue. Some scholars support unlimited number of compared languages aiming at identifying linguistic universals. They consider that the results of comparative study should tend for universality.

Other scholars assume that a limited number of genetically related languages should be compared. Finally the last group of scholars argue that the number can be

as minimum as 2 languages. The reason of all this ambiguity is in an unclear approach to the principles of classifying Linguistic typology into branches.

Yu.Rojdestvenskiy, V.Ghak, B.Uspenskiy contributed a lot to elaboration of subject matter of Linguistic typology.

The basis of Linguistic Typology is constituted by Structural Typology which has the following parts: 1) Typological Classification; 2) Linguistic Universals; 3) Etalon Language; 4) Typological Theory.

The general definition of Linguistic typology implies that it unites various types of comparison of language systems. Genetic, Areal and Typological comparisons built into 3 aspects of general comparison process. These methods do not contradict but complement each other.

The types of linguistic comparison can thus be illustrated as follows;

- 1) genetic/genealogical or historic comparison/reconstruction of common archi/pa- forms of genetically related languages. Special attention should
- 2) to pay closely and distantly related languages.
- 3) typological comparison of systems and sub-systems of languages: a) related; b) non-related; c) structurally similar; d) structurally non-similar.
- 3) Areal Linguistics: comparison of neighboring languages;
- 4) Dominant classification by Melnikov defining language types based on dominant features.⁵

The different classifications do not match each other and are not expected to, but the correlation between them is an important point for many linguistic research works. (There is a parallel to the classification of species in biological phylogenetics).

The task of genetic classification belongs to the field of historical-Comparative linguistics or linguistic typology.

The systems of vowel phonemes of English and Uzbek

From the acoustic point of view vowels are speech sounds of pure musical tone. 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 tembre (or quality) of voice, characteristic of the vowel in question.

In modern English we distinguish 21 vowel phonemes:

10 monophthongs

9 diphthongs

2 diphthongized vowels

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 tongue; c) according to the position of lips; d) according to quality (length) of vowels.

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

central [a: a], front [i:, i, e, a] and back [a, u, ʊ] vowels.

2. according to the height of the tongue into: close (high) [i:], [u:] medial [e, a:] and open [je, a:, ɛ:, ɔ:] vowels

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

3. according to vowel length the vowels may be divided into short; [i, a, u,] and long [i: a: u: a; a:] 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 lips vowels may be; rounded (or labialized) [u:, u:] and un-rounded (non-labialized) [e, a:] vowels.

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

The Systems of Consonant' phonemes in the English and Uzbek languages

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 by the following 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 as in accordance with it the parricidal 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.

The system of Uzbek consonant phonemes consists of 25 phonemes.

Some of the English consonants like [] 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 [K, X, F].

Many consonants have their counterparts in the languages compared, but they differ in their articulation.

Parts of Speech in the English and Uzbek languages

The word is known as the smallest naming unit of the language. According to Leonard Bloomfield⁸, *the 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 grammatical employment and is therefore simultaneously a semantic, grammatical and phonological 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 most 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 acknowledged opinions of grammarians. In order to make it easier to learn the language the grammarians usually divide the word-stock of the language into some subclasses called in linguistics "the parts of speech" or in other terminology "*the lexico-grammatical classes of words*".

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 and grammatical meanings, e.g. verbs denote process or state; nouns express the names of objects, adjectives their properties, etc.

1. What is typology as a method of scientific study?

- a) it is a characteristic to many fields of scientific knowledge
- b) it is a characteristic only to taxonomy
- c) it is a characteristic only to linguistics
- d) it is a characteristic only to phraseology

2. What are the two types of scientific comparison?

- a) substantial, non-substantial
- b) real, unreal
- c) specific, non-specific
- d) natural, unnatural

3. What does Comparative Pedagogy deal with?

a) general and distinctive features, development trends and prospective of theory, applied instruction and upbringing methods, reveals their economic, social political and philosophic backgrounds.

b) specific and distinctive features, development trends and prospective of theory, applied instruction and upbringing methods, reveals their economic, social political and philosophic backgrounds.

c) common and distinctive features, development trends and prospective of theory, applied instruction and upbringing methods, reveals their economic, social political and philosophic backgrounds.

d) special and distinctive features, development trends and prospective of theory, applied instruction and upbringing methods, reveals their economic, social political and philosophic backgrounds.

4. What does historical typology deal with?

a) analyses historic facts and produces comparative inventory based on the history of each nation/ethnicity to reveal general trends, differences and similarities.

b) analyses historic facts and produces comparative resolution based on the history of each nation/ethnicity to reveal general trends, differences and similarities.

c) analyses historic facts and produces comparative consequence based on the history of each nation/ethnicity to reveal general trends, differences and similarities.

d) realizes historic facts and produces comparative inventory based on the history of each nation/ethnicity to reveal general trends, differences and similarities.

5. What is the subject-matter of Linguistic Typology?

- a) Linguistic Typology is a branch of general linguistics .There is no unanimity in defining the subject-matter of linguistic typology
- b) Linguistic Typology is a branch of general statistics .There is no unanimity in defining the subject-matter of linguistic typology
- c) Linguistic Typology is a branch of general sociology .There is no unanimity in defining the subject-matter of linguistic typology
- d) Linguistic Typology is a branch of general phraseology .There is no unanimity in defining the subject-matter of linguistic typology

6. What was the contribution of Roman Jakobson to the definition of subject-matter of Linguistic Typology?

a) Roman Jakobson contributed to the definition of subject-matter of Linguistic typology stating that "Genetic method deals with relationship of languages, areal method deals with similarities while typological method deals with isomorphism".

b) Roman Jakobson contributed to the definition of subject-matter of Linguistic typology stating that "Linguistic method deals with relationship of languages, areal method deals with similarities while typological method deals with isomorphism"³.

c) Roman Jakobson contributed to the definition of subject-matter of Linguistic typology stating that "Specific method deals with relationship of languages, areal method deals with similarities while typological method deals with isomorphism"³.

7. What does The general definition of Linguistic typology imply?

a) It implies that it unites various types of comparison of language systems. Genetic, Areal and Typological comparisons built into 5 aspects of general comparison process.

b) It implies that it unites various types of comparison of language systems. Genetic, Areal and Typological comparisons built into 3 aspects of general comparison process.

c) It implies that it unites various types of comparison of language systems. Genetic, Areal and Typological comparisons built into 4 aspects of general comparison process.

d) It implies that it unites various types of comparison of language systems. Areal and Typological comparisons built into 3 aspects of general comparison process.

8. What are the main principles classifying words into parts of speech?

- a) form, meaning, function
- b) function, meaning, form
- c) form, function, meaning
- d) none of them

9. What is the word according to Leonard Bloomfield?

- a) *The word* is known as the smallest naming unit of the language.
- b) *The word* is known as the biggest naming unit of the language.
- c) *The word* is known as the one of units of the language.

10 What does General Typology bind as a method of scientific cognition?

- a) it binds non-linguistic and linguistic typologies
- b) only linguistic typologies
- c) both verbal and linguistic typologies
- d) none of them

Questions:

1. The subject of comparative typology and its aims.
2. The difference between typological and historic and comparative linguistics.
- 3 .Methods of comparative typological research.
4. Families of languages in the world today.
5. Language type and the type of languages.
6. Phonological classification of the languages.
7. Syntactical classification of languages
8. Synth and analytical languages

9. Notion of etalon language
10. Language universals and their kinds.

Lecture 2

Stages of Development of Linguistic typology

- 1. The History of Linguistic comparison.***
- 2. The Major factors fostering development of Linguistic typology.***
- 3. Discussion on different classifications/periodization of the history of Linguistic comparison and factors of its development***

In the beginning of its development Linguistic typology tried to respond the issue of what could serve the basis for classifying the languages into "more primitive" and "more developed". But very soon it became clear that this starting point was incorrect: it turned to be impossible to make a judgment on the level of development of a language basing on its typological characteristics. Absolutely different languages can fall into the same structural type, e.g. English or modern Chinese languages are perfectly developed and have the richest literature. Still they belong to the same type with the language of Tzin folks residing in the North of China and having no letter.

Moreover, one and the same language in the course of its development can several times change its structure. E.g. the history of French can be classified into early Indo-European and isolated, late Indo-European flexional, analytical mid-French, and practically isolated modern oral French.

The history of linguistic comparison

The questions of timing the history of linguistic comparison are quite complicated and are the ones which haven't yet found their final solution. The history of

linguistic comparison is an integral part of linguistic science development, history of linguistics per se which is in its turn bound with the history of nation and cognition.

Yet there are no generally accepted criteria for timing the history of development of linguistics.

In "**the** Essays on the History of Linguistics" by *Amirova T.A., Rojdestvenskiy Yu.V, Olkhovikov B.A.*" six periods are defined for the history of development of linguistics as a science. As all of them imply systemic comparison, this classification can be to a large extent applied to linguistic typology.

I.Theory of naming in Antique philosophy. It established the rules of naming in the frames of philosophy. It also looked at relations between the names and the objects of reality. There were 2 main schools of philosophers who supported opposite standpoints (analogists and anomalists) on the nature of names, (motivated and non-motivated names). As the theory of naming did not contain a specialized knowledge on language it was not included into general linguistics;

II. The Antique Grammar traditions of West and East. Theory of grammar emerged at this time. It describes language system through establishing relations between linguistic names (and some other parts of language). At this period the basic primary grammatical categories — parts of speech were distinguished and described: the names such as the noun (proper and common), the adjective; the numeral; the verb, the pronoun. Also some secondary grammatical categories, i.e. the categories of parts of speech were identified: the category of number, gender, case, mood, etc.

III.The Universal Grammar (the first period of scientific linguistics) reveals common features of language structures basing on the comparison of languages with different typological structure.

IV.Comparative linguistics. That period falls into 3 stages: a) Comparative -Historical linguistics dealing with the study of genetic similarities and relations of languages; b) Comparative Typological linguistics dealing with language study and identifying language types irrespectively of their cultural historic origin; c) theory of linguistics which forms philosophy of language and serves the basis of General linguistics.

V. System linguistics working with the language philosophy, basically with psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics.

VI. Structural linguistics which deals: a) study of the language internal structure, formulates between language and other sign systems; 2) elaborates the theory of linguistic methods and strategies thus creating basis for linguistic modeling .

Dr. Buranov J. identifies 4 periods in the history of typological studies: 1) Spontaneous or evolutionary. It begins with the emergence of the first linguistic works. That period was over not long before the Renaissance. In Ancient Greece the language was studied in the frames of philosophy. The major issue which was in the focus of discussion was correlation of substances to their names. Still already in the works of Protagoras and Aristotle there are statements related to distinguishing words, word combinations, linguistic categories like gender, case, number, definition of the sentence, classification of words into names and actions /parts of speech. These works served the basis for distinguishing linguistics into an independent science.

E.g. many scholars, while compiling grammars of separate languages used the models of the languages with already described grammatical structures. (The principle of analogy). For example, while compiling the first English grammars the models of Latin were widely used.

The first grammars for the European languages were based on the Latin Grammars.

The second period is characterized as a period of establishing the first scientific comparison of languages and this period is related to the General and Rational Grammar: Port-Royal Grammar by Arnauld A., Lancelot C.,¹⁴ (XVII c.) in Indo-European languages. Port-Royal Grammar can be considered one of the most precious contributions into development of Linguistic typology. It was developed by 2 French monks in the small abbey Port-Royal in the suburbs of Paris (published in 1660). It is the synthesis of linguistic and philosophic ideas of that time. The languages (French, Latin. Greek and ancient Jewish/ Ides) with different

genealogic origin and typological structure were compared basing on the criteria and principles elaborated by Arnauld A. and Lancelot C.

Comparative study of Turkic language has its own history. Divan-Lugat At-Turk by Mahmud Kashgariy is considered the most solid work on linguistic comparison of Turkic languages. Mahmud Kashgariy analyzed phonetic, grammatical and lexical units of a group of Turkic languages and defined the level of their genetic relation to each other. Further development of comparative study can be traced in appearance of glossaries and dictionaries, e.g. Turkic-Mongol-Persian dictionary-compiled in Egypt (1245), Latin-Persian Kypchak dictionary (Kumanikus Code, XII c), and other works. One of the most prominent work is the poem of Alisher Navoi "Muhokamatul ai-Lugatain" (Debate of two languages) written in 1499. Navoi compares lexical, grammatical and word building specificities of 2 genetically non-related languages: old Uzbek and Persian. Navoi reveals a number of language specificities of Uzbek which did not have direct correspondences in Persian, e.g. suffixes of reflexivity, reciprocity, causation, modality, comparativeness, etc.

The third period is related to development of comparative historical linguistics, genealogical and typological classification of languages, (mid- XIX c.)

Linguistic typology has been developing step by step using descriptive and comparative grammars. Thus Linguistic typology can be considered one of the most ancient but simultaneously the least developed branch of linguistics.

The Comparative Historical linguistics can be considered the next step of scientific comparison. The representatives of that field elaborated a complicated system of scientific tools for precise comparison and restoring the origins of languages on phonetic, and morphological levels. At that time the classic genealogical and typological classification of the majority of known languages of the world were developed by various authors.(brothers Shlegel, Sapir, etc.).

The Indo-European languages were studied by prominent scholars of the XIXth c. F. Bopp, J. Grimm, Carl Bruggman, F. Ditz, Rasmus Rask, A. Vostokov, F. Mis-telli, F.Fink, E. Sapir, Bodwen de Courtene, E.Polivanov, I. Meschaninov.

Since XVII c. the comparative study of Turkic languages was in the focus of the works of F. Tabbert-Stralenberg, O. Beotlikk, V. Radlov, M. Ryasyanen, G. Ramst-edt, N. Dmitriev and others.

The 4th period is related to establishing of Linguistic typology as a separate science with the bulk of General linguistics. It coincides with the XX century.

In the former Soviet Union the most developed and popular field of comparative study was comparison of Russian and national languages. The major material for comparison served numerous translations of Russian classics into national languages.

Lexicography has also got considerable development. At that time the first national grammars were compiled basing on the grammar of the Russian language, e.g. the first Uzbek Grammar by Evgeniy Polivanov" used the system of Russian grammar for description: system of parts of speech, cases, numbers, etc.

Major factors fostering development of Linguistic typology

The science of linguistic comparison was developing quite slowly and a number of factors played an important role to foster that process.

I. The first factor is typological imitation. It is the use of certain methods or models of one language while describing the system of another language. For example the first Latin grammar "De Lingua Latina" (117-27 BC) by Varron" was compiled with the use of the ancient Greek language grammars compiled by Greek philosophers. Varron distinguished six cases (5 in Latin), article and seven parts of speech.

The first English Grammars were later compiled on the model of "De Lingua Latina" where Latin served a meta or etalon language .

Also while studying certain categories of one language scholars very often use the models of more researched languages, e.g. the ancient Indian models of compound words are used to describe many European languages (dvandva, tat purusu, dvigu, etc.).

2. The second factor is the appearance of scientific comparative works. Language comparison started with comparison of two languages. Later there appeared multi language comparisons based on substantial similarity i.e. mainly genetically related languages or groups of languages were compared. The next stage was comparison of genetically non-related languages. Structural similarity is related to identity of structure and types of languages in the principles of their organization. Some languages have both genetic and structural identity. Usually these are genetically related languages.

Currently the most elaborated part of linguistic comparison is grammatical typology. Its component - morphological typology is based on the study of morphemic structure typical for certain languages. A more systemic comparison starts with the Port Royal Grammar where French, Latin, Greek and ancient Jewish/Ides languages were analyzed. The latter did not have material identity with the rest three languages. The Port Royal Grammar was extremely popular and gave an impetus to rapid development of comparative studies.

3. The third factor of development of comparative language studies is the study of unknown languages or the ones with no letter. There is an enormous bulk of research done on the material of folks and tribes of Latin America, Asia, Africa, Australia, Oceania. The process of study of these languages started with defining the level of their relationship to other, known languages and with the comparison of their systems with the Indo-European languages.

4. The fourth factor is the influence of the translation and translation science. Any process of translation deals with a kind of comparison of the language of origin and the language of translation. A translator needs to deal with comparison of the style, grammatical structure, etc.

5. The fifth factor is the influence of lexicography. The appearance of dictionaries was bound with applied need to transform and compare languages and national cultures. While compiling bi or multi lingual dictionaries a lexicographer conducts comparison of all levels of linguistic hierarchy: phonetic units, grammatical structure, lexical units, word formation, punctuation, etc.

6. The sixth factor is practical and theoretical study and teaching of foreign languages. While studying/ teaching a foreign language a learner/teacher very often goes for comparison of the units of his/her native language with the system of a foreign one.

1. Which languages are perfectly developed and have the richest literature?

- a) English, Chinese
- b) Japanese, Indonesian
- c) Malay, Portuguese
- d) Spanish, Romanian

2. What were the prominent scholars, who studied the Indo-European languages of the XIXth century?.

a) F. Bopp, J. Grimm, Carl Bruggman, F. Ditz, Rasmus Rask, A. Vostokov, F. Mis-telli, F.Fink, E. Sapir, Bodwen de Courtene, E.Polivanov, I. Meschaninov.

b) Carl Bruggman, F. Ditz, Rasmus Rask, A. Vostokov, F. Mis-telli, F.Fink, E. Sapir, Bodwen de Courtene, E.Polivanov, I. Meschaninov.

c) E. Sapir, Bodwen de Courtene, E.Polivanov, I. Meschaninov, J. Grimm, Carl Bruggman, F. Ditz, Rasmus Rask, F. Mis-telli, F.Fink,

d) F. Bopp, J. Grimm, Carl Bruggman, F. Ditz, Rasmus Rask, A. Vostokov, F. Mis-telli, Sapir, Bodwen de Courtene, E.Polivanov, I. Meschaninov.

3. What is a typological limitation?

- a) it is the use of certain methods or models of one language while describing the system of a unique language
- b) it is the use of certain methods or models of one language while describing the system of another language
- c) it is the use of certain methods or models of one language while describing the system of a specific language
- d) it is the use of specific methods or models of one language while describing the system of another language

4. What is currently the most elaborated part of linguistic comparison?

- a) grammatical typology.
- b) phonetic category
- b) linguistic category
- d) lexicological category

5. What is the second factor of scientific comparative works?

- a) their appearance
- b) their presence
- c) their reality
- d) their behaviorism

6. What does the Universal Grammar reveal?

- a) common features of language structures basing on the comparison of languages
- b) specific features of language structures basing on the comparison of languages
- c) general features of language structures basing on the comparison of languages

d) non- unanimity features of language structures basing on the comparison of languages

7. What does system linguistics work with?

a) it works with the language philosophy, basically with psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics

b) it works with the language philosophy, basically with phraseology and lexicology

c) it works with the language grammar, basically with phraseology and lexicology

d)) it works with the language phonetics, basically with psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics

8. What does structural linguistics deal with?

a) study of the language internal structure

b) study of the language deep structure

c) study of the language external structure

9. How many periods does J. Buranov identify in the history of typological studies?

a) 1

b) 3

c) 4

d) 11

10. What is the contribution of Port Royal Grammar into the development of Linguistic Typology?

a) a great contribution

b) there is no contribution

c) this is one of the most precious contributions

d) specific contribution

Questions:

1. Typology of the vowel system in the lang-s compared. Oppositions in the system of vowels.
2. Typology of the consonant system in the lang-s compared.
3. isomorphism & allomorphy in the system of speech tones in English
4. Constants for typological analysis in the sphere of lexicology.
5. Types of motivation.
6. Typology of expressive and neutral lexicon in English
7. Affixation in the languages compared.
8. Morphological constants for typological analysis.
9. Typology and parts of speech

10. The category of gender of nouns in the languages compared.

Lecture 3

Major Parameters identifying the Branches of Linguistic typology

The scholars who contributed to elaboration of major parameters of Linguistic typology are Roman Jakobson, Vazlav Skalichka, Joseph Greenberg, Boris Uspenskiy, Yuri Rojdestvenskiy, Vladimir Ghak, etc.

- I. System/Structural identity
- II. Genetic identity
- III. Quantitative limitation/non-limitation
- IV. Areal limitation
- V. Etic/emic identity
- VI. Deep and Surface identity**
- VII. One level approach to comparison**
- VIII. Cross-level approach to comparison
- IX. Content approach
- X. Formal approach
- XI. Limitation of ctalon language
- XII. Completion of typological operations.

I. *System/Structural identity* implies identity of language types. Here we should distinguish between type of language and type in language.

a) The type of language is related to structural/typological classification of languages is meant. The most popular classification of language types includes: agglutinating, flexional, isolative and polysynthetic languages. These types are identified based on the unity of leading structural features;

b) The type IN language is related to the structural features typical for a certain language. E.g. the degree of synthetism/analytism of grammatical forms, presence of phonetic changes (fusion (neib - neicy), agglutination inclusion/ exclusion of grammatical morphemes.

c) II. *The Genetic identity* means historically conditioned material identity of cross language elements characterized by both etic and emic identity (mother (Eng) Muter (Germ); ona (uzb.) - ene (Azer); of the same group of Turkic languages.

III. *Quantitative limitation* of compared languages: a) maximal limitation (2 languages); b) Minimal limitation (open list of languages); c) limitation by a certain language type (e.g. by agglutination in Turkish and Hungarian languages); d) limitation by geographic location; e) by a certain type of linguistic universal, etc.

IV. *Areal limitation/non-limitation* looks at the expansion of a certain linguistic phenomenon which is geographically conditioned (Centum and Satem languages, study of dialects, sub-stratum and super-stratum languages).

V. *Etic/emic identity*. Etic identity means coincidence of material units.

VI. *Deep and surface identity*.

Surface structure includes all material units of a language. Surface structure units may belong to different levels of hierarchy. For example, English category of definiteness may be expressed by articles and demonstrative pronouns.

Deep structure is a generalized language meaning lying in the basis of compared languages. Deep structure maybe of three types: a) minimal or internal language structure; b) typological deep structure, c) maximal deep stricture.

Minimal deep structure characterizes the units of content plan of a separate language. Each language has its own categorial notions, e.g. categories of definiteness/indefiniteness, transitiveness, etc. which constitute a deep structure of that particular language. In such category as definiteness/indefiniteness in Turkic languages is not expressed by articles, while in German, Romanic and other languages the article is very important.

Typological deep structure is characteristic to the groups of genetically or structurally related languages.

This deep structure may be sub-divided into two types: a) typological deep structure with etic-emic organized surface, b) typological deep structure with emic organized surface.

Typological deep structure is with etic-emic organized surface correlates with Genetic typology and is typical for closely related languages. Substantial or etic correspondence at the same time stipulates emic conformity. But we should say that not every language of the same genetic group can have maximal coincidence of the surface structure units. For example, modern German languages stay far from each other in material conformity. Regarding modern Turkic languages there is a lot of material/substantial conformity.

On the basis of etic-emic organization in every language family or language group special areal groups are distinguished.

b) An example typological deep structure with emic organized identity: typological classification based on level coincidence (agglutination, fusion, isolation).

Maximal deep structure is a common deep structure peculiar to several language types: e.g. analytism /synthetism

1. *One level approach to comparison or level isolation.* It is effective when comparing closely related languages which have similar level means to express the same categorial notion. E.g. Morpheme of plurality: Uzb -Jiap, flap, Tap, Hap; refer to the same morphological level.

2. *Cross-level approach* is opposed to level isolation and used to identify cross-level correspondences. For example, how can we compare the category of reflexivity of English and Russian when English does not have a grammatical category of reflexivity.

In such cases other level units are used to find correspondences (e.g. self pronouns, etc.)

3. *Content approach to comparison* is used in case of notional, typological categories, lexical-grammatical fields, etc. when common categorial meaning serves as a base of identification and comparison.

4. *Formal approach to comparison* is related to comparison of language units of the formal level: graphics, transcription, formal structure of syllabus and sentence, punctuation, alphabet, etc.

5. *Limitation of etalon language.* Etalon language is the object of study for of typological theory. It represents all languages of the world in one language for example, dealing with purposes, scholars distinguish two types of etalon language maximum and minimum(1) is used to identify linguistic universals: grammatical or lexical category, a phenomenon of certain features of a language might serve etalon or instrument for comparison of compiling languages, therefore it appears the term *meta-language*.⁹

6. *Completion of typological operations.* Any typological operation undergoes two steps: a) synthesis b) correspondence of typological operation may be complete or limited/unlimited. Limitation is possibly to be applied in different languages considering the levels of hierarchy, etc. It mainly depends on the

purposes of comparison and research.

In both languages there is a possibility to express age on the morphological level, but in English morpheme -ies cannot be used with any other morpheme while in Uzbek other morphemes can be added to -lar, thus showing that English refers to inflexional languages according to its structure and Uzbek is an agglutinating language. The above example illustrates structural non-identity of compared languages.

In genetically closely related languages etic and emic identity is observed as is seen in the above table, while etic non-identity is observed in genetically non-related languages.

In Turkic languages there is both etic and emic identity (-lar -ler) are used as morphemes of plurality.

If compare the Turkic and English languages, there is no identity on the etic level (the level of material units of the language), but there is an identity on the emic level as in both languages plurality is expressed by the inflexional morphemes.

d Examples of One level and Cross-level approach to comparison of categorial notion of gender in Russian/Uzbek and English languages.

When comparing the Russian and English, or Russian and Uzbek languages using one level approach, in particular, isolate the morphological level, it will be impossible as there is no grammatical category of gender both in English and in Uzbek. But it becomes possible to compare Russian/Uzbek and English if we apply the cross-level approach to comparison and go up to the lexical, lexical-grammatical and or syntactic levels of linguistic hierarchy.

e. Examples of Content and Formal approach to comparison of English and Uzbek/Russian languages 1) the system of alphabets 2) the notion of color in compared languages.

e. 1. When comparing the system of alphabets, formal approach is utilized as the alphabets refer to the units of expression plan of the languages.

There are 26 letters in English ABC inclusive of 6 vowels and 20 consonants.

There are 33 letters in Russian ABC inclusive of 11 vowels and 22 consonants.

e.2. When comparing such notions as *colour* it is feasible to base on the content plan and compare such languages as English and Russian/Uzbek going from meaning (color in this case) to the forms of its expression in the compared languages, thus using content approach.

In all the three compared languages color can be expressed on lexical and syntactic levels. For example.

Only in Uzbek the morphological way of formation of color is used, in particular, repetition: qip-qizil, ko'm-ko'k, yam-yashil, etc.

/ Examples on the complete typological operation where the meta/etalon language of comparison is the category of number in Turkic languages (Uzbek, Kazakh, Kyrgyz, etc.)

1. What does system, structural identity imply?

- a) identity of language types
- b) identity of language elements
- c) identity of language specifications
- d) identity of language rules

2. What is the type of language related to?

- a) real, typological differences
- b) structural, typological differences
- c) specific, typological differences

d) structural, typological similarities

3. What is “Genetic identity”?

- a) a language
- b) a system
- c) material identity
- d) cross-language elements

4. What is “etic, emic identity”?

- a) coincidence of material units
- b) absence of material units
- c) presence of material units
- d) relationship of material units

5. What does “surface structure” include?

- a) it includes all material units of a language.
- b) it includes specific details of the language
- c) it shows the relations of subjects
- d) it shows the specific nature

6. What does the minimal deep structure characterize?

- a) it characterizes the units of content plan
- b) it characterizes all aspects of lesson
- c) it characterizes specific elements
- d) it does not characterize any details

7. What does typological deep structure deal with?

- a) it deals with grammar of the language
- b) it deals with phonetics of the language
- c) it deals with lexicology of the language
- d) it deals with groups of genetically or structurally related languages.

8. What is the formal approach to comparison related to?

a) it is related to comparison of language units of the formal level: graphics, transcription, formal level of syllabus and sentence, punctuation, alphabet, etc.

b) it is related to comparison of language units of the formal level: graphics, transcription, formal structure of syllabus and sentence, punctuation, alphabet, etc.

c) it is related to comparison of language units of the formal level: graphics, transcription, formal structure of syllabus and sentence, punctuation, alphabet, etc.

d) it is related to comparison of language units of the formal level: graphics, transcription, formal structure of syllabus and sentence, punctuation, alphabet, etc.

9. What is “etalon language”?

a) it is the object of study for typological theory

b) it is the object of study for linguistic theory

c) it is the object of study for phraseological theory

10. Which of them belongs to the completion of typological operations?

a) synthesis

b) paradigm

c) hypothesis

d) antithesis

Questions

1. Isomorphic and allomorphic features

2. Paradigmatic (morphological) classes of word-groups
3. Syntactic processes and syntactic relations in English
4. The homogeneous parts of the sentence
5. Expression of impersonal meanings in the languages compared.
6. Typology of the simple sentence in the contrasted languages.
7. Typology of the complex sentence
8. Compound Sentences in Languages compared
9. The difference between typological and historic and comparative linguistics.
10. Methods of comparative typological research.

Lecture 4

1. Genetic/Genealogical Typology:

- a. Genetic diachronic***
- b. Genetic synchronic***
- c. distinctive features of Genetic Typology***

2. Areal Typology

Subject - matter and distinctive features of Areal Typology

3. Exercises on defining types of themes studied in the frames of Genetic and Areal Typology

Genetic/Genealogical typology

Genealogical typology is a branch of linguistic typology which studies the similarities and diversities of related languages. Genealogical typology developed from the Comparative - Historical linguistics which dominated during the 19th century in Europe. It started with the works of Jacob Grimm, Franz Bopp, Rasmus Rask, Alexander Vostokov, V.M.Jirmunskiy, etc.

Its origin was stipulated by 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 sisterhood of familiar European languages:

e.g. Sanskrit «mata» means «mother», in the accusative case «matarum»

Dvau-two, Trayah - three

As ti - he is, etc.

Before the discovery of Sanskrit European linguistics possessed a very vague vision of the origin of languages and similarities observed among European languages as the current grammars of that time were built on the Greek model. They didn't set clearly the features of each language. It is worth to mention that at the same time discovery of Sanskrit brought a certain confusion to the notions of linguistic relations. But later it gave way to the correct explanation, namely Latin, Greek and other European languages go back to the same pre-historical language, Sanskrit. Genetic Typology compares the systems of languages in two ways: *diachronically and synchronically*.

Comparison of languages gave grounds for the two kinds of classification of languages - genealogical and morphological/structural.

Traditional Comparative Historical Linguistics studied material units of languages: sounds, affixes, words in their dynamics and dealt with reconstruction of selected units in compared languages.

Genetic typology has the following distinctive features:

- a) genetic limitation of compared languages;
- b) system identity in closely related languages;
- c) closed list of compared languages;

- d) areal non-limitation;
- e) etic/emic identity of compared languages;
- f) deep and surface identity of compared languages;
- g) one level approach to comparison; h) limited etalon language;
- i) possibility of a complete typological operation.

Genealogical classification of languages²¹

*The Genealogical/Genetic classification deals with the family relationship of languages which descend from one common ancestor language. It distributes languages into different families and groups of related languages. According to Genetic classification the world's languages have been grouped into families of languages that are believed to have common ancestors. Some of the major families are the **Indo-European languages, the Afro-Asiatic languages, the Austronesian languages, and the Sino-Tibetan languages.***

The shared features of languages from one family can be due to shared ancestry.

We find that languages are related to each other both in the material they possess (words etc.) as well as in the method by which they express themselves (syntax). It seems that the languages of one group are all traceable to a 'common ancestor', and that each has varied according to the environment in which it found itself. Thus the obvious similarity what are known as the Aryan languages of India points to such a common ancestry. Similarly English, German, Dutch and Danish are traceable to another such common ancestor and so also French, Italian and Spanish to a third common ancestor. Going one step further back, we can trace each three ancestors to a type which was, in turn, the ancestor of all these three and that ancestor is known as 'Indo-European family'. This classification is clearly explained by the term "Genealogical classification of languages".

Indo-European family is important for understanding historical linguistic method as well as for knowledge of the interrelationship of the world's most widely known and spoken languages. Moreover, because of the political and economic role of the

speaker using languages belonging to it. The Indo-European family is probably the most important and the most widely used today. The Indo-European languages are divided into two main groups known as 'Centum' and 'Satem' groups. This two-fold division was formulated by Ascoli first; it was thought that this division marked out the Western and the Eastern languages. *The Eastern languages are labeled as 'Satem' and the Western as 'Centum'.*

The essential Indian material is contained in the Rigveda, a collection of hymns which is as large as Iliad and Odyssey combined. As Rigveda and other vedas were considered sacred, they were memorized and transmitted orally for many generations. The language of vedas became obsolete and difficult to interpret. Their devotees prepared commentaries. Among these were grammarians which informed later generation of priests how to interpret hymns, even how to pronounce them. The result of such linguistic analysis was a standardized language, so completely described and regulated [Sanskrit] that it underwent few further changes. This Sanskrit is known to us as Sanskrit which is dated several centuries before 400 BC with its greatest grammarian Panini. Because of its religious associations, Sanskrit is in daily use today. Besides Sanskrit there existed spoken languages called Prakrit, Prakrits. Moreover, the classical works of Indian literature were composed in Sanskrit such as "Ramayana" and "Mahabharata". We have three stages of "Indian-vedic Sanskrit, the language of approximately 1200-800 BC; the classical Sanskrit, succeeding it and standardized approximately 400 BC and the Prakrits. Vedic and classical Sanskrit are often referred to as Old Indian, and the Prakrits as Middle Indian which may date about 400 BC to 1000 AD. The Middle Indian dialect on which we have most information is Pali; the language in which Buddhist canon is preserved. At the end of the Middle Indian period we have materials known as Apabhramas meaning 'off-branching'. From Apabhramas developed the modern Indian dialects. Most widely spoken of these is Hindi. Others are Urdu, Bengali, Gujarati, Marathi, Punjabi, Sinhalese in Ceylon and Romany, the language of Gypsies.

1. IRANIAN: The Iranian materials are as old as Iran itself dated by 300 BC and are handed down to us in two dialects - Avestan and Old Persian. The Avesta is the sacred book of Zoroastrian religion. Its oldest poems are Gaoas, which are dated by 600 BC and are as archaic in language as those of Rigveda. This materials are mainly represented by Darius (521-486 BC) and Xerxes (486-465 BC). The inscriptions of the greatest importance are a long triangular text in Old Persian, Akkadian and Elamite, which were chiseled on a stone cliff at Behistan, Iran. Middle Iranian may be dated approximately from 300 BC to 900 AD. Its various representatives are attested. Middle Persian or Pahlavi was the language of the Persian empire from AD 300 to 900. Sogdian in the further east and Saka or Sarmatian in the north were spoken, and are not completely described these days.

Various Iranian languages are still in use at present such as Balochi of West Pakistan, Pashto or Afghan, the official language of Afghanistan, Persian, the language of Iran, Kurdish, a language of Western Iran and Turkey, Ossetic in the northern Caucasus and various others. In many other areas Iranian languages have been displaced by Turkic dialects. Since the dialects of two groups are spoken in much of Southern Asia, Indo-Iranian has remained one of the most prominent sub-groups in the Indo-European family.

1. ARMENIAN: Until the 5th century AD we have no materials on Armenian language. The territory of Armenia was identified in the Southern Caucasus and Western Turkey. The oldest Armenian materials are almost exclusive translations of Christian writings. The language of these texts is known as known as Old or Classical Armenian, which was maintained until the 19th century.

The Modern Armenian language family exists in two branches: the Eastern, spoken in the former USSR and Iran, the western one was mainly spoken on the territory of Turkey.

Armenian has been heavily influenced by other languages, mainly Iranian and until 19th century there was doubt whether it should be classed or not as an Iranian dialect.

3. ALBANIAN: The early history of Albanian is even more adequate. Before 1685, when a Latin-Albanian dictionary was compiled, we had a few materials on this particular topic. This dictionary was followed by religious translations and collection of folk in the 19th century. There are two dialects - Geg in the north and Tosk in the south. Like Armenian, Albanian has undergone many changes influenced by Latin, Greek, Slavic and Turkish. It has been considered as a modern representative of Illyrian or Thracian.

4.BALTO SLAVIC: This group consists of two large sub-groups - Baltic and Slavic. Three principal languages make up the Baltic group - Old Prussian, Lithuanian and Latvian or Lettish. Old Prussian is extinct today but Lithuanian and Latvian are still spoken along the southern coast of the Baltic sea.

5.The SLAVIC language family is spoken today and classified into three groups: South, West and East Slavic. South Slavic comprises Bulgarian, Serbo-Croatian and Slovenian. West Slavic comprises Czech, Slovak, Polish and Wendish; while East Slavic comprises Great Russian, White Russian and Ukrainian.

Centum group Centum splits into two main groups: Brythonic and Goidelic, the former represented by (a) Welsh (b) Cornish (no longer spoken) (c) Breton and the latter by (a) Irish (b) Gaelic and (e) Manx.

6. Then we have **GERMANIC** which includes (a) Gothic (b) North Germanic represented by Icelandic, Danish, Norwegian and Swedish, and (c) West Germanic represented by English, Frisian, Low German, Dutch and High German.

It also includes an Italian, Umbrian and Oscan languages. The modern Roman languages - French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese and Romanian - are derived from the Lingua Romantica of the Roman family. Though there are few speakers of

Greek or Hellenic today, it divides itself into -Attic, Ionic, Doric and Aeolic. Modern Greek is equally rich in dialects.

7. ANATOLIAN consists of three principal languages Hittite, Luwian and Lydian. Among them the most important is Hittite, since there is a large number of documents some dating back as far as 1300 BC; Luwian and Lydian are attested in only few inscriptions.

8. The TOCHARIAN languages, which are found in texts unearthed in Central Asia, are attested in the seventh century AD. It has two dialects labeled as A and B -Agnean or East Tocharian for Tocharian A, Kuchean or West Tocharian for Tocharian B. One of the remarkable features of Tocharian is the preservation of palatals as "K" before back vowels. There was no information preserved on the provenance of the speakers of Tocharian.

The languages of Africa

Greenberg is widely known for his development of a new classification system of the languages of Africa, which he published as a series of articles in the *South-western Journal of Anthropology* from 1949 to 1954 (reprinted together as a book in 1955) and, in a heavily revised form, in 1963, followed by a nearly identical edition in 1966 (reprinted without change in 1970). A few further changes to the classification were made by Greenberg in his article in 1981.

Greenberg grouped the hundreds of African languages into just four families, which he dubbed Afroasiatic, Nilo-Saharan, Niger-Congo and Khoisan. In the course of this work, Greenberg coined the term "Afroasiatic" to replace the earlier term "Hamito-Semitic" after showing that Hamitic, widely accepted since the 19th century, is not a valid language family. Another major feature of his work was to classify the Bantu languages, which occupy much of sub-Saharan Africa, not as an independent language family but as a branch of the newly identified Niger-Congo family.

Greenberg's classification rested in part on earlier classifications, making new macrogroups by joining already established families through mass comparison. His classification was for a time considered very bold and speculative, especially the proposal of a Nilo-Saharan language family, but is now generally accepted by African specialists and has been used as a basis for further work by other scholars.

Greenberg's work on African languages has been criticized by Lyle Campbell and Donald Ringe, who do not feel that his classification is justified by his data and a request of re-examination of his macro-phyla by "reliable methods" (Ringe 1993:104). Even Harold Fleming and Lionel Bender, who are sympathetic to Greenberg's classification, acknowledge that at least some of his macrofamilies (particularly Nilo-Saharan and Khoisan) are not fully accepted by the linguistic community and may need to be split up (Campbell 1997). Neither Campbell nor Ringe is an African specialist. Their objection is methodological: if mass comparison is not a valid method, it cannot have successfully brought order out of the chaos of African languages.

In contrast, some linguists have sought to combine Greenberg's four African families into larger units. In particular, Edgar Gregersen (1972) proposed joining Niger-Congo and Nilo-Saharan into a larger family, which he termed Kongo-Saharan, while Roger Blench (1995) suggests Niger-Congo is a subfamily of Nilo-Saharan.

The languages of New Guinea, Tasmania and the Andaman Islands.

In 1971 Greenberg proposed the Indo-Pacific macrofamily, which groups together the Papuan languages (a large number of language families of New Guinea and nearby islands) with the native languages of the Andaman Islands and Tasmania but excludes the Australian Aboriginal languages. Its principal feature was to reduce the manifold language families of New Guinea to a single genetic unit, with the exception of the Austronesian languages spoken there, which are known to result from a more recent migration. Greenberg's subgrouping of these languages has not been accepted by the few specialists who have worked on the classification of these languages since, in particular Stephen Wurm (1982) and

Malcolm Ross (2005), but their work has provided considerable support for his once-radical idea that these languages form a single genetic unit. Wurm stated that the lexical similarities between Great Andamancse and the West Papuan and Timor-Alor families "are quite striking and amount to virtual formal identity in a number of instances", but considered this to be due to a linguistic substratum.

The languages of the Americas

Americanist linguists classify the native languages of the Americas into two language families spoken in parts of North America, Eskimo-Aleut and Na-Dene, and some 600 to 2,000 language families (Diamond 1997:368) that occupy the rest of North America and all of Central and South America. Early on, Greenberg (1957:41. 1960) became convinced that many of the reportedly unrelated languages could be classified into larger groupings. In his 1987 book *Language in the Americas*, while supporting the Eskimo-Aleut and Na-Dene groupings, he proposed that all the other Native American languages belong to a single language family. He termed this postulated family Amerind.

Language in the Americas was greeted with a firestorm of criticism. Even before the work had appeared in print, Lyle Campbell, an Americanist, called for it to be "shouted down" (1986). A virtual who is an Americanist is lined up against Amerind. The criticisms are directed not so much toward the classification, but primarily to the method of mass comparison used to establish it, which the majority of historical linguists consider inherently unreliable; and toward the large number of errors that have been shown to be present in the sources used by Greenberg, such as wrong or non-existent words, incorrect translations, words attributed to the wrong languages, and unsupported or wrong identification of prefixes and suffixes.

The languages of Northern Eurasia

Later in his life, Greenberg proposed that nearly all of the language families of northern Eurasia belong to a single higher-order family, which is called Eurasiatic.

The only exception was Yeniseian, which has been related to a wider Dene-Caucasian grouping also including Sino-Tibetan, and most recently to the Na-Dene languages of North America in a Dene-Yeniseian family by Edward Vajda.

The Eurasiatic grouping resembles the older Nostratic groupings of Holger Pedersen and Vladislav Illich Svitych in including Indo-European, Uralic, and Altaic, but differs from them in including Japanese, Korean, and Ainu (which the Nostraticists excluded from comparison only for the methodological reason that they are single languages rather than language families) and in excluding Afroasiatic. At about this time of Russian Nostraticists, notably Sergei Starostin, constructed a revised version of Nostratic which was slightly broader than Greenberg's grouping but which similarly left out Afroasiatic.

Recently, however, a consensus has been emerging among proponents of the Nostratic hypothesis. Greenberg in fact basically agreed with the Nostratic concept, though he stressed a deep internal division between its northern 'tier' (his Eurasiatic) and a southern 'tier' (principally Afroasiatic and Dravidian). The American Nostraticist Allan Bomhard considers Eurasiatic a branch of Nostratic alongside other branches: Afroasiatic, Elamo-Dravidian, and Kartvelian. Similarly, Georgiy Starostin (2002) arrives at a tripartite overall grouping: he considers Afroasiatic, Nostratic and Elamite to be roughly equidistant and more closely related to each other than to anything else. Sergei Starostin's school has now re-included Afroasiatic in a broadly defined Nostratic, while reserving the term Eurasiatic to designate the narrower sub-grouping which comprises the rest of the macrofamily. Recent proposals thus differ mainly on the precise placement of Dravidian and Kartvelian.

Areal Typology

The Areal typology is one of the independent branches of linguistic typology, which compares language systems and studies the degree of expansion and proximity of language properties which are geographically conditioned.

According to V.G. Ghak this part of Linguistic typology "compares languages irrespectively of the degree of their relatedness and aims at defining general elements formed as a result of mutual influence of languages and the cultures staying behind them".

Like the Genetic typology the Areal typology operates with special systems or models with the help of which an Areal typology is different from other languages clarified.

The representatives of this school are Roman Jakobson, and V.G. Ghak. Objects of study include borrowings, bi-lingual features, dialects, centum/satem languages, compiling dialectal maps, sub-stratum and super-stratum languages, neologisms, archaisms, hybrid languages, language contacts, etc.

An Areal closeness of related languages can determine an expansion of different properties in the systems of a more limited group of related languages. The Areal typology studies dialects and restrictions of dissemination of separate features in the systems of related and non-related languages, confluence of different languages, etc. Language contacts present a special interest in definite area of governance of hybrid languages.

One of the problems is defining the nature of variants of English(in Scotland, Ireland, USA, Asia) and also a study of hybrid languages such as Pidgin English(in China, Australia, Hawaii Islands), Kroatian English and many others.

The major parameters of Areal typology are the following:

- Indifference to structural/system identity;
- Indifference to genetic identity;
- Areal limitation of compared languages;
- Possibility of etic-emic identity;
- Formal approach to comparison;
- Limited etalon language;
- Possibility of deep and surface identity;

- One level approach; etic/emic identity
- Possibility of complete typological operations

Areal classification of languages

The following language groupings can serve as some linguistically significant examples of areal linguistic units, or "sprachbunds": Balkan linguistic union, or the bigger group of European languages; Caucasian languages; East Asian languages. Although the members of each group are not closely genetically related, there is a reason for them to share similar features, namely: their speakers have been in contact for a long time within a common community and the languages "converged" in the course of the history. These are called "areal features".

Uzbek dialects

The Uzbek language is a member of the Turkic language subfamily of the Altaic family, spoken in Uzbekistan, eastern Turkmenistan, northern and western Tadjikistan, southern Kazakhstan, northern Afghanistan, and northwestern China.

Uzbek is the native language of the Uzbeks, spoken in Uzbekistan and other Central Asian states. Uzbek belongs to the South Eastern (Central Asian) group of Turkic languages. The dialects of the modern spoken language have been influenced by some diverse dialect groups such as Karluk, Kipchak and Oguz. Uzbek dialects are conventionally divided according to phonetic features into two groups: the "O" group, which includes the dialects of such cities as Tashkent, Samarkand, Bukhara, and the surrounding regions; and the "A" group, which is divided into two subgroups according to the use of the initial consonants.²⁴

The modern Uzbek literary language is based on the Tashkent-Fergana "O" dialect group. An old Uzbek literary language had emerged by the 13th century (by the 15th or 16th cc. according to some scholars); opinion is divided on its definition and designation. Uzbek phonology is marked by the absence of long vowels in word initial position. Secondary length results from the loss of consonant assimilated into vowels. Certain vowels may be lengthened for emphasis. The

main dialects are lack of synonymic, harmonic vowel alternation and division of affixes into front and back. The grammatical structure of Uzbek, which is common with all Turkic languages is agglutinative.

Uzbek was written in Arabic script until 1927 and in the Latin alphabet from 1927 to 1940, when the Cyrillic alphabet was introduced. Since the mid-90's, Latin has again been adopted as the official alphabet.

In Uzbek roughly two main dialect groups can be distinguished. One includes the southern, or Iranized, dialects (Tashkent, Bukhara, Samarkand) and the semi-Iranized dialects (Fergana, Kokand), which owes to the influence of the Tajik language, have been modified by the typical Turkic features of vowel harmony. The other group comprises the northern Uzbek dialects in southern Kazakhstan and several dialects in the region.

The Uzbek language has many dialects, varying widely from region to region. However, there is a commonly combined dialect, which is used in mass media and in most printed material.

Among the best known dialects are the Afghan dialect; the Ferghana dialect; the Khorezm dialect; the Chimkent-Turkestan dialect; and the Surkhandarya dialect

1. Northern Russian dialect with Belorussian influences
2. Sloboda and Steppe dialects of Ukrainian language
3. Steppe dialect of Ukrainian with Russian influences

Despite leveling after 1900, especially in matters of vocabulary, a number of dialects exist in Russia. Some linguists divide the dialects of the Russian language into two primary regional groupings, "Northern" and "Southern", with Moscow lying on the zone of transition between the two. Some others divide the language into three groupings, Northern, Central and Southern, with Moscow lying in the Central region. Dialectology within Russia recognizes dozens of smaller-scale variants. The dialects often show distinct and non-standard features of

pronunciation and intonation, vocabulary and grammar. Some of these are relics of ancient usage now completely discarded by the standard language.

The northern Russian dialects and those spoken along the Volga River typically pronounce unstressed /o/ clearly (the phenomenon called *okanye/oKam.e*). East of Moscow, particularly in Ryazan Region, unstressed *Id* and /a/ following palatalized consonants and preceding a stressed syllable are not reduced (like in the Moscow dialect), being instead pronounced *Id* in such positions and many southern dialects have a palatalized final *M* in 3rd person forms of verbs (this is an unpalatalized sound in the standard dialect) and a fricative where the standard dialect has [r]. However, in certain areas south of Moscow, e.g. in and around Tula, *IvI* is pronounced as in the Moscow and northern dialects unless it precedes a voiceless plosive or a pause. In this position /r;/ is lenited and devoiced to the fricative [x], e.g. (drug) (in Moscow's dialect).

The city of Veliky Novgorod has historically displayed a feature called *chokanye/ tsokanye*, where /tS;/ and /ts/ were confused. Among the first to study Russian dialects was Lomonosov in the eighteenth century. In the nineteenth, Vladimir Dal compiled the first dictionary that included dialectal vocabulary. Detailed mapping of Russian dialects began at the turn of the twentieth century. In modern times, the monumental Dialectological Atlas of the Russian Language, was published in three folio volumes 1986-1989, after four decades of preparatory work.

Most Russians can easily understand any of dialects of the native language, unlike Chinese or Indians. The standard language is based on (but not identical to) the Moscow dialect.

Major differences of the British (BE) and American English

As it is well known, the presence of common dialectal basis for literary language in Great Britain provides a much more solid basis for unification of its pronunciation norms.

In the USA there is no common pronunciation basis which could be considered as a normative one (Hans Kurath, 1961) and there are no grounds to assume that in future residents of Virginia will tend to imitate New Yorkers in their pronunciation, or residents of Detroit will orient to Boston citizens.

As one of vivid characteristic differences of BE and AE is assimilated (dj) and (tS) instead of (d) and (t): in "cordial¹" and "don't you". Also the retroflex (r) in pre-consonant and final positions, though in New York it is not characteristic.

Graphic differences include omission of non-pronounced graphs like in "lite" (light), "rite" (right), etc.

Morphological differences include, but are not limited to: "Gotten" in AE instead of "got" in BE: "You never would have gotten anything like this in Paris"

"proved/proven", "sweat/sweated"

Past Simple is much more often used in AE instead of Present Perfect which is more traditional for BE.

"Will" for all persons while "shall" is used mainly with the meaning of modality.

Lexical differences are of various character: they may be divergent when the words differ in their meaning while coincide in their form:

"faculty" – A.E. University teacher

"dresser" A.E. - a toilet table, "kitchen board" in B.E.

grocer's shop

W.C. washing room - Lady's room, men's room

Check -bill, Luggage -baggage, etc.

1. What does the general definition of Linguistic typology imply?

a) It implies that it unites various types of comparison of language systems. Genetic, Areal and Typological comparisons built into 5 aspects of general comparison process.

b) It implies that it unites various types of comparison of language systems. Genetic, Areal and Typological comparisons built into 3 aspects of general comparison process.

c) It implies that it unites various types of comparison of language systems. Genetic, Areal and Typological comparisons built into 4 aspects of general comparison process.

d) It implies that it unites various types of comparison of language systems. Areal and Typological comparisons built into 3 aspects of general comparison process.

2. What are the main principles classifying words into parts of speech?

- e) form, meaning, function
- f) function, meaning, form
- g) form, function, meaning
- h) none of them

3. What is the word according to Leonard Bloomfield?

- a) *The word* is known as the smallest naming unit of the language.
- b) *The word* is known as the biggest naming unit of the language.
- c) *The word* is known as the one of units of the language.

4 What does General Typology bind as a method of scientific cognition?

- e) it binds non-linguistic and linguistic typologies
- f) only linguistic typologies
- g) both verbal and linguistic typologies
- h) none of them

5. What is a typological limitation?

- c) it is the use of certain methods or models of one language while describing the system of a unique language
- b) it is the use of certain methods or models of one language while describing the system of another language
- c) it is the use of certain methods or models of one language while describing the system of a specific language

d) it is the use of specific methods or models of one language while describing the system of another language

6. What is currently the most elaborated part of linguistic comparison?

- a) grammatical typology.
- b) phonetic category
- d) linguistic category
- d) lexicological category

7. What is the second factor of scientific comparative works?

- a) their appearance
- b) their presence
- c) their reality
- d) their behaviorism

8. What does the Universal Grammar reveal?

- a) common features of language structures basing on the comparison of languages
- b) specific features of language structures basing on the comparison of languages
- c) general features of language structures basing on the comparison of languages
- d) non- unanimity features of language structures basing on the comparison of languages

9. What does system linguistics work with?

- a) it works with the language philosophy, basically with psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics
- b) it works with the language philosophy, basically with phraseology and lexicology
- c) it works with the language grammar, basically with phraseology and lexicology

d)) it works with the language phonetics, basically with psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics

10. What does structural linguistics deal with?

- a) study of the language internal structure
- b) study of the language deep structure
- c) study of the language external structure

Questions:

- 1 .Comparative typological research.
2. Families of languages in the world today.
3. Language type and the type of languages.
- 4 .Phonological classification of the languages.
5. Syntactical analysis of languages
6. Analytical languages
7. Notion of etalon language
8. The subject of comparative typology and its aims.
9. The difference between typological and historic and comparative linguistics.
10. Isomorphis

Lecture 5

1. Structural typology and its parts:

- Linguistic Universals;
- Etalon Language;

, • Typological Classification; ' Typological classification of Edward Sapir.

•Typological theory

2. Exercises on different types of typological classifications of languages

Structural typology

The Structural typology is the major branch of Linguistic typology and aims to identify structural language types. The Structural typology has 4 branches: a) linguistic universals; b) typological classification; c) etalon language; d) typological theory.

Some scholars consider Structural typology an independent branch of General Linguistics. It is connected with Comparative Linguistics and a Theory of Linguistic Methods".

The ultimate goal of Structural typology is to identify universal features of languages. Major scholars who contributed to the development of structural typology are B. Uspenskiy, V.P. Nedyalkov, Ch. Hockette, Yu.Rojdestvenskiy.

Major parameters of Structural typology are:

- Indifference to system identity;
 - Indifference to genetic identity;
 - Open list of compared languages/quantitative non-limitation
 - Areal non-limitation;
 - Possibility of deep and surface identity.
 - Indifference to etic -emic identity
- Mostly one level approach to comparison; Relatively unlimited etalon language;
 - Complete typological operation in case of linguistic universals

A. Linguistic Universal* are bound to unification of language facts, identifying common/similar features specific to systems of all or separate language groups.

The notion of Linguistic Universals appeared in 1961 at the Congress of Linguists in New York where J. Greenburg, J. Jenkins and I. Osgood proposed a Memorandum on Language/Linguistic Universals". They defined it as follows: "A Linguistic Universal is a certain feature specific to all languages of the world or the language per se."

The universals may be classified according to various principles. For example, according to the statistic principle there are unrestricted (absolute or full) universals opposed to restricted (relative, partial) universals (some scholars prefer the term "tendency" instead of "universal"). According to language hierarchy there are phonetic, morphological, lexical and syntactic universals. Other types include deductive and inductive; synchronic and diachronic universals; universals of speech and universals of language.

For example, universals related to the levels of language hierarchy:

UNIVERSAL TYPE UNIVERSAL PHENOMENON.

Phonetic morphological features: all languages have vowels and consonants.

Morphological:

- a) in most languages words are structured into morphemes,
- b) morphemes function as full and auxiliary elements.

Lexical:

- a) in all languages vocabulary is a system of semantic fields.
- b) in all languages there is polysemy, synonymy, antonymy.

Syntactic: in all languages there is a distribution of a subject-verb- object.

Examples of full universals:

"If a language has discrete morphemes, there are either pre-fixation or suffixation or both of them". "If a language is exclusively suffixational, it is a language with post-fixes. If a language is exclusively prefixational, it is a language with prefixes "

There are different ways of articulating and describing linguistic universals: descriptive and formal (with the help of special symbols).

B. Etalon language is an object language for Linguistic typology and it is also a means or *system of tools to compare languages*. It is usually identified deductively. The notion of etalon language was introduced by Boris Uspenskiy.

Some scholars prefer the term meta language which is to a certain extent synonymous to etalon language. It is the second major function of the etalon language to serve an instrument of comparison. This instrument may be represented as follows:

- any natural language (usually one's native tongue)
- a linguistic category, for example gender, voice, person, sex, etc.
- a postulate of General Linguistics, for example, polysemy, semantic field, etc.

At mediaeval times Latin was usually used to compare other languages (Grammar of Port Royal) but because Latin grammatical structure is rather complicated

now it is often suggested to take an amorphous language as a meta-language or turn either to a linguistic category or a postulate.

Below are some more examples of etalon languages:

- a) specially created artificial language;
- b) an existing language with well-developed system;
- c) certain sign system;
- d) certain linguistic method;
- e) phonetic, morphological, syntactic or other models;
- f) intermediary language;
- g) Language of translation, etc.

For applied purposes etalon language is classified into minimal and maximal.

C. Typological classification is ..."opposed to genetic/genealogical classification and is bound to classifying languages according to their taxonomic /systemic features and defining structural types of languages". (V. Solntzev)²⁹.

Morphological or Typological classification deals with the classification of languages according to their structural features or types IN language instead of the genealogical origin.

An example of a typological classification is the classification of languages based on the order of the verb, subject and object in a sentence into several types: SVO, SOV, VSO, and so on, languages. (English, for instance, belongs to the SVO language type.)

The shared features of languages of one type (= from one typological class) may have arisen completely independently. (Compare with analogy in biology.) Their co-occurrence might be due to the universal laws governing the structure of natural languages which constitute language universals.

According to the Morphological classification the languages are divided into:

A. *Isolating* (Chinese, Vietnamese, Japanese, etc.)

Words consist of single morphemes; most words consist only of a root. Mandarin Chinese, Vietnamese, Cantonese, Cambodian.

Examples in Mandarin adapted from Norman J., *Chinese*, Cambridge, 1988:

1.(Present) Ta ch fan le. - he eats food

2.(Past) Ta die le fan - 'He ate the food.'

B. Flexional (Fusional): words consist of stem and affixes which often mark several grammatical categories simultaneously. Greek, Latin, Sanskrit, Russian.

C. Agglutinative: words consist of a stem and one or more clearly identifiable affixes. Finnish, Hungarian, Estonian, Swahili, Turkish. Examples in Estonian³⁰

1. Ta on kohvikus.

His coffee is in his house

2. Ma tulen uuest kohvikust.

I came from the new coffee house.

D. Incorporating or polysynthetic: words consist of long strings of stems and affixes, which may translate as an entire English sentence. (American Indian languages: Chukchi, Aleut, Ayacucho languages of the Amazon river, etc:

Examples in Ayacucho"

Verbs can be inflected for both actor and object in different persons and number.

For Genealogical classification the basis is constituted by common elements of etic and emic sub-levels of compared languages. For typological classification the basis is constituted by language forms and ways the meaning expressed.

Typological and genealogical classifications complement each other. A special place in elaboration of the typological classification belongs to Edward Sapir.

Establishing types is not a goal, but a means to find universals and measure the degree of proximity of languages under analysis and qualify the specific structure of each.

d. Typological theory defines common linguistic notions used in linguistic typology. Typological theory is used to define language isomorphism (common features) and allomorphy (differentiating signs).

Linguistic Universals

1. Wherever humans exist, language exists.
2. There are no "primitive" languages - all languages are equally complex and equally capable of expressing any idea in the universe. The vocabulary of any language can be expanded to include new words for new concepts.
3. All languages change through time.
4. The relationship between the sounds and meanings of spoken languages and between the gestures (signs) and meanings of sign languages are for the most part arbitrary.
5. All human languages utilize a finite set of discrete sounds (or gestures) **that** are combined to form meaningful elements or words, which themselves form an infinite set of possible sentences.
6. All grammars contain rules for the formation of words and sentences of a similar kind.
7. Every spoken language includes discrete sound segments like p, n, or a, which can be defined by a finite set of sound properties or features. Every spoken language has a class of vowels and a class of consonants.
8. Similar grammatical categories (for example, noun, verb) are found in all languages.
9. There are semantic universals, such as "male" or "female," "animate" or "hu-

man," found in every language in the world.

10. Every language has a way of referring to past time, forming questions, issuing commands, and so on.

11. Speakers of all languages are capable of producing and comprehending **an** infinite set of sentences.

Linguistics is an interesting subject. I know that linguistics is an interesting subject. You know that I know that linguistics is an interesting subject. Cecilia knows that you know that I know that linguistics is an interesting subject.

13. Any normal child, born anywhere in the world, of any racial, geographical, social, or economic heritage, is capable learning any language to which he or she is exposed. The differences we find among languages cannot be due to biological reasons.

Edward Sapir's Classification of Languages"

So far, in dealing with linguistic form, we have been concerned only with single words and with the relations of words in sentences. We have not envisaged whole languages as conforming to this or that general type. Incidentally we have observed that one language runs to tight-knit synthesis where another contents itself with a more analytic, piece-meal handling of its elements, or that in one language syntactic relations appear pure which in another are combined with certain other notions that have something concrete about them, however abstract they may be felt to be in practice. In this way we may have obtained some inkling of what is meant when we speak of the general form of a language. For it must be obvious to anyone who has thought about the question at all or who has felt something of the spirit of a foreign language that there is such a thing as a basic plan, a certain cut, to each language. This type or plan or structural "genius" of the language is something much more fundamental, much more pervasive, than any single feature of it that we can mention, nor can we gain an adequate idea of its

nature by a mere recital of the sundry facts that make up the grammar of the language.

When we pass from Latin to Russian, we feel that it is approximately the same horizon that bounds our view, even though the near, familiar landmarks have changed. When we come to English, we seem to notice that the hills have dipped down a little, yet we recognize the general lay of the land. And when we have arrived at Chinese, it is an utterly different sky that is looking down upon us. We can translate these metaphors and say that all languages differ from one another but that certain ones differ far more than others. This is tantamount to saying that it is possible to group them into morphological types.

Strictly speaking, we know in advance that it is impossible to set up a limited number of types that would do full justice to the peculiarities of the thousands of languages and dialects spoken on the surface of the earth. Like all human institutions, speech is too variable and too elusive to be quite safely ticketed. Even if we operate with a minutely subdivided scale of types, we may be quite certain that many of our languages will need trimming before they fit.

To get them into the scheme at all it will be necessary to overestimate the significance of this or that feature or to ignore, for the time being, certain contradictions in their mechanism. Does the difficulty of classification prove the uselessness of the task? I do not think so. It would be too easy to relieve ourselves of the burden of constructive thinking and to take the standpoint that each language has its unique history, therefore its unique structure. Such a standpoint expresses only a half truth. Just as similar social, economic, and religious institutions have grown up in different parts of the world from distinct historical antecedents, so also languages, traveling along different roads, have tended to converge toward similar forms. Moreover, the historical study of language has proven to us beyond all doubt that a language changes not only gradually but consistently, that it moves unconsciously from one type towards another, and that analogous trends are observable in remote quarters of the globe.

From this it follows that broadly similar morphologies must have been reached by unrelated languages, independently and frequently. In assuming the existence of comparable types, therefore, we do not gain saying the individuality of all historical processes; we are merely affirming that back of the face of history are powerful drifts that move language, like other social products, to balanced patterns, in other words, to types. As linguists we shall be content to realize that there are these types and that certain processes in the life of language tend to modify them. Why similar types should be formed, just what is the nature of the forces that make them and dissolve them-these questions are more easily asked than answered. Perhaps the psychologists of the future will be able to give us the ultimate reasons for the formation of linguistic types.

When it comes to the actual task of classification, we find that we have no easy road to travel. Various classifications have been suggested, and they all contain elements of value. Yet none proves satisfactory. They do not so much enfold the known languages in their embrace as force them down into narrow, straight-backed seats. The difficulties have been of various kinds. First and foremost, it has been difficult to choose a point of view. On what basis shall we classify? A language shows us so many facets that we may well be puzzled. And is one point of view sufficient? Secondly, it is dangerous to generalize from a small number of selected languages.

To take, as the sum total of our material, Latin, Arabic, Turkish, Chinese, and perhaps Eskimo or Sioux as an afterthought, is to court disaster. We have no right to assume that a sprinkling of exotic types will do to supplement the few languages nearer home that we are more immediately interested in. Thirdly, the strong craving for a simple formula has been the undoing of linguists. There is something irresistible about a method of classification that starts with two poles, exemplified, say, by Chinese and Latin, clusters what it conveniently can about these poles, and throws everything else into a "transitional type". Hence has arisen the still popular classification of languages into an "isolating" group, an "agglutinative" group, and an "inflective" group. Sometimes the languages of the

American Indians are made to struggle along as an uncomfortable "poly synthetic" rear-guard to the agglutinative languages. There is justification for the use of all of these terms, though not perhaps in quite the spirit in which they are commonly employed. In any case it is very difficult to assign all known languages to one or other of these groups, the more so as they are not mutually exclusive. A language may be both agglutinative and inflective, or inflective and polysynthetic, or even polysynthetic and isolating, as we shall see a little later on.

There is a fourth reason why the classification of languages has generally proved a fruitless undertaking. It is probably the most powerful deterrent of all clear thinking. This is the evolutionary prejudice which instilled itself into the social sciences towards the middle of the last century and which is only now beginning to abate its tyrannical hold on our mind. Intermingled with this scientific prejudice and largely anticipating it was another, a more human one. The vast majority of linguistic theorists themselves spoke languages of a certain type, of which the most fully developed varieties were the Latin and Greek that they had learned in their childhood. It was not difficult for them to be persuaded that these familiar languages represented the "highest" development that speech had yet attained and that all other types were but steps on the way to this beloved "inflective" type. Whatever conformed to the pattern of Sanskrit and Greek and Latin and German was accepted as expressive of the "highest," whatever departed from it was frowned upon as a shortcoming or was at best an interesting aberration. Now any classification that starts with preconceived values or that works up to sentimental satisfactions is self-condemned as unscientific. A linguist that insists on talking about the Latin type of morphology as though it were necessarily the high-water mark of linguistic development is like the zoologist that sees in the organic world a huge conspiracy to evolve the race-horse or the Jersey cow. Language in its fundamental forms is the symbolic expression of human intuitions. These may shape themselves in a hundred ways, regardless of the material advancement or backwardness of the people that handle the forms, of which, it need hardly be said, they are in the main unconscious. If, therefore, we

wish to understand language in its true inwardness we must disabuse our minds of preferred "values" and accustom ourselves to look upon English and Hottentot with the same cool, yet interested, detachment.

We come back to our first difficulty. What point of view shall we adopt for our classification? After all that we have said about grammatical form in the preceding chapter, it is clear that we cannot now make the distinction between form languages and formless languages that used to appeal to some of the older writers. Every language can and must express the fundamental syntactic relations even though there is not a single affix to be found in its vocabulary. We conclude that every language is a form language. Aside from the expression of pure relation a language may, of course, be "formless" - formless, that is. in the mechanical and rather superficial sense that it is not encumbered by the use of non-radical elements. The attempt has sometimes been made to formulate a distinction on the basis of "inner form." Chinese, for instance, has no formal elements pure and simple, no "outer form," but it evidences a keen sense of relations, of the difference between subject and object, attribute and predicate, and so on. In other words, it has an "inner form" in the same sense in which Latin possesses it, though it is outwardly "formless"* where Latin is outwardly "formal." On the other hand, there are supposed to be languages which have no true grasp of the fundamental relations but content themselves with the more or less minute expression of material ideas, sometimes with an exuberant display of "outer form," leaving the pure relations to be merely inferred from the context.

I am strongly inclined to believe that this supposed "inner formlessness" of certain languages is an illusion. It may well be that in these languages the relations are not expressed in as immaterial a way as in Chinese or even as in Latin, or that the principle of order is subject to greater fluctuations than in Chinese, or that a tendency to complex derivations relieves the language of the necessity of expressing certain relations as explicitly as a more analytic language would have

them expressed. All this does not mean that the languages in question have not a true feeling for the fundamental relations.

We shall therefore not be able to use the notion of "inner formlessness", except in the greatly modified sense that syntactic relations may be fused with notions of another order. To this criterion of classification we shall have to return a little later.

More justifiable would be a classification according to the formal processes most typically developed in the language. Those languages that always identify the word with the radical element would be set off as an "isolating" group against such as either affix modifying elements (affixing languages) or possess the power to change the significance of the radical element by internal changes (reduplication; vocalic and consonantal change; changes in quantity, stress, and pitch). The latter type might be not inaptly termed "symbolic" languages.

The affixing languages would naturally subdivide themselves into such as are prevaillingly prefixing, like Bantu or Tlingit, and such as are mainly or entirely suffixing, like Eskimo or Algonkin or Latin. There are two serious difficulties with this fourfold classification (isolating, prefixing, suffixing, symbolic). In the first place, most languages fall into more than one of these groups. The Semitic languages, for instance, are prefixing, suffixing, and symbolic at one and the same time. In the second place, the classification in its bare form is superficial. It would throw together languages that differ utterly in spirit merely because of a certain external formal resemblance.

There is clearly a world of difference between a prefixing language like Cambodian, which limits itself, so far as its prefixes (and infixes) are concerned, to the expression of derivational concepts, and the Bantu languages, in which the prefixed elements have a far-reaching significance as symbols of syntactic relations. The classification has much greater value if it is taken to refer to the expression of relational concepts alone. In this modified form we shall return to it as a subsidiary criterion. We shall find that the terms "isolating," "affixing,"

and "symbolic" have a real value. But instead of distinguishing between prefixing and suffixing languages, we shall find that it is of superior interest to make another distinction, one that is based on the relative firmness with which the affixed elements are united with the core of the word.

There is another very useful set of distinctions that can be made, but these too must not be applied exclusively, or our classification will again be superficial. I refer to the notions of "analytic", "synthetic", and "polysynthetic". The terms explain themselves. An analytic language is one that either does not combine concepts into single words at all (Chinese) or does so economically (English, French). In an analytic language the sentence is always of prime importance, the word is of minor interest. In a synthetic language (Latin, Arabic, Finnish) the concepts cluster more thickly, the words are more richly chambered, but there is a tendency, on the whole, to keep the range of concrete significance in the single word down to a moderate compass. A polysynthetic language, as its name implies, is more than ordinarily synthetic. The elaboration of the word is extreme. Concepts which we should never dream of treating in a subordinate fashion are symbolized by derivational affixes or "symbolic" changes in the radical element, while the more abstract notions, including the syntactic relations, may also be conveyed by the word. A polysynthetic language illustrates no principles that are not already exemplified in the more familiar synthetic languages. It is related to them very much as a synthetic language is related to our own analytic English.

The three terms are purely quantitative—and relative, that is, a language may be "analytic" from one standpoint, "synthetic" from another. I believe the terms are more useful in defining certain drifts than as absolute counters. It is often illuminating to point out that a language has been becoming more and more analytic in the course of its history or that it shows signs of having crystallized from a simple analytic base into a highly synthetic form.

We now come to the difference between an "inflective" and an "agglutinative" language. As I have already remarked, the distinction is a useful, even a

necessary, one, but it has been generally obscured by a number of irrelevancies and by the unavailing effort to make the terms cover all languages that are not, like Chinese, of a definitely isolating cast. The meaning that we had best assign to the term "inflective" can be gained by considering very briefly what are some of the basic features of Latin and Greek that have been looked upon as peculiar to the inflective languages. First of all, they are synthetic rather than analytic. This does not help us much. Relatively to many another language that resembles them in broad structural respects, Latin and Greek are not notably synthetic; on the other hand, their modern descendants, Italian and Modern Greek, while far more analytic than they, have not departed so widely in structural outlines as to warrant their being put in a distinct major group. An inflective language, we must insist, may be analytic, synthetic, or polysynthetic.

Latin and Greek are mainly affixing in their method, with the emphasis heavily on suffixing. The agglutinative languages are just as typically affixing as they, some among them favoring prefixes, others running to the use of suffixes. Affixing alone does not define inflection. Possibly everything depends on just what kind of affixing we have to deal with. If we compare our English words *farmer* and *goodness* with such words as *height* and *depth*, we cannot fail to be struck by a notable difference in the affixing technique of the two sets. The *-er* and *-ness* are affixed quite mechanically to radical elements which are at the same time independent words (*farm*, *good*). They are in no sense independently significant elements, but they convey their meaning (agentive, abstract quality) with unfailing directness. Their use is simple and regular and we should have no difficulty in appending them to any verb or to any adjective, however recent in origin. From a verb to *camouflage* we may form the noun *camouflager* "one who camouflages," from an adjective *jazzy* proceeds with perfect ease the noun *jazziness*. It is different with *height* and *depth*.

Functionally they are related to *high* and *deep* precisely as is *goodness* to *good*, but the degree of coalescence between radical element and affix is greater. Radical element and affix, while measurably distinct, cannot be torn apart quite

so readily as could the good and -ness of goodness. The -t of height is not the typical form of the affix (compare strength, length, filth, breadth, youth), while depth is not identical with deep. We may designate the two types of affixing as "fusing" and "juxtaposing." The juxtaposing technique we may call as an "agglutinative" one.

Is the fusing technique thereby set off as the essence of inflection? I am afraid that we have not yet reached our goal. If our language were crammed full of coalescences of the type of depth, but if, on the other hand, it used the plural independently of verb concord (e.g., the books falls like the book falls, or the book fall like the books fall), the personal endings independently of tense (e.g., the book fells like the book falls, or the book fall like the book fell), and the pronouns independently of case (e.g., I see he like he sees me, or him see the man like the man sees him), we should hesitate to describe it as inflective. The mere fact of fusion does not seem to satisfy us as a clear indication of the inflective process. There are, indeed, a large number of languages that fuse radical element and affix in as complete and intricate a fashion as one could hope to find anywhere without thereby giving signs of that particular kind of formalism that marks off such languages as Latin and Greek as inflective.

What is true of fusion of equally true of the "symbolic" processes. There are linguists that speak of alternations like drink and drank as though they represented the high-water mark of inflection, a kind of spiritualized essence of pure inflective form. In such Greek forms, nevertheless, as pepomph-a "I have sent," as contrasted with pemp-o "I send," with its trebly symbolic change of the radical element (reduplicating pe-, change of e to o, change of p to ph), it is rather the peculiar alternation of the first person singular -a of the perfect with the -o of the present that gives them their inflective cast. Nothing could be more erroneous than to imagine that symbolic changes of the radical element, even for the expression of such abstract concepts as those of number and tense, is always associated with the syntactic peculiarities of an inflective language.

If by an "agglutinative" language we mean one that affixes according to the juxtaposing technique, then we can only say that there are hundreds of fusing and symbolic languages - non-agglutinative by definition - that are, for all that, quite alien in spirit to the inflective type of Latin and Greek. We can call such languages inflective, if we like, but we must then be prepared to revise radically our notion of inflective form.

It is necessary to understand that fusion of the radical element and the affix may be taken in a broader psychological sense than I have yet indicated. If every noun plural in English were of the type of book: If there were not such conflicting patterns as deer: deer, ox: oxen, goose: geese to complicate the general form picture of plurality, there is little doubt that the fusion of the elements book and -s into the unified word books would be felt as a little less complete than it actually is. One reasons, or feels, unconsciously about the matter somewhat as follows: - If the form pattern represented by the word books is identical, as far as use is concerned, with that of the word oxen, the pluralizing elements -s and -en cannot have quite so definite, quite so autonomous, a value as we might at first be inclined to suppose. They are plural elements only in so far as plurality is predicated of certain selected concepts. The words books and oxen are therefore a little other than mechanical combinations of the symbol of a thing (book, ox) and a clear symbol of plurality. There is a slight psychological uncertainty or haze about the juncture in book-s and ox-en. A little of the force of -s and -en is anticipated by, or appropriated by, the words book and ox themselves, just as the conceptual force of -th in dep-th is appreciably weaker than that of -ness in goodness in spite of the functional parallelism between depth and goodness. Where there is an uncertainty about the juncture, where the affixed element cannot rightly claim to possess its full share of significance, the unity of the complete word is more strongly emphasized. The mind must rest on something. If it cannot linger on the constituent elements, it hastens all the more eagerly to the acceptance of the word as a whole. A word like goodness illustrates "agglutination," books "regular fusion," depth "irregular fusion," geese "symbolic fusion" or "symbolism."

The psychological distinctness of the affixed elements in an agglutinative term may be even more marked than in the -ness of goodness. To be strictly accurate, the significance of the -ness is not quite as inherently determined, mined, as autonomous, as it might be. It is at the mercy of the preceding radical element to this extent, that it requires to be preceded by a particular type of such element, an adjective. Its own power is thus, in a manner, checked in advance. The fusion here, however, is so vague and elementary, so much a matter of course in the great majority of all cases of affixing, that it is natural to overlook its reality and to emphasize rather the juxtaposing or agglutinative nature of the affixing process.

If the -ness could be affixed as an abstractive element to each and every type of radical element, if we could say lightness ("the act or quality of fighting") or water-ness ("the quality or state of water") or awayness ("the state of being away") as we can say goodness ("the state of being good"), we should have moved appreciably nearer the agglutinative pole. A language that runs to synthesis of this loose-jointed sort may be looked upon as an example of the ideal agglutinative type, particularly if the concepts expressed by the agglutinated elements are relational or, at the least, belong to the abstracter class of derivational ideas.

Instructive forms may be cited from Nootka. We shall return to our "fire in the house." The Nootka word inikw-ihl "fire in the house" is not as definitely formalized a word as its translation suggests. The radical element inikw- "fire" is really as much of a verbal as of a nominal term; it may be rendered now by "fire," now by "burn," according to the syntactic exigencies of the sentence. The derivational element -ihl "in the house» does not mitigate this vagueness or generality; inikw-ihl is still "fire in the house" or "burn in the house." It may be definitely nominalized or verbalized by the affixing of elements that are exclusively nominal or verbal in force. For example, inikw-ihl-'i, with its suffixed article, is a clear-cut nominal form: "the burning in the house, the fire in the house"; inikw-ihl-ma, with its indicative suffix, is just as clearly verbal: "it burns in the house." How weak must be the degree of fusion between "fire in the house" and the nominalizing or verbalizing suffix is apparent from the fact that the formally indifferent inikwihl is

not an abstraction gained by analysis but a full-fledged word, ready for use in the sentence.

It is not an unambiguous verb until it is given a form that excludes every other possibility, as in the indicative *inikwihl-minih'isit-a* "several small fires were burning in the house." We recognize at once that the elements *-ihl*, *-'minih*, *-'is*, and *-it*, quite aside from the relatively concrete or abstract nature of their content and aside, further, from the degree of their outer (phonetic) cohesion with the elements that precede them, have a psychological independence that our own affixes never have. They are typically agglutinated elements, though they have no greater external independence, are no more capable of living apart from the radical element to which they are suffixed, than the *-ness* and *goodness* or the *-s* of *books*. It does not follow that an agglutinative language may not make use of the principle of fusion, both external and psychological, or even of symbolism to a considerable extent. It is a question of tendency. Is the formative slant clearly towards the agglutinative method? Then the language is "agglutinative." As such, it may be prefixing or suffixing, analytic, synthetic, or polysynthetic.

Dealing with inflections, an inflective language like Latin or Greek uses the method of fusion, and this fusion has an inner psychological as well as an outer phonetic meaning. But it is not enough that the fusion operates merely in the sphere of derivational concepts (group II), it must involve the syntactic relations, which may either be expressed in unalloyed form (group IV) or, as in Latin and Greek, as "concrete relational concepts" (group III).

As far as Latin and Greek are concerned, their inflection consists essentially of the fusing of elements that express logically impure relational concepts with radical elements and with elements expressing derivational concepts. Both fusion as a general method and the expression of relational concepts in the word are necessary to the notion of "inflection."

But to have thus defined inflection is to doubt the value of the term as descriptive of a major class. Why emphasize both a technique and a particular

content at one and the same time? Surely we should be clear in our minds as to whether we set more store by one or the other.

"Fusional" and "symbolic" contrast with "agglutinative," which is not on a par with "inflective" at all. What are we to do with the fusional and symbolic languages that do not express relational concepts in the word but leave them to the sentence? And are we not to distinguish between agglutinative languages that express these same concepts in the word - in so far inflective-like - and those that do not? We dismissed the scale: analytic, synthetic, polysynthetic, as too merely quantitative for our purpose. Isolating, affixing, symbolic - this also seemed insufficient for the reason that it laid too much stress on technical externals. Isolating, agglutinative, fusional, and symbolic is a preferable scheme, but still skirts the external. We shall do best, it seems to me, to hold to "inflective" as a valuable suggestion for a broader and more consistently developed scheme, as a hint for a classification based on the nature of the concepts expressed by the language.

The other two classifications, the first based on degree of synthesis, the second on degree of fusion, may be retained as intercrossing schemes that give us the opportunity to subdivide our main conceptual types.

It is well to recall that all languages must need to express radical concepts (group I) and relational ideas (group IV). Of the two other large groups of concepts—derivational (group II) and mixed relational (group III)—both may be absent, both present, or only one present. This gives us at once a simple, incisive, and absolutely inclusive method of classifying all known languages. They are:

Such as express only concepts of groups I and IV; in other words, languages that keep the syntactic relations pure and that do not possess the power to modify the significance of their radical elements by means of affixes or internal changes. We may call these Pure-relational non-deriving languages or, more tersely, Simple Pure-relational languages. These are the languages that cut most to the bone of linguistic expression.

. Such as express concets of groups I, II, and III; in other words, languages in which the syntactic relations are expressed in mixed form, as in C, and that also possess the power to modify the significance of their radical elements by means of affixes or internal changes. These are the Mixed-relational deriving languages or Complex Mixed-relational languages. Here belong the "inflective" languages that we are most familiar with as well as a great many "agglutinative" languages, some "polysynthetic," others merely synthetic.

This conceptual classification of languages, I must repeat, does not attempt to take account of the technical externals of language. It answers, in effect, two fundamental mental questions concerning the translation of concepts into linguistic symbols. Does the language, in the first place, keep its radical concepts pure or does it build up its concrete ideas by an aggregation of inseparable elements (types A and C versus types B and D)? And, in the second place, does it keep the basic relational concepts, such as are absolutely unavoidable in the ordering of a proposition, free of an admixture of the concrete or not (types A and B versus types C and D) The second question, it seems to me, is the more fundamental of the two. The classification is too sweeping and too broad for an easy, descriptive survey of the many varieties of human speech. It needs to be amplified. Each of the types A, B, C, D may be subdivided into an agglutinative, a fusional and a symbolic subtype, according to the prevailing method of modification of the radical element. In type A we distinguish in addition an isolating sub-type, characterized by the absence of all affixes and modifications of the radical element. In the isolating languages the syntactic relations are expressed by the position of the words in the sentence. This is also true of many languages of type B, the terms "agglutinative," "fusional," and "symbolic" applying in their case merely to the treatment of the derivational, not the relational, concepts. Such languages could be termed "agglutinative-isolating," "fusional-isolating" and "symbolic-isolating."

This brings up the important general consideration that the method of handling one group of concepts need not in the least be identical with that used for another.

Compound terms could be used to indicate this difference, if desired, the first element of the compound referring to the treatment of the concepts of group II, the second to that of the concepts of groups III and IV.

An "agglutinative" language would normally be taken to mean one that agglutinates all of its affixed elements or that does so to a preponderating extent. In an "agglutinative-fusional" language the derivational elements are agglutinated, perhaps in the form of prefixes, while the relational elements (pure or mixed) are fused with the radical element, possibly as another set of prefixes following the first set or in the form of suffixes or as part prefixes and part suffixes.

By a "fusional-agglutinative" language we would understand one that fuses its derivational elements but allows a greater independence to those that indicate relations. All these and similar distinctions are not merely theoretical possibilities, they can be abundantly illustrated from the descriptive facts of linguistic morphology. Further, should it prove desirable to insist on the degree of elaboration of the word, the terms "analytic," "synthetic," and "polysynthetic" can be added as descriptive terms. It goes without saying that languages of type A are necessarily analytic and that languages of type C also are prevailingly analytic and are not likely to develop beyond the synthetic stage.

But we must not make too much of terminology. Much depends on the relative emphasis laid on this or that feature or point of view. The method of classifying languages here developed has this great advantage, that it can be refined or simplified according to the needs of a particular discussion. The degree of synthesis may be entirely ignored; "fusion" and "symbolism" may often be combined with advantage under the head of "fusion"; even the difference between agglutination and fusion may, if desired, be set aside as either too difficult to draw or as irrelevant to the issue. Languages, after all, are exceedingly complex historical structures. It is of less importance to put each language in a neat pigeon-hole than to have evolved a flexible method which

enables us to place it, from two or three independent standpoints, relatively to another language

All this is not to deny that certain linguistic types are more stable and frequently represented than others that are just as possible from a theoretical standpoint. But we are too ill-informed as yet of the structural spirit of great numbers of languages to have the right to frame a classification-that is other than flexible and experimental.

Thus, a most interesting parallel could be drawn on structural lines between Takelma and Greek, languages that are as geographically remote from each other and as unconnected in a historical sense as two languages selected at random can well be. Their similarity goes beyond the generalized facts registered in the table. It would almost seem that linguistic features that are easily thinkable apart from each other, that seem to have no necessary connection in theory, have nevertheless a tendency to cluster or to follow together in the wake of some deep, controlling impulse to form that dominates their drift. If, therefore, we can only be sure of the intuitive similarity of two given languages, of their possession of the same submerged form-feeling, we need not be too much surprised to find that they seek and avoid certain linguistic developments in common.

We are at present very far from able to define just what these fundamental form intuitions are. We can only feel them rather vaguely at best and must content ourselves for the most part with noting their symptoms. These symptoms are being garnered in our descriptive and historical grammars of diverse languages. Some day, it may be, we shall be able to read from them the great underlying ground-plans.

Such a purely technical classification of languages as the current one into "isolating," "agglutinative," and "inflective" (read "fusional") cannot claim to have great value as an entering wedge into the discovery' of the intuitional forms of languages. I do not know whether the suggested classification into four conceptual groups is likely to drive deeper or not. My own feeling is that it does, but

classifications, neat constructions of the speculative mind, are slippery things. They have to be tested at every possible opportunity before they have the right to cry for acceptance. Meanwhile we may take some encouragement from the application of a rather curious, yet simple, historical test. Languages are in constant process of change, but it is only reasonable to suppose that they tend to preserve longest what is most fundamental in their structure. Now if we take great groups of genetically related languages.

We find that as we pass from one to another or trace the course of their development we frequently encounter a gradual change of morphological type.

This is not surprising, for there is no reason why a language should remain permanently true to its original form. It is interesting, however, to note that of the three intercrossing classifications represented in our table (conceptual type, technique, and degree of synthesis), it is the degree of synthesis that seems to change most readily, that the technique is modifiable but far less readily so, and that the conceptual type tends to persist the longest of all.

The illustrative material gathered in the table is far too scanty to serve as a real basis of proof, but it is highly suggestive as far as it goes. The only changes of conceptual type within groups of related languages that are to be gleaned from the table are of B to A (Shilluk as contrasted with Ewe; Classical Tibetan as contrasted with Modern Tibetan and Chinese) and of D to C (French as contrasted with Latin).

But types A:B and C:D are respectively related to each other as a simple and a complex form of a still more fundamental type (pure-relational, mixed-relational). Of a passage from a pure-relational to a mixed-relational type or vice versa I can give no convincing examples.

The table shows clearly enough how little relative permanence there is in the technical features of language, That highly synthetic languages (Latin; Sanskrit) have frequently broken down into analytic forms (French; Bengali) or that agglutinative languages (Finnish) have in many instances gradually taken on "inflective"

features are well-known facts, but the natural inference does not seem to have been often drawn that possibly the contrast between synthetic and analytic or agglutinative and "inflective" (fusional) is not so fundamental after all.

Turning to the Indo-Chinese languages, we find that Chinese is as near to being a perfectly isolating language as any example we are likely to find, while Classical Tibetan has not only fusional but strong symbolic features (e.g., g-tong-ba "to give," past b-tang, future g-tang, imperative thong); but both are pure-relational languages. Ewe is either isolating or only barely agglutinative, while Shilluk, though soberly analytic, is one of the most definitely symbolic languages I know; both of these Soudanese languages are pure-relational. The relationship between Polynesian and Cambodian is remote, though practically certain; while the latter has more markedly fusional features than the former

Both conform to the complex pure-relational type. Yana and Salinan are superficially very dissimilar languages. Yana is highly polysynthetic and quite typically agglutinative, Salinan is no more synthetic than and as irregularly and compactly fusional ("inflective") as Latin; both are pure-relational. Chinook and Takelma, remotely related languages of Oregon, have diverged very far from each other, not only as regards technique and synthesis in general but in almost all the details of their structure; both are complex mixed-relational languages, though in very different ways. Facts such as these seem to lend color to the suspicion that in the contrast of pure-relational and mixed-relational (or concrete-relational) we are confronted by something deeper, more far-reaching, than the contrast of isolating, agglutinative, and fusional".

1. What is Structural Typology?

- a) a branch of general linguistics
- b) a branch of linguistic typology
- c) a branch of phraseology

d) a branch of grammar

2. Which languages are isolated?

- a) Chinese, Vietnamese, Japanese
- b) Spanish, English, Russian
- c) Japanese, Russian, English
- d) Korean, Polish, Russian

3. What does a typological theory define?

- a) It defines common linguistic notions
- b) it defines specific linguistic notions
- c) it defines phraseological units
- d) it defines a noun in the sentence

4. What is specific about analytic languages?

- a) the word is of primary importance
- b) the sentence is of primary importance
- c) the grammar is of primary importance
- d) vocabulary is of primary importance

5. Which of these languages are synthetic?

- a) Latin
- b) Japanese
- c) Spanish
- d) All of them

6. Which of these languages are analytic?

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

7. Which languages use the methods of fusion?

- a) Latin, Greek
- b) Russian, Spanish
- c) English, Norway
- d) Greek, Japanese

8. Which language is a perfectly isolated?

- a) Chinese
- b) Japanese
- c) Russian
- d) Uzbek

9. Which languages are highly synthetic?

- a) Chinese, Sanskrit
- b) Japanese, Chinese
- c) English, Sweden
- d) Japanese, Chinese

10. What is the second factor of scientific comparative works?

- a) their appearance
- b) their presence
- c) their reality
- d) their behaviorism

Questions

1. Define Structural typology

2. What are the indifferences to system identity;
3. Define Linguistic Universal
4. Etalon Languages
5. Typological Classification
6. Isolated languages
7. Edward's Sapir Classification of Languages
8. Allomorhism
9. Typological Theory
10. Linguistic Universals

Lecture 6

Comparative "typology and its major distinctive features.

- 1.indifference to system identity of compared languages;
- 2.indifference to genetic identity of compared languages;
- 3.areal non-limitation of compared languages;
maximum quantitative limitation of compared languages;
- 4.indifference toward etic/emic identity;
- 5.indifference toward deep and surface identity;
- 6.content approach to comparison;
- 7.cross-level approach to comparison;
- 8.limited etalon language (the typological category);
- 10.Possibility of a complete typological operation

Comparative typology and its parameters

Comparative typology is an independent branch of General Linguistic typology. It deals with comparison of languages irrespectively of their genetic or structural identity. Comparative typology operates with a limited number of languages and the minimum number of these languages maybe as little as two.

Comparative typology cannot reveal linguistic universals but it does contribute to the Structural typology with the results of its comparative studies of concrete languages for further elaboration of linguistic universals. In its turn the Structural typology contributes to comparative typological studies while identifying correspondences in diverse languages.

One of the major differences between the Structural and Comparative typology is that the latter operates with cross-level units of the languages while the former (the Structural typology) utilizes mainly the level isolation/one level approach.

In Comparative typology the cross-level, cross-class units of expression are initially identified in each of compared languages separately. On the second stage of the typological operation the cross-language equivalents and cross-level correspondents are identified, isomorphic and allomorphic features are revealed.

The existence of Comparative typology became possible due to the possibility of comparison of sub-systems of different languages.

The major principle of Comparative typology is binarity: thus initially two genetically and/or structurally different languages are compared as the representatives of their genetic /structural groups. Further, the number of compared languages can be increased but still with the observation of the binary principle. For example,

English - Uzbek

English - a group of Turkic languages, etc.

The major tool or etalon language of comparison in Comparative typology is the *Typological Category*.

As an independent branch of Linguistic typology the Comparative typology is characterized by the following features:

- indifference to system identity;
- indifference to genetic identity;
- areal non-limitation of compared languages; -maximum quantitative limitation;
- indifference toward etic/emic identity;
- indifference toward deep and surface identity;
- content approach to comparison;
- cross-level approach to comparison;
- limited etalon language (the typological category);
- possibility of a complete typological operation.

Characterology is a sub-branch of linguistics dealing with comparative study of separate language phenomena in the systems of limited number of genetically related and non-related languages. The scholars who dealt with characterology were V.Mathesius, B. Uspenskiy, Yu. Rojdestvenskiy, V. Skalichka.

Comparative typology and Lexicography

Comparative typology has a direct connection to Lexicography as both of them deal with comparison and revealing equivalency of language units.

The main link between Comparative typology and Lexicography is in the analysis of systems of compared languages. Lexicography needs the typological analysis of language systems to compile dictionaries.

Both Comparative typology and Lexicography study the systems of related and non-related languages. One of those who first compiled an English vocabulary was a school teacher Kodry who began to gather and systemize words which were very

difficult for his pupils during the process of study. His dictionary was completed in 1604 and it is considered to be the first English dictionary.

The first dictionaries have a thousand years history. Through centuries different bilingual dictionaries were created. Bilingual dictionaries are one of the main means to compare languages. They help to study not only foreign languages but also study one's native language.

The work over compiling bilingual dictionaries is also about comparison of the languages. In bilingual dictionaries phonetic, morphological, lexical, semantic, syntactical, orthographical characteristics of the words are usually provided. Before describing the above characteristics it is necessary to learn the characteristics of the dictionary. In Comparative typology the results of comparison obtained in Phonological, Phonetic, Morphological, Lexical and Syntactic typologies can be summarized. Thus without a typological comparison a dictionary can not provide a necessary reference.

A lexicographical process can be divided into two stages.

- 1.The stage of analysis;
- 2.The stage of synthesis.

On the first stage Lexicography provides facts on language systems of the dictionary. On the second stage it gives equivalent units of the other language of the dictionary.

The part of lexicography, which studies the comparison of language systems for making dictionaries, can be called a Comparative Lexicography. It can study linguistic questions in two ways: synchronically and diachronically.

For example, for the first time the problems of compiling dictionaries of *Turkic languages* were related to the voice forming affixes. There is a developed system of affixes in these languages which are usually classified into:

- 1.word-building affixes and
- 2.form-building affixes.

There arise problems related to the suffixes which are considered as form-building: should the verbs with the affixes of voice be included into dictionaries? If the suffixes are considered as voice forming, the words with these suffixes should not be included into the dictionaries, as these suffixes build a form of a word but not a new word.

But this principle is not observed fully: some of the voice forms are included in the dictionaries of Turkic languages as independent lexical units while the others are not included at all.

The question regarding the attitude toward the primary word to the causation, reflexivity, mutuality and other categories have not been solved so far in linguistics. The reason is that a simple word can express the causative and non-causative, reflexive and non-reflexive meanings at the same time. As the exception may serve some words, which are unambiguous.

It is very important to figure out semantic constructions or syntactic models which are the basis of linguistic meaning and express the causative meaning in modern English,

For example causative meaning can be created by the help of zero modification like move, warm, grow, which are opposed to unassertive verbs.

Reflective verbs are created in the same way, for example: shave, wash. While explaining such words in the dictionary a lexicographer must show their combinations.

Lexicographic analysis of proper names taken from the Arabic language is of a special interest while establishing degree of assimilation for proper names.

Linguistic typology has played a positive role in creating bilingual English-Turkic and Turkic-English dictionaries. These topics were of special interest for Formal typology which displayed the meaning of proper names. Arabic proper names were not found in, for example, Chinese language. But when a part of

China was attacked and occupied by the Muslims the problem of assimilating the Arabic proper names became acute for China too.

While solving such problems Comparative typology and Lexicography must co-operate with Anthropology, Ethnography, History and others sciences.

We have a number of facts witnessing the links between Comparative typology and Lexicography:

- 1) Comparative typology and Lexicography analyze systems of two or more languages simultaneously;
- 2) Compared languages can be genetically related or not related;
- 3) Comparative typology and Lexicography.

1. What kind of science is a “Comparative Typology”?

- a) Independent branch of general linguistics
- b) specific branch of general linguistics
- c) non-identified part of linguistics
- d) a branch of general linguistics

2. What does Characterology deal with?

- a) different languages
- b) comparative study of separate languages
- c) deep analysis of languages
- d) limited languages

3. What Is the main link between Comparative Typology and Lexicography?

- a) analysis of systems of compared languages
- b) analysis of systems of allomorphic languages
- c) analysis of systems of specific languages
- d) analysis of systems of real languages

4. Lexicographical analysis can be divided onto two stages.....

- a) analysis, synthesis
- b) paradigm, structure
- c) synthesis, paradigm
- d) investigation, paradigm

5. The problems of compiling dictionaries of Turkic languages were related to.....?

- a) voice-forming affixes
- b) voice-fixed affixes
- c) voice-proven affixes
- d) voice-driven articles

6. What is the major tool of Etalon language?

- a) psychological analysis
- b) moral analysis
- c) typological category
- d) all of them

7. What does system linguistics work with?

- a) it works with the language philosophy, basically with psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics
- b) it works with the language philosophy, basically with phraseology and lexicology
- c) it works with the language grammar, basically with phraseology and lexicology
- d)) it works with the language phonetics, basically with psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics

8. What does structural linguistics deal with?

- a) study of the language internal structure
- b) study of the language deep structure
- c) study of the language external structure

9. How many periods does J. Buranov identify in the history of typological studies?

- a) 1
- b) 3
- c) 4
- d) 11

10. Which languages are highly synthetic?

- e) Chinese, Sanskrit
- f) Japanese, Chinese
- g) English, Sweden
- h) Japanese, Chinese

1. Define Comparative Typology and its parameters
2. Define the term "characterology"
3. Comparative Typology and Lexicography
4. What are Turkic Languages?
5. Define the term "agglutination"
6. Identify a content approach to comparison
7. Typological analysis of languages
- 8 Define Etic,Emic identity
9. Areal non-limitation of compared languages
10. Define a cross level approach to comparison

Teaching technology on the subject "Typology"

Seminar 1	Linguistic Typology as a subject
Plan	1.Types of scientific comparison; 2.Branches of General Typology; 3.Types of non-linguistic Typology; 4.Subject-matter of Linguistic Typology; 5. Various approaches toward definition of Linguistic typology.

Aim of the lesson	to give full information about typology of lexical units of English, Russian and Uzbek languages.
Results of the lesson	Ability to explain what is word-combination Syntactic level paradigm Having full understanding of types of word-combinations Ability to clarify the new terms meanings
Tasks for self-study	Task 1 Being acquainted with the lecture materials and answering questions Task 2 Self-control questions Task 3 Working on recommended literature
Forms of self-control Observing, written check	Maximum point from the topic 1 point Students mark:
Teachers signature:	

Teaching technology on the subject “Typology”

Seminar 2	The History of Linguistic comparison.
Plan	1.The History of Linguistic comparison; 2.The Major factors fostering development of Linguistic typology; 3.Discussing different classification/periodization of the history of Linguistic comparison and factors of its development.

Aim of the lesson	to give full information about typology of lexical units of English, Russian and Uzbek languages.
Results of the lesson	Ability to explain what is word-combination Syntactic level paradigm Having full understanding of types of word-combinations Ability to clarify the new terms meanings
Tasks for self-study	Task # 1 Being acquainted with the lecture materials and answering questions Task #2 Self-control questions Task #3 Working on recommended literature
Forms of self-control Observing, written check	Maximum point from the topic 1 point Students mark
Teachers signature	

Teaching technology on the subject Typology

Seminar 3	Major parameters identifying the branches of linguistic typology.
Plan	1.System/Structural identity; 2.Genrtyic identity; 3.Quantitative limitation/non-limitation; 4.Areal limitation; 5.Etic/emic identity; 6. Deep and Surface identity; 7. One level approach to comparison; 8. Cross-level approach to comparison;

	<p>9. Content approach;</p> <p>1. Formal approach</p> <p>2. Limitation of etalon language;</p> <p>3. Completion of typological operations.</p>
Results of the lesson	<p>Ability to explain what is word-combination</p> <p>Syntactic level paradigm</p> <p>Having full understanding of types of word-combinations</p> <p>Ability to clarify the new terms meanings</p>
Tasks for self-study	<p>Task 1 Being acquainted with the lecture materials and answering questions</p> <p>Task 2 Self-control questions</p> <p>Task 3 Working on recommended literature</p>
Forms of self-control Observing, written check	<p>Maximum point from the topic</p> <p>1 point</p> <p>Students mark</p>
Teachers Signature	

Teaching Technology on the subject Typology

Seminar 4-5	4.Genetic/Genealogical typology 5.Structural typology and its parts.
Plan	4.1 Genetic diachronic typology; 2 Genetic synchronic typology; 3 Distinctive features of Genetic typology. 5.1 Linguistic Universals; 2 Etalon Language; 3 Typological Classification; 4 Typological classification of Edward Sapir.
Results of the lesson	Ability to explain what is word-combination Syntactic level paradigm Having full understanding of types of word-combinations Ability to clarify the new terms meanings
Tasks for self-study	Task 1 Being acquainted with the lecture materials and answering questions Task 2 Self-control questions Task 3 Working on recommended literature
Forms of self-control Observing, written check	Maximum point from the topic 1 point Students mark

Teaching Technology on the Subject Typology

Seminar 6	Comparative typology and its major distinctive features.
Plan	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 1.Quantitative limitation of compared languages; 2. 2.Deep and Surface identity; 3. 3.Indifference to Genetic identity; 4. 4.Content approach to comparison.
Results of the lesson	<p style="text-align: center;">Ability to explain what is word-combination Syntactic level paradigm Having full understanding of types of word-combinations Ability to clarify the new terms meanings</p>
Tasks for self-study	<p style="text-align: center;">Task # 1 Being acquainted with the lecture materials and answering questions Task #2 Self-control questions Task #3 Working on recommended literature</p>
Forms of self-control Observing, written check	<p style="text-align: center;">Maximum point from the topic 1 point Students mark</p>
Teachers Siganture	

Teaching Technology on the subject “Typology”

Seminar 7-8	<p>7 Branches of Linguistic typology related to expression and content plans of the language.</p> <p>8 The problem of categorization in linguistics.</p>
Plan	<p>7.1 Formal typology; 2 Semantic typology;</p> <p>8.1 The grammatical category; 2 The Notional category; 3 The Functional semantic category; 4 Lexical – Grammatical Fields.</p>
Results of the lesson	<p>Ability to explain what is word-combination Syntactic level paradigm Having full understanding of types of word-combinations Ability to clarify the new terms meanings</p>
Tasks for self-study	<p>Task 1 Being acquainted with the lecture materials and answering questions Task 2 Self-control questions Task 3 Working on recommended literature</p>
Forms of self-control Observing, written check	<p>Maximum point from the topic 1 point Students mark</p>
Teachers Signature:	

Teaching Technology on the subject Typology

Seminar 9	The Typological Category of Plurality in English and Uzbek /Russian languages
Plan	<p>1. The cross level means of expression : morphological, lexical, syntactic;</p> <p>2. The cross-class means of expression in the systems of the noun, verb, adjective, pronoun, numeral, functional parts of speech.</p>
Results of the lesson	<p>Ability to explain what is word-combination</p> <p>Syntactic level paradigm</p> <p>Having full understanding of types of word-combinations</p> <p>Ability to clarify the new terms meanings</p>
Tasks for self-study	<p>Task 1 Being acquainted with the lecture materials and answering questions</p> <p>Task 2 Self-control questions</p> <p>Task 3 Working on recommended literature</p>
Forms of self-control Observing, written check	<p>Maximum point from the topic 1 point</p> <p>Students mark</p>
Teachers Signature;	

Teaching technology on the subject “Typology”

Seminar 10	The Typological Category of Plurality in English and Uzbek /Russian languages
Plan	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The cross level means of expression: morphological, lexical, syntactic; 2. The cross-class means of expression in the systems of the noun, verb, adjective, pronoun, numeral, functional parts of speech.
Results of the lesson	<p>Ability to explain what is word-combination</p> <p>Syntactic level paradigm</p> <p>Having full understanding of types of word-combinations</p> <p>Ability to clarify the new terms meanings</p>
Tasks for self-study	<p>Task 1 Being acquainted with the lecture materials and answering questions</p> <p>Task 2 Self-control questions</p> <p>Task 3 Working on recommended literature</p>
Forms of self-control Observing, written check	<p>Maximum point from the topic</p> <p>1 point</p> <p>Students mark</p>

SEMINAR -1

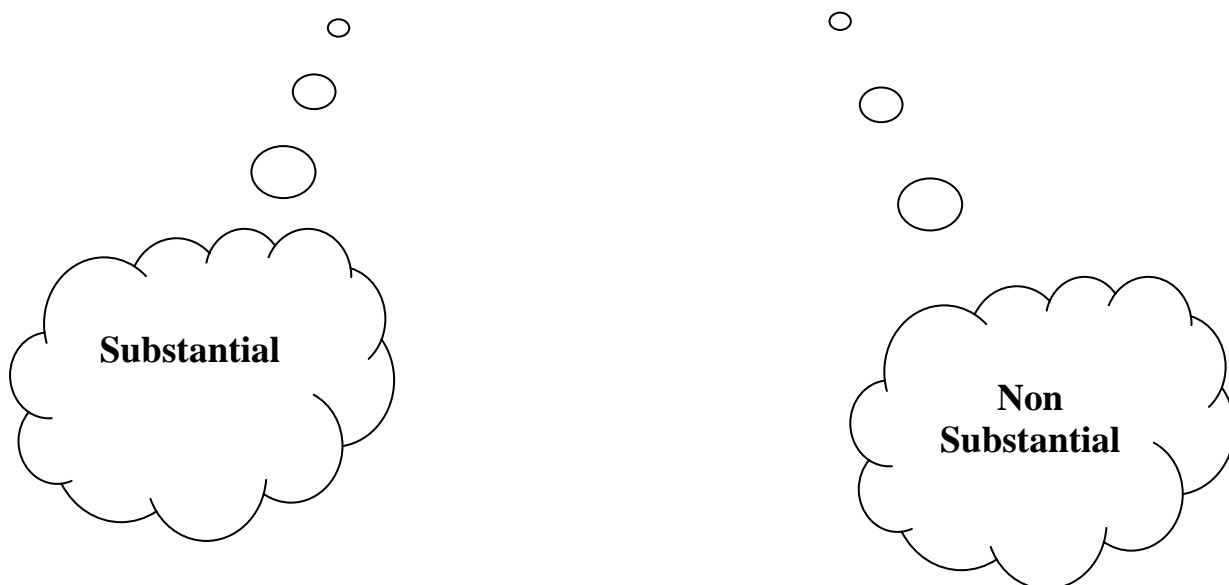
I. Linguistic Typology as a subject''

- 1.Types of scientific comparison*
- 2.Branches of General typology.*
- 3.Types of non-linguistic typology*
- 4.Subject-matter of Linguistic typology*
- 5.Various approaches toward definition of Linguistic typology.*

Linguistic typology

Typology as a method of scientific study is characteristic to many fields of scientific knowledge because the taxonomic description, classification and systemic comparison of various objects are universal methods of cognition and apply to both non-linguistic and linguistic sciences. Taxonomy is a science studying theory of classification and systemizing.

Basic types of scientific comparison



a) Substantial comparison deals with comparison of real objects materializing substances, e.g. sounds, digits, numbers, etc.

b) Non-substantial comparison deals with comparison of systems and their elements (e.g. phonemes, morphemes).

At the early stages of development of typology as a science the major role belonged to substantial comparison which is considered primary. Yuri Rojdenstvenskiy' wrote that "...in General linguistics the relations between language systems base on substantial features. The languages were considered cognate because the linguists found principal similarity in their substance: sound and content".

Non-substantial comparison played a significant role in shaping typology as an independent science.

Branches of General typology

As a method of scientific cognition General typology binds Non-linguistic and Linguistic typologies. Both of them have general strategies, objectives and principles of identifying isomorphic and allomorphic features of substances, phenomena, facts, etc.

Non-linguistic typology

As a method typology is used in law, math, history, botany, economy, psychology, etc. General and solitary differences and similarities are typical to all sciences. Some branches isolate systemic comparison into an independent sub-branch within the frames of a more general science: e.g. comparative psychology first mentioned in the works of Aristotle who described psychological similarities between animals and human beings. One the most well-known representatives of *Comparative Psychology* was Charles Darwin.

Comparative Pedagogy deals with general and distinctive features, development trends and prospective of theory, applied instruction and upbringing methods, reveals their economic, social political and philosophic backgrounds.

Historical typology analyses historic facts and produces comparative inventory based on the history of each nation/ethnicity to reveal general trends, differences and similarities. E.g. based on French revolution of 1848 the major signs of revolutionary situation were revealed.

Literary criticism (сравнительное литературоведение) got rapid development in the second half of XIX century simultaneously with development of comparative linguistics. In Russia the representatives of comparative linguistics were P.M. Samarin, V.M. Jirmunskiy, M.P. Alekseev, N.I. Conrad, I.G. Neupokoeva, etc.

The two sciences — Linguistic typology and Literary criticism have a number of similarities: a) linguistic comparison deals with identifying universal principles of comparative description of the systems of national languages while Literary criticism establishes general principles of typological description of national literatures; b) both sciences deal with identifying systemic signs (системные признаки) and discover typological isomorphism which can be conditioned structurally, genetically and geographically, etc.

The subject-matter of Linguistic Typology

Linguistic typology is a branch of general linguistics. There is no unanimity in defining the subject matter of linguistic typology. There are broad and narrow interpretations of its subject matter. James Ellis² includes theory of translation, dialectology and borrowings to the bulk of Linguistic typology. These branches do have relations to Linguistic typology but also constitute the subject-matter of other special fields of knowledge.

There is a great variety of terms: areal linguistics, structural linguistics, characterology, language universals, translational grammar, comparative philology, contrastive linguistics, confrontational linguistics, etc.

With further development of linguistic science scholars start differentiating the terms "comparison" and "confrontation". While comparative method implied comparison of cognate /related languages, confrontational method was derived to denote comparison of genetically non-related languages.

Roman Jakobson contributed to the definition of subject-matter of Linguistic typology stating that "Genetic method deals with relationship of languages, areal method deals with similarities while typological method deals with isomorphism"³.

Isomorphism can unite various statuses of languages, both synchronically and diachronically or statuses of 2 different languages, areally close or distant; genetically related and non-related.

Definition of the subject-matter of Linguistic Typology

The most popular definition of the subject matter seems to be "Linguistic typology is a branch of general linguistics, field of study aiming at identifying such similarities and distinctive features of languages that do not depend on genetic origin or influence of languages to one another. Typology strives to identify and look at the most significant features that affect other spheres of language systems, e.g. the way of junction of meaningful parts of the word or the so-called structure of the sentence in the language". Typological studies base on materials of representative sampling (репрезентативная выборка) from many world languages, so that the findings and conclusions made on the results of such analysis can be applied to the entire majority of languages (in cases of linguistic universals).

Linguistic typology shows special interest to the so-called exotic or non-studied languages, e.g. languages of ethnicities of South-East Asia, Africa, Ocean side or American Indian tribes. Still the data of well-known, expanded and well-studied languages may to the similar extent become the subject matter of a typological study.

Linguistic typology not only systemizes, generalizes and classifies the facts of language isomorphism and allomorphism but also explains them.

The majority of prestigious linguistic theories have their own typological agenda aimed at theoretical analysis of structurally different languages, their location and genetic origin.

As we talk of the different standpoints in defining Linguistic typology as a science we distinguish two major approaches:

a) Linguistic typology is an independent science covering all types of comparison of language systems. In this sense Linguistic typology fully coincides with Comparative Linguistics;

b) Linguistic typology is a part of Comparative Linguistics. It is opposed to traditional Comparative Historical Linguistics, Characterology and Areal linguistics. In that sense it coincides with Structural typology.

Quantitative limitation of the number of compared languages is of primary significance while defining the subject matter of Linguistic typology. There is no unanimity on that issue. Some scholars support unlimited number of compared languages aiming at identifying linguistic universals. They consider that the results of comparative study should tend for universality.

Other scholars assume that a limited number of genetically related languages should be compared. Finally the last group of scholars argues that the number can be as minimum as 2 languages. The reason of all this ambiguity is in an unclear approach to the principles of classifying Linguistic typology into branches.

Yu.Rojdestvenskiy, V.Ghak, B.Uspenskiy contributed a lot to elaboration of subject matter of Linguistic typology.

The basis of Linguistic Typology is constituted by Structural Typology which has the following parts: 1) Typological Classification; 2) Linguistic Universals; 3) Etalon Language; 4) Typological Theory.

The general definition of Linguistic typology implies that it unites various types of comparison of language systems. Genetic, Areal and Typological comparisons built into 3 aspects of general comparison process. These methods do not contradict but complement each other.

The types of linguistic comparison can thus be illustrated as follows;

- 1.genetic/genealogical or historic comparison/reconstruction of common archi/pra-
- 2.forms of genetically related languages. Special attention should be paid to closely and distantly related languages.
- 3.typological comparison of systems and sub-systems of languages: a) related; b) non-related; c) structurally similar; d) structurally non-similar.

Areal Linguistics: comparison of neighboring languages;

Dominant classification by Melnikov defining language types based on dominant features.⁵

Linguistic diversity

As of early 2007, there are 6,912 known living human languages." A "living language" is simply the one which is in wide use by a specific group of living people. The exact number of known living languages will vary from 5,000 to 10,000, depending generally on the precision of one's definition of "language", and in particular on how one classifies dialects. There are also many dead or extinct languages.

Taxonomy /Principles of classification of world languages

The classification of natural languages can be performed on the basis of different underlying principles (different closeness notions, respecting different properties and relations between languages). Important directions of present classifications are:

- *paying attention to the historical evolution of languages which results in a genetic classification of languages based on genetic relatedness of languages;
- *paying attention to the internal structure of languages (grammar) results in a

typological classification of languages which is based on similarity of one or more components of the language's grammar across languages;

respecting geographical closeness and contacts between language-speaking communities results in areal groupings of languages.

The different classifications do not match each other and are not expected to, but the correlation between them is an important point for many linguistic research works. (There is a parallel to the classification of species in biological phylogenetics).

The task of genetic classification belongs to the field of historical-Comparative linguistics or linguistic typology.

The systems of vowel phonemes in English and Uzbek

From the acoustic point of view vowels are speech sounds of pure musical tone. 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.

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 tongue; c) according to the position of lips; d) according to quality (length) of vowels.

The Systems of Consonant' phonemes in the English and Uzbek languages

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 by the following principles;

1. The manner of production
2. The active organs employed in the production
3. The place of production

Some of the English consonants 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 [K X, F]

Many consonants have their counterparts in the languages compared, but they differ in their articulation.

Parts of Speech in the English and Uzbek languages

The word is known as the smallest naming unit of the language. According to Leonard Bloomfield⁸, *the 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 grammatical employment and is therefore simultaneously a semantic, grammatical and phonological unit.

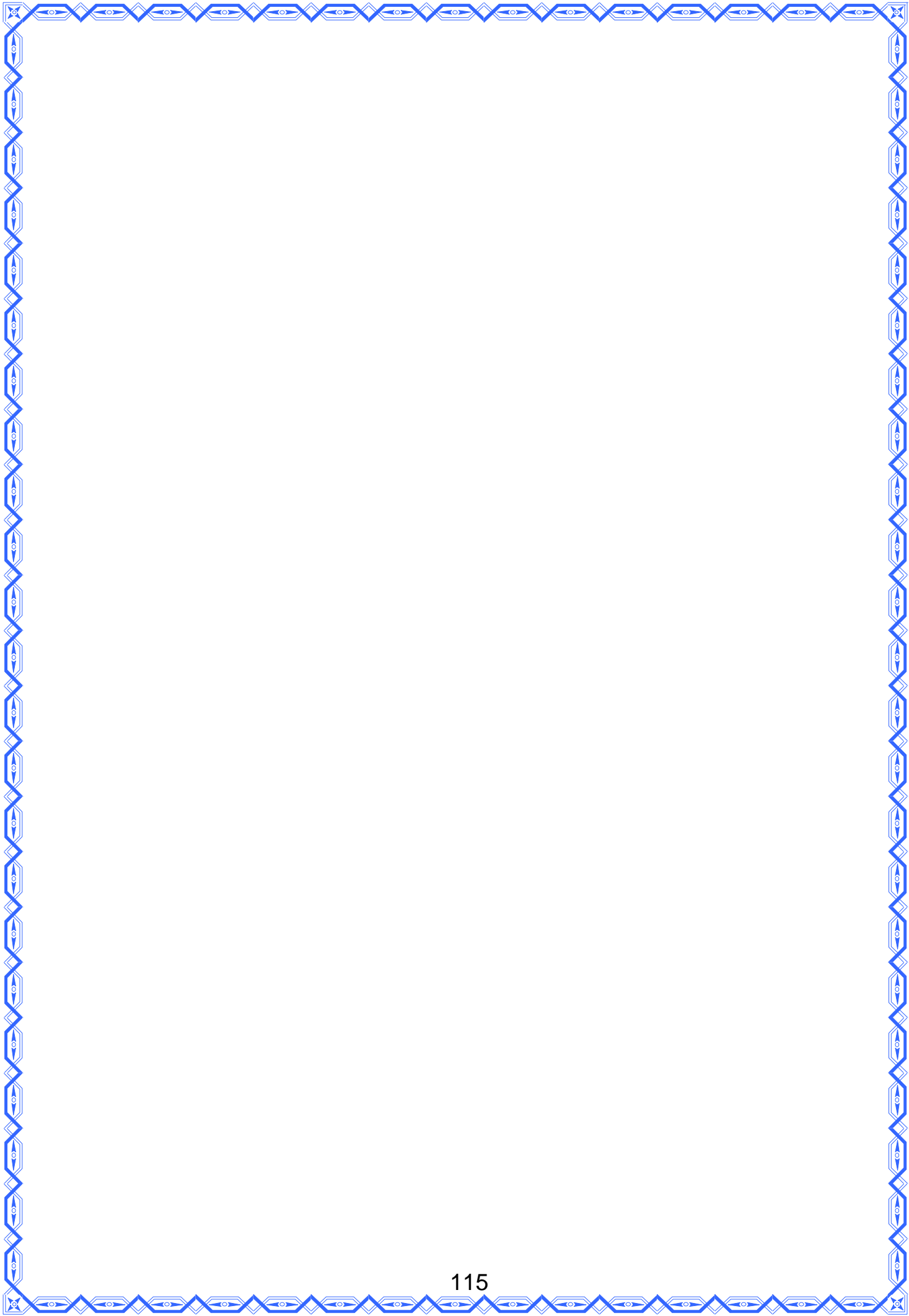
The words of every language fall into classes which are called parts of speech. The problem of parts of speech is one of the most controversial problems of modern linguistics. The theoretical side of this problem is the subject matter of the theoretical grammar therefore we should base our comparison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

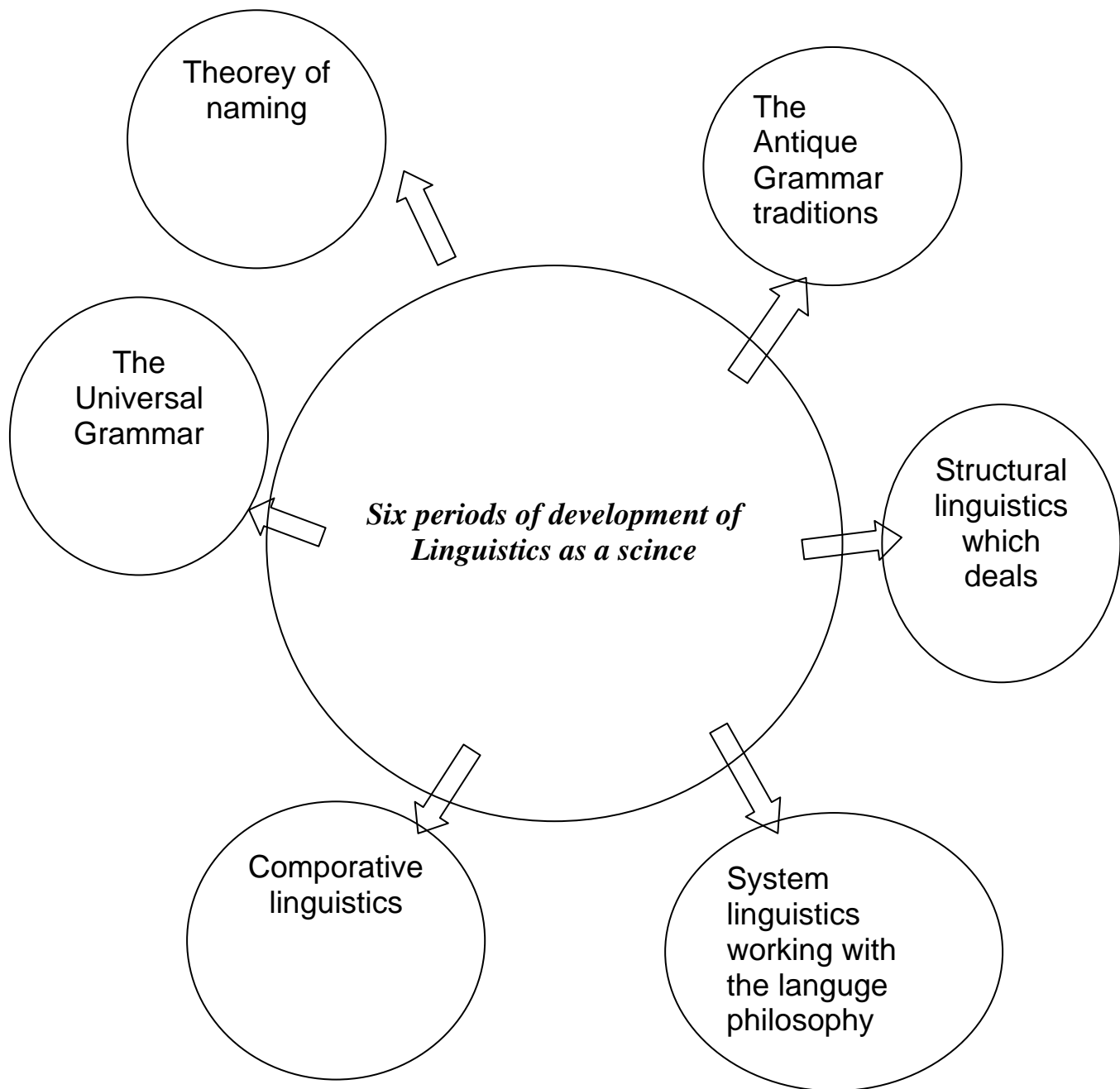
In order to make it easier to learn the language the grammarians usually divide the word-stock of the language into some subclasses called in linguistics "the parts of speech" or in other terminology *"the lexico-grammatical classes of words "*.

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 and grammatical meanings, e.g. verbs denote process or state; nouns express the names of objects, adjectives their properties, etc.

SEMINAR-2

- 1.The History of Linguistic comparison.*
- 2.The Major factors fostering development of Linguistic typology.*
- 3.Discussion on different classifications/periodization of the history of Linguistic comparison and factors of its development*
- 4. Small group discussions.*





Stages of Development of Linguistic typology

In the beginning of its development Linguistic typology tried to respond the issue of what could serve the basis for classifying the languages into "more primitive" and "more developed". But very soon it became clear that this starting point was incorrect: it turned to be impossible to make a judgment on the level of development of a language basing on its typological characteristics. Absolutely different languages can fall into the same structural type, e.g. English or modern Chinese languages are perfectly developed and have the richest literature. Still they belong to the same type with the language of Tzin folks residing in the North of China and having no letter. Moreover, one and the same language in the course of its development can several times change its structure. E.g. the history of French can be classified into early Indo-European and isolated, late Indo-European flexional, analytical mid-French, and practically isolated modern oral French.

With appearance of such discoveries linguists became disappointed in typology. This disappointment lasted through the mid- XXth century when Linguistic typology witnessed its second birth. Contemporary Linguistic typology does not deal with separate language phenomenon or elements but with the systems of languages, e.g. phonological, grammatical or lexical.

The history of linguistic comparison

The questions of timing the history of linguistic comparison are quite complicated and are the ones which haven't yet found their final solution. The history of linguistic comparison is an integral part of linguistic science development, history of linguistics per se which is in its turn bound with the history of nation and cognition. Yet there are no generally accepted criteria for timing the history of development of linguistics.

In "**the** Essays on the History of Linguistics" by *Amirova T.A., Rojdestvenskiy Yu.V, Olkhovikov B.A.* six periods are defined for the history of development of linguistics

as a science. As all of them imply systemic comparison, this classification can be to a large extent applied to linguistic typology.

- I. Theory of naming in Antique philosophy. It established the rules of naming in the frames of philosophy. It also looked at relations between the names and the objects of reality. There were 2 main schools of philosophers who supported opposite standpoints (analogists and anomalists) on the nature of names, (motivated and non-motivated names). As the theory of naming did not contain a specialized knowledge on language it was not included into general linguistics;
- II. The Antique Grammar traditions of West and East. Theory of grammar emerged at this time. It describes language system through establishing relations between linguistic names (and some other parts of language). At this period the basic primary grammatical categories — parts of speech were distinguished and described: the names such as the noun (proper and common), the adjective; the numeral; the verb, the pronoun. Also some secondary grammatical categories, i.e. the categories of parts of speech were identified: the category of number, gender, case, mood, etc.
- III. The Universal Grammar (the first period of scientific linguistics) reveals common features of language structures basing on the comparison of languages with different typological structure.
- IV Comparative linguistics. That period falls into 3 stages: a) Comparative Historical linguistics dealing with the study of genetic similarities and relations of languages; b) Comparative Typological linguistics dealing with language study and identifying language types irrespectively of their cultural historic origin; c) theory of linguistics which forms philosophy of language and serves the basis of General linguistics.
- V. System linguistics working with the language philosophy, basically with psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics.
- VI. Structural linguistics which deals: a) study of the language internal structure, formulates between language and other sign systems; 2) elaborates the theory of linguistic methods and strategies thus creating basis for linguistic modeling .

Dr. Buranov J. identifies 4 periods in the history of typological studies: 1) Spontaneous or evolutionary. It begins with the emergence of the first linguistic works. That period was over not long before the Renaissance. In Ancient Greece the language was studied in the frames of philosophy. The major issue which was in the focus of discussion was correlation of substances to their names. Still already in the works of Protagoras and Aristotle there are statements related to distinguishing words, word combinations, linguistic categories like gender, case, number, definition of the sentence, classification of words into names and actions /parts of speech. These works served the basis for distinguishing linguistics into an independent science.

E.g. many scholars, while compiling grammars of separate languages used the models of the languages with already described grammatical structures. (The principle of analogy). For example, while compiling the first English grammars the models of Latin were widely used.

The first grammars for the European languages were based on the Latin Grammars.

2) The second period is characterized as a period of establishing the first scientific comparison of languages and this period is related to the General and Rational Grammar: Port-Royal Grammar by Arnauld A., Lancelot C.,¹⁴ (XVII c.) in Indo-European languages. Port-Royal Grammar can be considered one of the most precious contributions into development of Linguistic typology. It was developed by 2 French monks in the small abbey Port-Royal in the suburbs of Paris (published in 1660).

It is the synthesis of linguistic and philosophic ideas of that time. The languages (French, Latin. Greek and ancient Jewish/ Ides) with different genealogic origin and typological structure were compared basing on the criteria and principles elaborated by Arnauld A. and C. Lancelot

Comparative study of Turkic language has its own history. Divan-Lugat At-Turk by Mahmud Kashgariy is considered the most solid work on linguistic comparison

of Turkic languages. Mahmud Kashgariy analyzed phonetic, grammatical and lexical units of a group of Turkic languages and defined the level of their genetic relation to each other. Further development of comparative study can be traced in appearance of glossaries and dictionaries, e.g. Turkic-Mongol-Persian dictionary-compiled in Egypt (1245), Latin-Persian Kypchak dictionary (Kumanikus Code, XII c), and other works. One of the most prominent work is the poem of Alisher Navoi "Muhokamatul ai-Lugatain" (Debate of two languages) written in 1499. Navoi compares lexical, grammatical and word building specificities of 2 genetically non-related languages: old Uzbek and Persian. Navoi reveals a number of language specificities of Uzbek which did not have direct correspondences in Persian, e.g. suffixes of reflexivity, reciprocity, causation, modality, comparativeness, etc.

3) The third period is related to development of comparative historical linguistics, genealogical and typological classification of languages, (mid- XIX c.)

Linguistic typology has been developing step by step using descriptive and comparative grammars. Thus Linguistic typology can be considered one of the most ancient but simultaneously the least developed branch of linguistics.

The Comparative Historical linguistics can be considered the next step of scientific comparison. The representatives of that field elaborated a complicated system of scientific tools for precise comparison and restoring the origins of languages on phonetic, and morphological levels. At that time the classic genealogical and typological classification of the majority of known languages of the world were developed by various authors.(brothers Shlegel, Sapir, etc.).

The Indo-European languages were studied by prominent scholars of the XIXth c. F. Bopp, J. Grimm, Carl Brugman, F. Ditz, Rasmus Rask, A. Vostokov, F. Mis-telli, F.Fink, E. Sapir, Bodwen de Courtene, E.Polivanov, I. Meschaninov.

Since XVII c. the comparative study of Turkic languages was in the focus of the works of F. Tabbert-Stralenberg, O. Beotlikk, V. Radlov, M. Ryasyanen, G. Ramst-edt, N. Dmitriev and others.

4) The 4th period is related to establishing of Linguistic typology as a separate science with the bulk of General linguistics. It coincides with the XX century.

In the former Soviet Union the most developed and popular field of comparative study was comparison of Russian and national languages. The major material for comparison served numerous translations of Russian classics into national languages. Lexicography has also got considerable development. At that time the first national grammars were compiled basing on the grammar of the Russian language, e.g. the first Uzbek Grammar by Evgeniy Polivanov" used the system of Russian grammar for description: system of parts of speech, cases, numbers, etc.

Major factors fostering development of Linguistic typology

The science of linguistic comparison was developing quite slowly and a number of factors played an important role to foster that process.

I. The first factor is typological imitation. It is the use of certain methods or models of one language while describing the system of another language. For example the first Latin grammar "De Lingua Latina" (117-27 BC) by Varron" was compiled with the use of the ancient Greek language grammars compiled by Greek philosophers. Varron distinguished six cases (5 in Latin), article and seven parts of speech.

The first English Grammars were later compiled on the model of "De Lingua Latina" where Latin served a meta or etalon language .

Also while studying certain categories of one language scholars very often use the models of more researched languages, e.g. the ancient Indian models of compound words are used to describe many European languages (dvandva, tatpuruṣa, dvigu, etc.).

II. The second factor is the appearance of scientific comparative works. Language comparison started with comparison of two languages. Later there appeared multi language comparisons based on substantial similarity i.e. mainly genetically related languages or groups of languages were compared. The next stage was comparison of genetically non-related languages. Structural similarity is related to identity of structure and types of languages in the principles of their organization. Some languages have both genetic and structural identity. Usually these are genetically related languages.

Currently the most elaborated part of linguistic comparison is grammatical typology. Its component - morphological typology is based on the study of morphemic structure typical for certain languages. A more systemic comparison starts with the Port Royal Grammar where French, Latin, Greek and ancient Jewish/Ides languages were analyzed. The latter did not have material identity with the rest three languages. The Port Royal Grammar was extremely popular and gave an impetus to rapid development of comparative studies.

3. The third factor of development of comparative language studies is the study of unknown languages or the ones with no letter. There is an enormous bulk of research done on the material of folks and tribes of Latin America, Asia, Africa, Australia, Oceania. The process of study of these languages started with defining the level of their relationship to other, known languages and with the comparison of their systems with the Indo-European languages.

IV. The fourth factor is the influence of the translation and translation science. Any process of translation deals with a kind of comparison of the language of origin and the language of translation. A translator needs to deal with comparison of the style, grammatical structure, etc.

V. The fifth factor is the influence of lexicography. The appearance of dictionaries was bound with applied need to transform and compare languages and national cultures. While compiling bi or multi lingual dictionaries a lexicographer

conducts comparison of all levels of linguistic hierarchy: phonetic units, grammatical structure, lexical units, word formation, punctuation, etc.

VI. The sixth factor is practical and theoretical study and teaching of foreign languages. While studying/ teaching a foreign language a learner/teacher very often goes for comparison of the units of his/her native language with the system of a foreign one.

SEMINAR -3

1. Major parameters identifying the branches of Linguistic typology:

- *System/Structural identity;*
- *Genetic identity;*
- *Quantitative limitation/non-limitation; —*
Areal limitation;
- *Etic/emic identity*
- *Deep and Surface identity*
- *One level approach to comparison;*
- *Cross-level approach to comparison;*
- *Content approach;*
- *Formal approach;*
- *Limitation of etalon language;*
- *Completion of typological operations*

*Genetic
identity*

*System/Structu
ral identity*

*Completion
of
typological
operations*

*Quantitative
limitation/non-
limitation*

*Limitation of
etalon
language*

*Major parameters
identifying the
branches of Linguistic
typology*

*Areal
limitation*

*Formal
approach*

*Etic\ emic
identity*

*Deep and
Surface
identity*

*Content
approach*

*One level
approach to
comparision*

*Cross-level
approach to
comparision*

Major Parameters identifying the Branches of Linguistic typology

The scholars who contributed to elaboration of major parameters of Linguistic typology are Roman Jakobson, Vazlav Skaliczka, Joseph Greenberg, Boris Uspenskiy, Yuri Rojdestvenskiy, Vladimir Ghak, etc.

- I. System/Structural identity
- II. Genetic identity
- V. Quantitative limitation/non-limitation
- VI. Areal limitation
- V. Etic/emic identity
- VI. Deep and Surface identity
- VII. One level approach to comparison
- VIII. Cross-level approach to comparison
- IX. Content approach
- X. Formal approach
- XI. Limitation of ctalon language
- XII. Completion of typological operations.

I. *System/Structural identity* implies identity of language types. Here we should distinguish between type of language and type in language.

a) The type of language is related to structural/typological classification of languages is meant. The most popular classification of language types includes: agglutinating, flexional, isolative and polysynthetic languages. These types are identified based on the unity of leading structural features;

b) The type IN language is related to the structural features typical for a certain language. E.g. the degree of synthetism/analytism of grammatical forms, presence of phonetic changes, agglutination, inclusion/ exclusion of grammatical morphemes

II. *The Genetic identity* means historically conditioned material identity of cross language elements characterized by both etic and emic identity

III. *Quantitative limitation* of compared languages: a) maximal limitation (2 languages); b) Minimal limitation (open list of languages); c) limitation by a certain language type (e.g. by agglutination in Turkish and Hungarian languages); d) limitation by geographic location; e) by a certain type of linguistic universal, etc.

IV. *Areal limitation/non-limitation* looks at the expansion of a certain linguistic phenomenon which is geographically conditioned (Centum and Satem languages, study of dialects, sub-stratum and super-stratum languages).

V. *Etic/emic identity*. Etic identity means coincidence of material units of languages with relevant abstract units: e.g. grammatical category of number "-(e)s" ■ suffix (etic level) + morpheme (emic level);

VI. *Deep and surface identity*.

Surface structure includes all material units of a language. Surface structure units may belong to different levels of hierarchy. For example, English category of definiteness may be expressed by articles and demonstrative pronouns.

Deep structure is a generalized language meaning lying in the basis of compared languages. Deep structure may be of three types: a) minimal or internal language structure; b) typological deep structure, c) maximal deep structure.

Minimal deep structure characterizes the units of content plan of a separate language. Each language has its own categorial notions, e.g. categories of definiteness/indefiniteness, transitivity, etc. which constitute a deep structure of that particular language. In such category as definiteness/indefiniteness in Turkic languages is not expressed by articles, while in German, Romance and other languages the article is very important.

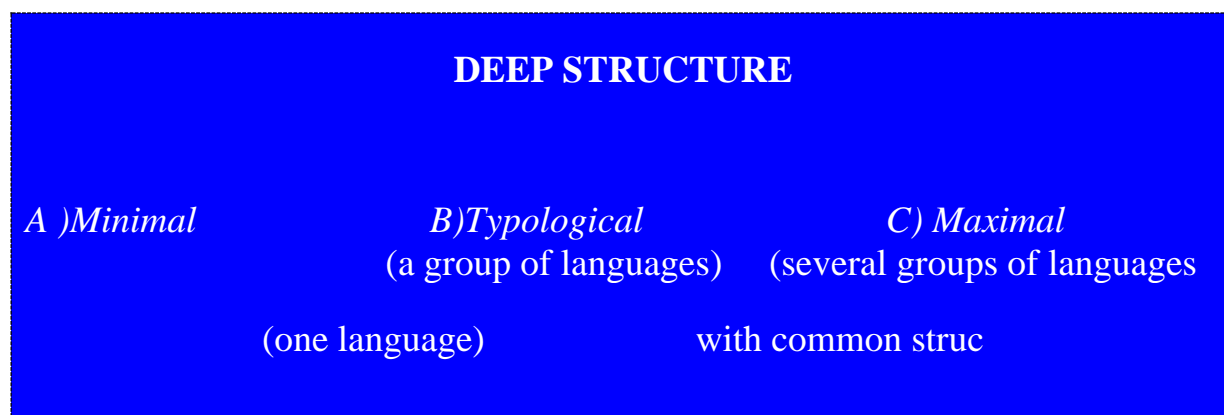
Typological deep structure is characteristic to the groups of genetically or structurally related languages.

This deep structure may be sub-divided into two types: a) typological deep structure with etic-emic organized surface, b) typological deep structure with emic organized surface.

a) Typological deep structure is with etic-emic organized surface correlates with Genetic typology and is typical for closely related languages. Substantial or etic correspondence at the same time stipulates emic conformity. But we should say that not every language of the same genetic group can have maximal coincidence of the surface structure units. For example, modern German languages stay far from each other in material conformity. Regarding modern Turkic languages there is a lot of material/substantial conformity.

On the basis of etic-emic organization in every language family or language group special areal groups are distinguished.

Maximal deep structure is a common deep structure peculiar to several language types: e.g. analytism /synthetism



1. *One level approach to comparison or level isolation.* It is effective when comparing closely related languages which have similar level means to express the same categorial notion. E.g. Morpheme of plurality: Uzb -лар, -каз, -дар, -тар, -нар; Азәр. -ләр refer to the same level- morphological.

2. *Cross-level approach* is opposed to level isolation and used to identify cross-level correspondences. For example, how can we compare the category of reflexivity in English and Russian when English does not have a grammatical category of reflexivity? In such cases other level units are used to find correspondences (e.g. self pronouns, etc.)

3. *Content approach to comparison* is used in case of notional, typological categories, lexical-grammatical fields, etc. when common categorial meaning serves the base for identification and comparison.

4. *Formal approach to comparison* is related to comparison of language units of the formal level: graphics, transcription, formal structure of syllabus, sentence, punctuation, alphabet, etc.

5. *Limitation of etalon language*. Etalon language is the object of study for typological theory. It represents all languages of the world in one language. For applied purposes scholars distinguish 2 types of etalon language: (1) maximum and (2) minimum; (1) is used to identify linguistic universals; (2) has a very applied character : any grammatical or lexical category, linguistic phenomenon, certain features of a language might serve etalon or instrument for comparison. E.g. Latin was used for compiling first English and French Grammars. Some scholars prefer the term *meta-language*.⁹

6 *Completion of typological operations*. Any typological operation has 2 stages: a) synthesis; b) correspondence. Typological operation maybe complete or incomplete or limited/unlimited. Limitation may be by the number of compared languages, levels of hierarchy, etc. It depends on the purposes of comparison and research.

a) In both languages there is a possibility to express age on the morphological level, but in English morpheme -ies cannot be used with any other morpheme while in Uzbek other morphemes can be added to -lar, thus showing that English refers to flexional languages according to its structure and Uzbek is an agglutinating language. The above example illustrates structural non-identity of compared languages.

b. *Examples of genetic identity/non-identity* in the group of Turkic and/or Indo-European languages using the category of numerals.

In genetically closely related languages etic and emic identity is observed as is seen in the above table, while etic non-identity is observed in genetically non-related languages.

c. Examples of Etic/Emic and Deep and Surface identity /non-identity for the group of Turkic languages (Uzbek, Kazakh, Kyrgyz, etc.) or Turkic and English.

In Turkic languages there is both etic and emic identity (-lar - -ler) are used as morphemes of plurality.

If compare the Turkic and English languages, there is no identity on the etic level (the level of material units of the language), but there is an identity on the emic level as in both languages plurality is expressed by the inflexional morphemes.

d Examples of One level and Cross-level approach to comparison: the categorial notion of gender in Russian/Uzbek and English languages.

When comparing the Russian and English, or Russian and Uzbek languages using one level approach, in particular, isolate the morphological level, it will be impossible as there is no grammatical category of gender both in English and in Uzbek. But it becomes possible to compare Russian/Uzbek and English if we apply the cross-level approach to comparison and go up to the lexical, lexical-grammatical and or syntactic levels of linguistic hierarchy.

e. Examples of Content and Formal approach to comparison English and Uzbek/Russian languages using: 1) the system of alphabets; 2) the notion of color in compared languages.

e. 1. When comparing the system of alphabets, formal approach is utilized as the alphabets refer to the units of expression plan of the languages.

E.g.

There are 26 letters in English ABC inclusive of 6 vowels and 20 consonants.

There are 33 letters in Russian ABC inclusive of 11 vowels and 22 consonants.

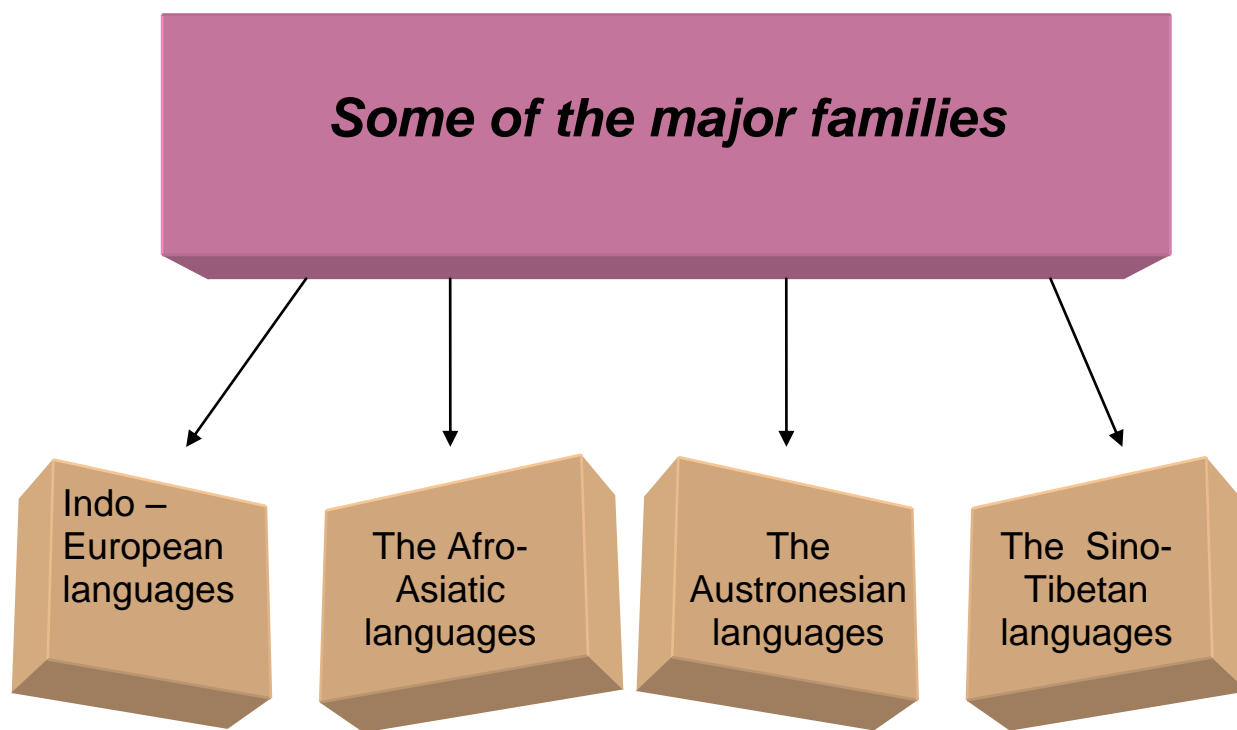
e.2. When comparing such notions as *color* it is feasible to base on the content plan and compare such languages as English and Russian/Uzbek going from meaning

(color in this case) to the forms of its expression in the compared languages, thus using content approach.

In all the three compared languages color can be expressed on lexical and syntactic levels. For example.

Only in Uzbek the morphological way of formation of color is used, in particular, repetition: qip-qizil, ko'm-ko'k, yam-yashil, etc.

/ *Examples on the complete typological operation* where the meta/etalon language of comparison is the category of number in Turkic languages (Uzbek, Kazakh, Kyrgyz, etc.).



Genetic/Genealogical typology

Genealogical typology is a branch of linguistic typology which studies the similarities and diversities of related languages. Genealogical typology developed from the Comparative - Historical linguistics which dominated during the 19th century in Europe. It started with the works of Jacob Grimm, Franz Bopp, Rasmus Rask, Alexander Vostokov, V.M.Jirmunskiy, etc.

Its origin was stipulated by 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 sisterhood of familiar European languages:

e.g. Sanskrit «mata» means «mother», in the accusative case «matarum»

Dvau-two, Trayah - three

As ti - he is, etc.

Before the discovery of Sanskrit European linguistics possessed a very vague vision of the origin of languages and similarities observed among European languages as the current grammars of that time were built on the Greek model. They didn't set clearly the features of each language. It is worth to mention that at the same time discovery of Sanskrit brought a certain confusion to the notions of linguistic relations. But later it gave way to the correct explanation, namely Latin, Greek and other European languages go back to the same pre-historical language, Sanskrit.

Genetic Typology compares the systems of languages in two ways: *diachronically and synchronically*.

Comparison of languages gave grounds for the two kinds of classification of languages - genealogical and morphological/structural.

Traditional Comparative Historical Linguistics studied material units of languages: sounds, affixes, words in their dynamics and dealt with reconstruction of selected units in compared languages.

Genetic typology has the following distinctive features:

- h) genetic limitation of compared languages;
- i) system identity in closely related languages;
- j) closed list of compared languages;
- k) areal non-limitation;
- l) etic/emic identity of compared languages;
- m) deep and surface identity of compared languages;
- n) one level approach to comparison; h) limited etalon language;
- i) possibility of a complete typological operation.

Genealogical classification of languages²¹

The Genealogical/Genetic classification deals with the family relationship of languages which descend from one common ancestor language. It distributes languages into different families and groups of related languages. According to

*Genetic classification the world's languages have been grouped into families of languages that are believed to have common ancestors. Some of the major families are the **Indo-European languages, the Afro-Asiatic languages, the Austronesian languages, and the Sino-Tibetan languages.***

The shared features of languages from one family can be due to shared ancestry. We find that languages are related to each other both in the material they possess (words etc.) as well as in the method by which they express themselves (syntax). It seems that the languages of one group are all traceable to a 'common ancestor', and that each has varied according to the environment in which it found itself. Thus the obvious similarity what are known as the Aryan languages of India points to such a common ancestry. Similarly English, German, Dutch and Danish are traceable to another such common ancestor and so also French, Italian and Spanish to a third common ancestor. Going one step further back, we can trace each three ancestors to a type which was, in turn, the ancestor of all these three and that ancestor is known as 'Indo-European family'. This classification is clearly explained by the term "Genealogical classification of languages".

Indo-European family is important for understanding historical linguistic method as well as for knowledge of the interrelationship of the world's most widely known and spoken languages. Moreover, because of the political and economic role of the speaker using languages belonging to it.

The Indo-European family is probably the most important and the most widely used today The Indo-European languages are divided into two main groups known as 'Centum' and 'Satem' groups. This two-fold division was formulated by Ascoli first; it was thought that this division marked out the Western and the Eastern languages. *The Eastern languages are labeled as 'Satem 'and the Western as Centum.*

Satem Group: Indo-iranian, formerly also called Aryan or Indo-Aryan, is the name of this sub-group which was carried to the area of India and Iran. It consists

of two sub-groups Indic and Iranian of which the former is more important, for materials in Iranian date from a considerably later period and are less abundant.

The essential Indic material is contained in the Rigveda, a collection of hymns which is as large as Iliad and Odyssey combined. As Rigveda and other vedas were considered sacred, they were memorized and transmitted orally for many generations.

The language of vedas became obsolete and difficult to interpret. Their devotees prepared commentaries.

Besides Sanskrit there existed spoken languages called Prakrits. Moreover, the classical works of Indian literature were composed in Sanskrit such as "Ramayana" and "Mahabharata". We have three stages of "Indic-vedic Sanskrit, the language of approximately 1200-800 BC; the classical Sanskrit, succeeding it and standardized approximately 400 BC and the Prakrits. Vedic and classical Sanskrit are often referred to as Old Indian, and the Prakrits as Middle Indic which may date about 400 BC to 1000 AD. The Middle Indic dialect on which we have most information is Pali; the language in which Buddhist canon is preserved. At the end of the Middle Indic period we have materials known as Apabhramshas meaning 'off-branching'. From Apabhramshas developed the modern Indic dialects. Most widely spoken of these is Hindi. Others are Urdu, Bengali, Gujarati, Marathi, Punjabi, Sinhalese in Ceylon and Romany, the language of Gypsies.

1. IRANIAN: Iranian materials are as old as Iranian before 300 BC and handed down to us in two dialects - Avestan and Old Persian. The Avesta is the sacred book of Zoroastrian religion. Its oldest poems Gathas are dated approximately 600 BC and are as archaic in language as those of Rigveda though much more troubled, in transmission and accordingly very difficult to interpret. Old Persian is preserved in the inscription of Darius (521-486 BC) and Xerxes (486-465 BC). The inscriptions of greatest importance are a long triangular text in Old Persian, Akkadian and Elamite which was chiseled on a stone cliff at Behistan, Iran.

Middle Iranian may be dated approximately from 300 BC to 900 AD. Its various representatives are attested. Middle Persian or Pahlavi was the language of the Persian empire from AD 300 to 900. Sogdian in the further east and Saka or Sarmatian in the north were spoken, and are not completely described these days.

Various Iranian languages are still in use at present such as Baluchi of West Pakistan, Pashto or Afghan, the official language of Afghanistan, Persian, the language of Iran, Kurdish, a language of Western Iran and Turkey, Ossetic in the northern Caucasus and various others. In many other areas Iranian languages have been displaced by Turkic dialects. Since the dialects of two groups are spoken in much of Southern Asia, Indo-Iranian has remained one of the most prominent sub-groups in the Indo-European family.

2. ARMENIAN: Until the 5th century AD we have no materials on Armenian. It was located on Southern Caucasus and Western Turkey. Oldest Armenian materials are almost exclusive translations of Christian writings. The language of these texts is Old or Classical Armenian, which was maintained until the 19th century. Modern Armenian exists in two branches: the Eastern, spoken in the USSR and Iran, and the Western spoken in Turkey.

Armenian has been heavily influenced by other languages, mainly Iranian and until 19th century there was doubt whether it should be classed or not as an Iranian dialect.

6. ALBANIAN: The early history of Albanian is even more adequate. Before 1685, when a Latin-Albanian dictionary was compiled, we had few materials. This dictionary was followed by religious translations and collection of folk in the 19th century. There are two dialects - Geg in the north and Tosk in the south. Like Armenian, Albanian has undergone many changes influenced by Latin, Greek, Slavic and Turkish. It has been considered as a modern representative of Illyrian or Thracian.

7. BALTO SLAVIC: This group consists of two large sub-groups - Baltic and Slavic. Three principal languages make up the Baltic group - Old Prussian, Lithu-

anian and Latvian or Lettish. Old Prussian is extinct today but Lithuanian and Latvian are still spoken along the southern coast of the Baltic sea.

8.The SLAVIC languages spoken today are classified in three groups: South, West and East Slavic. South Slavic comprises Bulgarian, Serbo-Croatian and Slovenian. West Slavic comprises Czech, Slovak, Polish and Wendish; East Slavic comprises Great Russian, White Russian and Ukrainian.

Centum Group. Centum splits into two main groups: Brythonic and Goidelic, the former represented by (a) Welsh (b) Cornish (no longer spoken) (c) Breton and the latter by (a) Irish (b) Gaelic and (e) Manx.

There is also to be considered a Germanic group which includes (a) Gothic (b) North Germanic represented by Icelandic, Danish, Norwegian and Swedish, and (c) West Germanic, represented by English, Frisian, Low German, Dutch and High German.

It also includes Italian, Latin, Umbrian and Oscan. The modern Roman languages - French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese and Romanian - are derived from the Lingua Romantica of the Roman soldiery

Though there are few speakers of Greek or Hellenic today, it divides itself into - Doric, Ionic, Dorian and Aeolic. Modern Greek is equally rich in dialects.

9.ANATOLIAN consists of three principal languages Hittite, Luwian and Lydian. Of these the most important is Hittite since there is a large number of documents some dating back as far as 1300 BC Luwian and Lydian are attested in only few inscriptions.

10. THE TOCHARIAN languages, which are found in texts unearthed in Central Asia, are attested in the seventh century AD. It has two dialects labeled as A and B - Agnean or East Tocharian for Tocharian A, Kuchean or West Tocharian for Tocharian B. One of the remarkable features of Tocharian is the preservation of palatals as "K" before back vowels. Nothing is known about the provenance of the speakers of Tocharian.

Some philologists have entirely discovered this method of classification as not being clear enough, but for historical grammar its usefulness is obvious.

Centum and Satem Languages

In a lecture given in 1786, Sir William Jones, Chief Justice of India and founder of the Royal Asiatic Society, noted the strong relationship in verbal roots and the grammatical forms of Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin. This similarity, he remarked, could not have been produced by accident; these languages must have originated from a common source. He added that Gothic, Celtic, and Old Persian may have come from the same origin. Others had also noted the similarity between Sanskrit and other languages by comparing words from different languages. Though he was not the first, Jones is often credited with the birth of Indo-European linguistics by eloquently stating that a common source, later to be identified as Proto-Indo-European, was the ancestor of these related languages.

The discovery of sound laws in the 1860's helped to establish the foundation of comparative Indo-European linguistics. It is upon such regularly occurring sound laws that allowed comparisons to be made; exceptions to the laws needed to be explained. Today the study of IE linguistics draws on work done in phonetics, dialectology, typology, and other fields but the basis of comparison still rests on the set of correspondences between the languages.

In Sanskrit, Avestan, Lithuanian, and Old Church Slavic the initial consonant appears as an s- (or sh-) sound (a sibilant), whereas Greek, Latin, Old Irish, Welsh, English, and Tocharian have a “k” sound (“a” velar or a palato-velar). This correspondence, mirrored in many other word sets, was identified as an important Indo-European isogloss (a boundary line that can be drawn based upon a particular linguistic feature): Indo-Iranian, Baltic, Slavic, Albanian, and Armenian have a sibilant for “k” whereas Greek, Latin, Celtic, Germanic and Tocharian maintain the “k” sound. Those languages with the “s”- (sh-) sound are classified satem (after the

'hundred' word in Avestan). Those which have a "k" sound are the centum languages (after the Latin word).

The original form of the word for 'hundred' in Proto-Indo-European was *h₂ntom* "k" with an acute above it or "k" can be used; dot under m; acute on o], which shows that the centum group has actually retained the original sound of the velar but the satem group has changed the sound; it moved the articulation forward in the mouth.

Genetic Classification of Languages by Joseph Greenberg

The languages of Africa

Greenberg is widely known for his development of a new classification system for the languages of Africa, which he published as a series of articles in the *South-western Journal of Anthropology* from 1949 to 1954 (reprinted together as a book in 19⁵⁵) and, in a heavily revised form, in 1963, followed by a nearly identical edition in 1966 (reprinted without change in 1970). A few further changes to the classification were made by Greenberg in an article in 1981.

Greenberg grouped the hundreds of African languages into just four families, which he dubbed Afroasiatic, Nilo-Saharan, Niger-Congo, and Khoisan. In the course of this work, Greenberg coined the term "Afroasiatic" to replace the earlier term "Hamito-Semitic" after showing that Hamitic, widely accepted since the 19th century, is not a valid language family. Another major feature of his work was to classify the Bantu languages, which occupy much of sub-Saharan Africa, not as an independent language family but as a branch of the newly identified Niger-Congo family.

Greenberg's classification rested in part on earlier classifications, making new macrogroups by joining already established families through mass comparison. His classification was for a time considered very bold and speculative, especially

the proposal of a Nilo-Saharan language family, but is now generally accepted by African specialists and has been used as a basis for further work by other scholars. Greenberg's work on African languages has been criticized by Lyle Campbell and Donald Ringe, who do not feel that his classification is justified by his data and request a reexamination of his macro-phyla by "reliable methods" (Ringe 1993:104). Even Harold Fleming and Lionel Bender, who are sympathetic to Greenberg's classification, acknowledge that at least some of his macrofamilies (particularly Nilo-Saharan and Khoisan) are not fully accepted by the linguistic community and may need to be split up (Campbell 1997). Neither Campbell nor Ringe is an African specialist. Their objection is methodological: if mass comparison is not a valid method, it cannot have successfully brought order out of the chaos of African languages.

In contrast, some linguists have sought to combine Greenberg's four African families into larger units. In particular, Edgar Gregersen (1972) proposed joining Niger-Congo and Nilo-Saharan into a larger family, which he termed Kongo-Saharan, while Roger Blench (1995) suggests Niger-Congo is a subfamily of Nilo-Saharan.

The languages of New Guinea, Tasmania and the Andaman Islands

In 1971 Greenberg proposed the Indo-Pacific macrofamily, which groups together the Papuan languages (a large number of language families of New Guinea and nearby islands) with the native languages of the Andaman Islands and Tasmania but excludes the Australian Aboriginal languages. Its principal feature was to reduce the manifold language families of New Guinea to a single genetic unit, with the exception of the Austronesian languages spoken there, which are known to result from a more recent migration. Greenberg's subgrouping of these languages has not been accepted by the few specialists who have worked on the classification of these languages since, in particular Stephen Wurm (1982) and Malcolm Ross (2005), but their work has provided considerable support for his once-radical idea that these languages form a single genetic unit. Wurm stated that

the lexical similarities between Great Andamanese and the West Papuan and Timor-Alor families "are quite striking and amount to virtual formal identity [...] in a number of instances", but considered this to be due to a linguistic substratum.

The languages of the Americas

Americanist linguists classify the native languages of the Americas into two language families spoken in parts of North America, Eskimo-Aleut and Na-Dene, and some 600 to 2,000 language families (Diamond 1997:368) that occupy the rest of North America and all of Central and South America. Early on, Greenberg (1957:41. 1960) became convinced that many of the reportedly unrelated languages could be classified into larger groupings. In his 1987 book *Language in the Americas*, while supporting the Eskimo-Aleut and Na-Dene groupings, he proposed that all the other Native American languages belong to a single language family. He termed this postulated family Amerind.

Language in the Americas was greeted with a firestorm of criticism. Even before the work had appeared in print, Lyle Campbell, an Americanist, called for it to be "shouted down" (1986). A virtual who's who of Americanists lined up against Amerind. The criticisms are directed not so much toward the classification per se, but primarily to the method of mass comparison used to establish it, which the majority of historical linguists consider inherently unreliable; and toward the large number of errors that have been shown to be present in the sources used by Greenberg, such as wrong or non-existent words, incorrect translations, words attributed to the wrong languages, and unsupported or wrong identification of prefixes and suffixes.

The languages of Northern Eurasia

Later in his life, Greenberg proposed that nearly all of the language families of northern Eurasia belong to a single higher-order family, which he called Eurasiatic. The only exception was Yeniseian, which has been related to a wider Dene-

Caucasian grouping also including Sino-Tibetan, and most recently to the Na-Dene languages of North America in a Dene-Yeniseian family by Edward Vajda.

The Eurasiatic grouping resembles the older Nostratic groupings of Holger Pedersen and Vladislav Illich-Svitych in including Indo-European, Uralic, and Altaic, but differs from them in including Nivkh. Japonic, Korean, and Ainu (which the Nostraticists excluded from comparison only for the methodological reason that they are single languages rather than language families) and in excluding Afroasiatic. At about this time Russian Nostraticists, notably Sergei Starostin, constructed a revised version of Nostratic which was slightly broader than Greenberg's grouping but which similarly left out Afroasiatic.

Recently, however, a consensus has been emerging among proponents of the Nostratic hypothesis. Greenberg in fact basically agreed with the Nostratic concept, though he stressed a deep internal division between its northern 'tier' (his Eurasiatic) and a southern 'tier' (principally Afroasiatic and Dravidian). The American Nostraticist Allan Bomhard considers Eurasiatic a branch of Nostratic alongside other branches: Afroasiatic, Elamo-Dravidian, and Kartvelian. Similarly, Georgiy Starostin (2002) arrives at a tripartite overall grouping: he considers Afroasiatic, Nostratic and Elamite to be roughly equidistant and more closely related to each other than to anything else. Sergei Starostin's school has now re-included Afroasiatic in a broadly

defined Nostratic, while reserving the term Eurasiatic to designate the narrower sub-grouping which comprises the rest of the macrofamily. Recent proposals thus differ mainly on the precise placement of Dravidian and Kartvelian.

Areal Typology

The Areal typology is one of the independent branches of linguistic typology, which compares language systems and studies the degree of expansion and proximity of language properties which are geographically conditioned.

According to V.G. Ghak this part of Linguistic typology "compares languages irrespectively of the degree of their relatedness and aims at defining general elements formed as a result of mutual influence of languages and the cultures staying behind them".

Like the Genetic typology the Areal typology operates with special systems or models with the help of which areal isoglosses of different languages are clarified.

The representatives of this school are Roman Jakobson, and Ghak V.G.

Objects of study include borrowings, bi-lingual features, dialects, centum/satem languages, compiling dialectal maps, sub-stratum and super-stratum languages, neologisms, archaisms, hybrid languages, language contacts, etc.

Areal nearness of related languages can determine an expansion of different properties in the systems of a more limited group of related languages. The Areal typology studies dialects and restrictions of dissemination of separate features in the systems of related and non-related languages, confluence of different languages, etc. Language contacts present a special interest in definite area of governance of hybrid languages.

One of the problems is defining the nature of variants of English(in Scotland, Ireland, USA, Asia) and also a study of hybrid languages such as Pidgin English(in China, Australia, Hawaii Islands), Kroo English and many others.

The major parameters of Areal typology are the following:

- Indifference to structural/system identity;
- Indifference to genetic identity;
- Areal limitation of compared languages;
- Possibility of etic-emic identity;
- Formal approach to comparison;
- Limited etalon language;
- Possibility of deep and surface identity;
- One level approach; etic/emic identity

- Possibility of complete typological operations

Areal classification of languages

The following language groupings can serve as some linguistically significant examples of areal linguistic units, or "sprachbunds": Balkan linguistic union, or the bigger group of European languages; Caucasian languages; East Asian languages. Although the members of each group are not closely genetically related, there is a reason for them to share similar features, namely: their speakers have been in contact for a long time within a common community and the languages "converged" in the course of the history. These are called "areal features".

Uzbek dialects

The Uzbek language is a member of the Turkic language subfamily of the Altaic family, spoken in Uzbekistan, eastern Turkmenistan, northern and western Tajikistan, southern Kazakhstan, northern Afghanistan, and northwestern China.

Uzbek is the native language of the Uzbeks, spoken in Uzbekistan and other Central Asian states. Uzbek belongs to the South Eastern (Central Asian) group of Turkic languages. The dialects of the modern spoken language have been influenced by some diverse dialect groups such as Karluk, Kipchak and Oguz. Uzbek dialects are conventionally divided according to phonetic features into two groups: the "O" group, which includes the dialects of such cities as Tashkent, Samarkand, Bukhara, and the surrounding regions; and the "A" group, which is divided into two subgroups according to the use of the initial consonants.²⁴

The modern Uzbek literary language is based on the Tashkent-Fergana "O" dialect group. An old Uzbek literary language had emerged by the 13th century (by the 15th or 16th cc. according to some scholars); opinion is divided on its definition and designation. Uzbek phonology is marked by the absence of long vowels in word initial position. Secondary length results from the loss of consonant assimilated into vowels. Certain vowels may be lengthened for emphasis. The main dialects lack syn harmonic vowel alternation and division of affixes into front

and back. Uzbek grammatical structure, which is common with all Turkic languages is agglutinative.

Uzbek was written in Arabic script until 1927 and in the Latin Alphabet from 1927 to 1940, when the Cyrillic alphabet was introduced. Since the mid-90's, Latin has again been adopted as the official alphabet.²⁵

In Uzbek roughly two main dialect groups can be distinguished. One includes the southern, or Iranized, dialects (Tashkent, Bukhara, Samarkand) and the semi-Iranized dialects (Fergana, Kokand), which, owing to the influence of the Tajik language, have modified the typical Turkic feature of vowel harmony. The other group comprises the northern Uzbek dialects in southern Kazakhstan and several dialects in the region.

The Uzbek language has many dialects, varying widely from region to region. However, there is a commonly understood dialect which is used in mass media and in most printed material.

Among the best known dialects are the Afghan dialect; the Ferghana dialect; the Khorezm dialect; the Chimkent-Turkestan dialect; and the Surkhandarya dialect

Despite leveling after 1900, especially in matters of vocabulary, a number of dialects exist in Russia. Some linguists divide the dialects of the Russian language into two primary regional groupings, "Northern" and "Southern", with Moscow lying on the zone of transition between the two. Some others divide the language into three groupings, Northern, Central and Southern, with Moscow lying in the Central region. Dialectology within Russia recognizes dozens of smaller-scale variants. The dialects often show distinct and non-standard features of pronunciation and intonation, vocabulary and grammar. Some of these are relics of ancient usage now completely discarded by the standard language.

The northern Russian dialects and those spoken along the Volga River typically pronounce unstressed /o/ clearly. East of Moscow, particularly in Ryazan Region, unstressed *Id* and /a/ following palatalized consonants and preceding a stressed

syllable are not reduced (like in the Moscow dialect), being instead pronounced *Id* in such positions]. However, in certain areas of southern Moscow, e.g. in and around Tula, *Ivl* is pronounced as in the Moscow and northern dialects unless it precedes a voiceless plosive or a pause. In this position /r:/ is lenited and devoiced to the fricative [x]. The city of Veliky Novgorod has historically displayed a feature called *chokanye/ tsokanye* (чоканье, where /tz:/ and /ts/ were confused. So, цапля ("heron") has been recorded as 'чапля'. Also, the second palatalization of velars did not occur there, so the so-called *e* (from the Proto-Slavonic diphthong *ai*) did not cause *Ik, xl* to shift to /ts, dz, s/; therefore where Standard Russian has *uerib* ("chain"), the form *Kenb* [kx] is attested in earlier texts. Among the first to study Russian dialects was Lomonosov in the eighteenth century. In the nineteenth, Vladimir Dal compiled the first dictionary that included dialectal vocabulary. Detailed mapping of Russian dialects began at the turn of the twentieth century. In modern times, the monumental *Dialectological Atlas of the Russian Language* (Диалектологический атлас русского языка), was published in three folio volumes 1986-1989, after four decades of preparatory work.

Most Russians can easily understand any of dialects of the native language, unlike Chinese or Indians. The standard language is based on (but not identical to) the Moscow dialect.

Major differences of the British (BE) and American English

As it is well known, the presence of common dialectal basis for literary language in Great Britain provides a much more solid basis for unification of its pronunciation norms. In the USA there is no common pronunciation basis which could be considered as normative (Hans Kurath, 1961) and there are no grounds to assume that in future residents of Virginia will tend to imitate New Yorkers in their pronunciation, or residents of Detroit will orient to Boston citizens.

Also the presence of bi-dialectism should be mentioned here which represents itself in the fact that comers from some other region try to assimilate to the new for them dialect, while at home they continue using their usual home dialect.

As one of vivid characteristic differences of BE and AE is assimilated (dj) and (tʃ) instead of (d) and (t): in "cordial" and "don't you". Also the retroflex (r) in pre-consonant and final positions, though in New York it is not characteristic.

Phonetic differences between BE and AE are quite numerous,

e.g. (a:) in BE and (ɑː) in AE in the words like ask, path, can't, etc.;

() instead of [a]: hot dog

Dropping (j): new, consume, student, etc.

Graphic differences include omission of non-pronounced graphs like in "lite" (light), "rite" (right), etc.

Morphological differences include, but are not limited to: "Gotten" in AE instead of "got" in BE: "You never would have gotten anything like this in Paris"

"proved/proven", "sweat/sweated"

Past Simple is much more often used in AE instead of Present Perfect which is more traditional for BE.

"Will" for all persons while "shall" is used mainly with the meaning of modality.

Lexical differences are of various character: they may be divergent when the words differ in their meaning while coincide in their form:

"faculty" - AE university teacher

"dresser" AE - a toilet table, "kitchen board" in BE

"billion" - milliard AE; "billion" in BE

SEMINAR -5

1. Structural typology and its parts:

- *Linguistic Universals;*
- *Etalon Language;*
- , • *Typological Classification; 'Typological classification of Edward Sapir.*
- *Typological theory*

Major parameters of Structural typology

*Indifference to
system identity*

*Indifference to
genetic identity*

*Open list of
compared
languages*

*Possibility of deep
and surface
identity*

*Arel non-
limitation*

*Relatively
unlimited etalon
language*

*Indifference to etic-
emic identity*

*Mostly one level
approach to
comparison*

*Complete typological
operation in case of
linguistic universals*

Structural typology

The Structural typology is the major branch of Linguistic typology and aims to identify structural language types. The Structural typology has 4 branches: a) linguistic universals; b) typological classification; c) etalon language; d) typological theory.

Some scholars consider Structural typology an independent branch of General Linguistics. It is connected with Comparative Linguistics and Theory of Linguistic Methods".

The ultimate goal of Structural typology is identifying universal features of languages. Major scholars who contributed to the development of structural typology are B. Uspenskiy, V.P. Nedyalkov, Ch. Hockette, Yu.Rojdestvenskiy.

Major parameters of Structural typology are:

- Indifference to system identity;
- Indifference to genetic identity;
- Open list of compared languages/quantitative non-limitation
- Areal non-limitation;
- Possibility of deep and surface identity.
- Indifference to etic -emic identity
- Mostly one level approach to comparison; Relatively unlimited etalon language;
- Complete typological operation in case of linguistic universals

Linguistic Universal are bound to unification of language facts, identifying common/similar features specific to systems of all or separate language groups.

The notion of Linguistic Universals appeared in 1961 at the Congress of Linguists in New York where J. Greenburg, J. Jenkins and I. Osgood proposed a Memorandum on Language/Linguistic Universals". They defined it as follows: "A Linguistic Universal is a certain feature specific to all languages of the world or the language per se."

The universals may be classified according to various principles. For example, according to the statistic principle there are unrestricted (absolute or full) universals opposed to restricted (relative, partial) universals (some scholars prefer the term "tendency" instead of "universal"). According to language hierarchy there are phonetic, morphological, lexical and syntactic universals. Other types include deductive and inductive; synchronic and diachronic universals; universals of speech and universals of language.

For example, universals related to the levels of language hierarchy:

Examples of full universals:

"If a language has discreet morphemes, there are either pre-fixation or suffixation or both of them". "If a language is exclusively suffixational, it is a language with post-fixes. If a language is exclusively prefixational, it is a language with prefixes"

There are different ways of articulating and describing linguistic universals: descriptive and formal (with the help of special symbols).

Etalon language is an object language for Linguistic typology and it is also a means or *system of tools to compare languages*. It is usually identified deductively. The notion of etalon language was introduced by Boris Uspenskiy.

Some scholars prefer the term meta language which is to a certain extent synonymous to etalon language. It is the second major function of the etalon language to serve an instrument of comparison. This instrument may be represented as follows:

- any natural language (usually one's native tongue)
- a linguistic category, for example gender, voice, person, sex, etc.
- a postulate of General Linguistics, for example, polysemy, semantic field, etc.

At the mediaeval times Latin was usually used to compare other languages (Grammar of Port Royal) but because Latin grammatical structure is rather

complicated now it is often suggested to take an amorphous language as a meta language or turn either to a linguistic category or a postulate.

Below are some more examples of etalon languages:

- e) specially created artificial language;
- f) an existing language with well-developed system;
- g) certain sign system;
- h) certain linguistic method;
- c) phonetic, morphological, syntactic or other models;
- h) intermediary language;
- i) Language of translation, etc.

For applied purposes etalon language is classified into minimal and maximal.

Typological classification is ..."opposed to genetic/genealogical classification and is bound to classifying languages according to their taxonomic /systemic features and defining structural types of languages". (V. Solntzev)²⁹.

Morphological or Typological classification deals with the classification of languages according to their structural features or types IN language instead of the genealogical origin.

An example of a typological classification is the classification of languages based on the order of the verb, subject and object in a sentence into several types: SVO, SOV, VSO, and so on, languages. (English, for instance, belongs to the SVO language type.)

The shared features of languages of one type (= from one typological class) may have arisen completely independently. (Compare with analogy in biology.) Their co-occurrence might be due to the universal laws governing the structure of natural languages which constitute language universals.

According to the Morphological classification the languages are divided into:

A. *Isolating* (Chinese, Vietnamese, Japanese, etc.)

Words consist of single morphemes; most words consist only of a root. Mandarin Chinese, Vietnamese, Cantonese, Cambodian.

B. Flexional (Fusional) words consist of stem and affixes which often mark several grammatical categories simultaneously. Greek, Latin, Sanskrit, Russian.

C. Agglutinative: words consist of a stem and one or more clearly identifiable affixes. Finnish, Hungarian, Estonian, Swahili, Turkish. Examples in Estonian³⁰

D. Incorporating or polysynthetic: words consist of long strings of stems and affixes, which may translated as an entire English sentence. (American Indian languages: Chukchi, Aleut, Ayacucho languages of the Amazon river, etc.

For Genealogical classification the basis is constituted by common elements of etic and emic sub-levels of compared languages. For typological classification the basis is constituted by language forms and ways the meaning expressed.

Typological and genealogical classifications complement each other. A special place in elaboration of the typological classification belongs to Edward Sapir.

Establishing types is not a goal, but a means to find universals and measure the degree of proximity of languages under analysis and qualify the specific structure of each.

d. Typological theory defines common linguistic notions used in linguistic typology. Typological theory is used to define language isomorphism (common features) and allomorphism (differentiating signs).

Linguistic Universals

1. Wherever humans exist, language exists.

1. There are no "primitive" languages - all languages are equally complex and equally capable of expressing any idea in the universe. The vocabulary of any language can be expanded to include new words for new concepts.

2. All languages change through time.
3. The relationship between the sounds and meanings of spoken languages and between the gestures (signs) and meanings of sign languages are for the most part arbitrary.
4. All human languages utilize a finite set of discrete sounds (or gestures) **that** are combined to form meaningful elements or words, which themselves form an infinite set of possible sentences.
5. All grammars contain rules for the formation of words and sentences of a similar kind.
6. Every spoken language includes discrete sound segments like p, n, or a, which can be defined by a finite set of sound properties or features. Every spoken language has a class of vowels and a class of consonants.
7. Similar grammatical categories (for example, noun, verb) are found in all languages.
8. There are semantic universals, such as "male" or "female," "animate" or "human," found in every language in the world.
9. Every language has a way of referring to past time, forming questions, issuing commands, and so on.
10. Speakers of all languages are capable of producing and comprehending **an** infinite set of sentences.
11. Syntactic universals reveal that every language has a way of forming sentences such **as**:

Linguistics is an interesting subject. I know that linguistics is an interesting subject. You know that I know that linguistics is an interesting subject. Cecilia knows that you know that I know that linguistics is an interesting subject.

Is it a fact that Cecilia knows that you know that I know that linguistics is an

Interesting subject?

Any normal child, born anywhere in the world, of any racial, geographical, social, or economic heritage, is capable learning any language to which he or she is exposed. The differences we find among languages cannot be due to biological reasons.

Edward Sapir's Classification of Languages

So far, in dealing with linguistic form, we have been concerned only with single words and with the relations of words in sentences. We have not envisaged whole languages as conforming to this or that general type. Incidentally we have observed that one language runs to tight-knit synthesis where another contents itself with a more analytic, piece-meal handling of its elements, or that in one language syntactic relations appear pure which in another are combined with certain other notions that have something concrete about them, however abstract they may be felt to be in practice. In this way we may have obtained some inkling of what is meant when we speak of the general form of a language. For it must be obvious to anyone who has thought about the question at all or who has felt something of the spirit of a foreign language that there is such a thing as a basic plan, a certain cut, to each language. This type or plan or structural "genius" of the language is something much more fundamental, much more pervasive, than any single feature of it that we can mention, nor can we gain an adequate idea of its nature by a mere recital of the sundry facts that make up the grammar of the language.

When we pass from Latin to Russian, we feel that it is approximately the same horizon that bounds our view, even though the near, familiar landmarks have changed. When we come to English, we seem to notice that the hills have dipped down a little, yet we recognize the general lay of the land. And when we have arrived at Chinese, it is an utterly different sky that is looking down upon us. We can translate these metaphors and say that all languages differ from one another

but that certain ones differ far more than others. This is tantamount to saying that it is possible to group them into morphological types.

Strictly speaking, we know in advance that it is impossible to set up a limited number of types that would do full justice to the peculiarities of the thousands of languages and dialects spoken on the surface of the earth. Like all human institutions, speech is too variable and too elusive to be quite safely ticketed. Even if we operate with a minutely subdivided scale of types, we may be quite certain that many of our languages will need trimming before they fit.

To get them into the scheme at all it will be necessary to overestimate the significance of this or that feature or to ignore, for the time being, certain contradictions in their mechanism. Does the difficulty of classification prove the uselessness of the task? I do not think so. It would be too easy to relieve ourselves of the burden of constructive thinking and to take the standpoint that each language has its unique history, therefore its unique structure. Such a standpoint expresses only a half truth. Just as similar social, economic, and religious institutions have grown up in different parts of the world from distinct historical antecedents, so also languages, traveling along different roads, have tended to converge toward similar forms. Moreover, the historical study of language has proven to us beyond all doubt that a language changes not only gradually but consistently, that it moves unconsciously from one type towards another, and that analogous trends are observable in remote quarters of the globe.

From this it follows that broadly similar morphologies must have been reached by unrelated languages, independently and frequently. In assuming the existence of comparable types, therefore, we do not gain saying the individuality of all historical processes; we are merely affirming that back of the face of history are powerful drifts that move language, like other social products, to balanced patterns, in other words, to types. As linguists we shall be content to realize that there are these types and that certain processes in the life of language tend to modify them. Why similar types should be formed, just what is the nature of the forces that make them

and dissolve them-these questions are more easily asked than answered. Perhaps the psychologists of the future will be able to give us the ultimate reasons for the formation of linguistic types.

When it comes to the actual task of classification, we find that we have no easy road to travel. Various classifications have been suggested, and they all contain elements of value. Yet none proves satisfactory. They do not so much enfold the known languages in their embrace as force them down into narrow, straight-backed seats. The difficulties have been of various kinds. First and foremost, it has been difficult to choose a point of view. On what basis shall we classify? A language shows us so many facets that we may well be puzzled. And is one point of view sufficient? Secondly, it is dangerous to generalize from a small number of selected languages.

To take, as the sum total of our material, Latin, Arabic, Turkish, Chinese, and perhaps Eskimo or Sioux as an afterthought, is to court disaster. We have no right to assume that a sprinkling of exotic types will do to supplement the few languages nearer home that we are more immediately interested in. Thirdly, the strong craving for a simple formula has been the undoing of linguists. There is something irresistible about a method of classification that starts with two poles, exemplified, say, by Chinese and Latin, clusters what it conveniently can about these poles, and throws everything else into a "transitional type".

Hence has arisen the still popular classification of languages into an "isolating" group, an "agglutinative" group, and an "inflective" group. Sometimes the languages of the American Indians are made to struggle along as an uncomfortable "poly synthetic" rear-guard to the agglutinative languages. There is justification for the use of all of these terms, though not perhaps in quite the spirit in which they are commonly employed. In any case it is very difficult to assign all known languages to one or other of these groups, the more so as they are not mutually exclusive. A language may be both agglutinative and inflective,

or inflective and polysynthetic, or even polysynthetic and isolating, as we shall see a little later on.

There is a fourth reason why the classification of languages has generally proved a fruitless undertaking. It is probably the most powerful deterrent of all to clear thinking. This is the evolutionary prejudice which instilled itself into the social sciences towards the middle of the last century and which is only now beginning to abate its tyrannical hold on our mind. Intermingled with this scientific prejudice and largely anticipating it was another, a more human one. The vast majority of linguistic theorists themselves spoke languages of a certain type, of which the most fully developed varieties were the Latin and Greek that they had learned in their childhood. It was not difficult for them to be persuaded that these familiar languages represented the "highest" development that speech had yet attained and that all other types were but steps on the way to this beloved "inflective" type. Whatever conformed to the pattern of Sanskrit and Greek and Latin and German was accepted as expressive of the "highest," whatever departed from it was frowned upon as a shortcoming or was at best an interesting aberration. Now any classification that starts with preconceived values or that works up to sentimental satisfactions is self-condemned as unscientific. A linguist that insists on talking about the Latin type of morphology as though it were necessarily the high-water mark of linguistic development is like the zoologist that sees in the organic world a huge conspiracy to evolve the race-horse or the Jersey cow. Language in its fundamental forms is the symbolic expression of human intuitions. These may shape themselves in a hundred ways, regardless of the material advancement or backwardness of the people that handle the forms, of which, it need hardly be said, they are in the main unconscious. If, therefore, we wish to understand language in its true inwardness we must disabuse our minds of preferred "values" and accustom ourselves to look upon English and Hottentot with the same cool, yet interested, detachment.

We come back to our first difficulty. What point of view shall we adopt for our classification? After all that we have said about grammatical form in the preceding

chapter. it is clear that we cannot now make the distinction between form languages and formless languages that used to appeal to some of the older writers. Every language can and must express the fundamental syntactic relations even though there is not a single affix to be found in its vocabulary. We conclude that every language is a form language. Aside from the expression of pure relation a language may, of course, be "formless" - formless, that is. in the mechanical and rather superficial sense that it is not encumbered by the use of non-radical elements. The attempt has sometimes been made to formulate a distinction on the basis of "inner form." Chinese, for instance, has no formal elements pure and simple, no "outer form," but it evidences a keen sense of relations, of the difference between subject and object, attribute and predicate, and so on. In other words, it has an "inner form" in the same sense in which Latin possesses it, though it is outwardly "formless"* where Latin is outwardly "formal." On the other hand, there are supposed to be languages which have no true grasp of the fundamental relations but content themselves with the more or less minute expression of material ideas, sometimes with an exuberant display of "outer form," leaving the pure relations to be merely inferred from the context.

I am strongly inclined to believe that this supposed "inner formlessness" of certain languages is an illusion. It may well be that in these languages the relations are not expressed in as immaterial a way as in Chinese or even as in Latin, or that the principle of order is subject to greater fluctuations than in Chinese, or that a tendency to complex derivations relieves the language of the necessity of expressing certain relations as explicitly as a more analytic language would have them expressed. All this does not mean that the languages in question have not a true feeling for the fundamental relations.

We shall therefore not be able to use the notion of "inner formlessness", except in the greatly modified sense that syntactic relations may be fused with notions of another order. To this criterion of classification we shall have to return a little later.

More justifiable would be a classification according to the formal processes most typically developed in the language. Those languages that always identify the word with the radical element would be set off as an "isolating" group against such as either affix modifying elements (affixing languages) or possess the power to change the significance of the radical element by internal changes (reduplication; vocalic and consonantal change; changes in quantity, stress, and pitch). The latter type might be not inaptly termed "symbolic" languages.

The affixing languages would naturally subdivide themselves into such as are prevaillingly prefixing, like Bantu or Tlingit, and such as are mainly or entirely suffixing, like Eskimo or Algonkin or Latin. There are two serious difficulties with this fourfold classification (isolating, prefixing, suffixing, symbolic). In the first place, most languages fall into more than one of these groups. The Semitic languages, for instance, are prefixing, suffixing, and symbolic at one and the same time. In the second place, the classification in its bare form is superficial. It would throw together languages that differ utterly in spirit merely because of a certain external formal resemblance.

There is clearly a world of difference between a prefixing language like Cambodian, which limits itself, so far as its prefixes (and infixes) are concerned, to the expression of derivational concepts, and the Bantu languages, in which the prefixed elements have a far-reaching significance as symbols of syntactic relations. The classification has much greater value if it is taken to refer to the expression of relational concepts alone. In this modified form we shall return to it as a subsidiary criterion. We shall find that the terms "isolating," "affixing," and "symbolic" have a real value. But instead of distinguishing between prefixing and suffixing languages, we shall find that it is of superior interest to make another distinction, one that is based on the relative firmness with which the affixed elements are united with the core of the word.

There is another very useful set of distinctions that can be made, but these too must not be applied exclusively, or our classification will again be superficial. I refer to the notions of "analytic", "synthetic", and "polysynthetic". The terms ex-

plain themselves. An analytic language is one that either does not combine concepts into single words at all (Chinese) or does so economically (English, French). In an analytic language the sentence is always of prime importance, the word is of minor interest. In a synthetic language (Latin, Arabic, Finnish) the concepts cluster more thickly, the words are more richly chambered, but there is a tendency, on the whole, to keep the range of concrete significance in the single word down to a moderate compass. A polysynthetic language, as its name implies, is more than ordinarily synthetic. The elaboration of the word is extreme. Concepts which we should never dream of treating in a subordinate fashion are symbolized by derivational affixes or "symbolic" changes in the radical element, while the more abstract notions, including the syntactic relations, may also be conveyed by the word. A polysynthetic language illustrates no principles that are not already exemplified in the more familiar synthetic languages. It is related to them very much as a synthetic language is related to our own analytic English.

The three terms are purely quantitative—and relative, that is, a language may be "analytic" from one standpoint, "synthetic" from another. I believe the terms are more useful in defining certain drifts than as absolute counters. It is often illuminating to point out that a language has been becoming more and more analytic in the course of its history or that it shows signs of having crystallized from a simple analytic base into a highly synthetic form.

We now come to the difference between an "inflective" and an "agglutinative" language. As I have already remarked, the distinction is a useful, even a necessary, one, but it has been generally obscured by a number of irrelevancies and by the unavailing effort to make the terms cover all languages that are not, like Chinese, of a definitely isolating cast. The meaning that we had best assign to the term "inflective" can be gained by considering very briefly what are some of the basic features of Latin and Greek that have been looked upon as peculiar to the inflective languages. First of all, they are synthetic rather than analytic. This does not help us much. Relatively to many another language that resembles them

in broad structural respects, Latin and Greek are not notably synthetic; on the other hand, their modern descendants, Italian and Modern Greek, while far more analytic than they, have not departed so widely in structural outlines as to warrant their being put in a distinct major group. An inflective language, we must insist, may be analytic, synthetic, or polysynthetic.

Latin and Greek are mainly affixing in their method, with the emphasis heavily on suffixing. The agglutinative languages are just as typically affixing as they, some among them favoring prefixes, others running to the use of suffixes. Affixing alone does not define inflection. Possibly everything depends on just what kind of affixing we have to deal with. If we compare our English words *farmer* and *goodness* with such words as *height* and *depth*, we cannot fail to be struck by a notable difference in the affixing technique of the two sets. The *-er* and *-ness* are affixed quite mechanically to radical elements which are at the same time independent words (*farm*, *good*). They are in no sense independently significant elements, but they convey their meaning (agentive, abstract quality) with unfailing directness. Their use is simple and regular and we should have no difficulty in appending them to any verb or to any adjective, however recent in origin. From a verb to camouflage we may form the noun *camouflager* "one who camouflages," from an adjective *jazzy* proceeds with perfect ease the noun *jazziness*. It is different with *height* and *depth*.

Functionally they are related to *high* and *deep* precisely as *goodness* to *good*, but the degree of coalescence between radical element and affix is greater. Radical element and affix, while measurably distinct, cannot be torn apart quite so readily as could the *good* and *-ness* of *goodness*. The *-t* of *height* is not the typical form of the affix (compare *strength*, *length*, *filth*, *breadth*, *youth*), while *dep-* is not identical with *deep*. We may designate the two types of affixing as "fusing" and "juxtaposing." The juxtaposing technique we may call an "agglutinative" one, if we like.

Is the fusing technique thereby set off as the essence of inflection? I am afraid that we have not yet reached our goal. If our language were crammed full of

coalescences of the type of depth, but if, on the other hand, it used the plural independently of verb concord (e.g., the books falls like the book falls, or the book fall like the books fall), the personal endings independently of tense (e.g., the book fells like the book falls, or the book fall like the book fell), and the pronouns independently of case (e.g., I see he like he sees me, or him see the man like the man sees him), we should hesitate to describe it as inflective. The mere fact of fusion does not seem to satisfy us as a clear indication of the inflective process. There are, indeed, a large number of languages that fuse radical element and affix in as complete and intricate a fashion as one could hope to find anywhere without thereby giving signs of that particular kind of formalism that marks off such languages as Latin and Greek as inflective.

What is true of fusion of equally true of the "symbolic" processes. There are linguists that speak of alternations like drink and drank as though they represented the high-water mark of inflection, a kind of spiritualized essence of pure inflective form. In such Greek forms, nevertheless, as pepomph-a "I have sent," as contrasted with pemp-o "I send," with its trebly symbolic change of the radical element (reduplicating pe-, change of e to o, change of p to ph), it is rather the peculiar alternation of the first person singular -a of the perfect with the -o of the present that gives them their inflective cast. Nothing could be more erroneous than to imagine that symbolic changes of the radical element, even for the expression of such abstract concepts as those of number and tense, is always associated with the syntactic peculiarities of an inflective language.

If by an "agglutinative" language we mean one that affixes according to the juxtaposing technique, then we can only say that there are hundreds of fusing and symbolic languages - non-agglutinative by definition - that are, for all that, quite alien in spirit to the inflective type of Latin and Greek. We can call such languages inflective, if we like, but we must then be prepared to revise radically our notion of inflective form.

It is necessary to understand that fusion of the radical element and the affix may be taken in a broader psychological sense than I have yet indicated. If every noun plural in English were of the type of book: books, if there were not such conflicting patterns as deer: deer, ox: oxen, goose: geese to complicate the general form picture of plurality, there is little doubt that the fusion of the elements book and -s into the unified word books would be felt as a little less complete than it actually is. One reasons, or feels, unconsciously about the matter somewhat as follows: - If the form pattern represented by the word books is identical, as far as use is concerned, with that of the word oxen, the pluralizing elements -s and -en cannot have quite so definite, quite so autonomous, a value as we might at first be inclined to suppose. They are plural elements only in so far as plurality is predicated of certain selected concepts. The words books and oxen are therefore a little other than mechanical combinations of the symbol of a thing (book, ox) and a clear symbol of plurality. There is a slight psychological uncertainty or haze about the juncture in book-s and ox-en. A little of the force of -s and -en is anticipated by, or appropriated by, the words book and ox themselves, just as the conceptual force of -th in dep-th is appreciably weaker than that of -ness in goodness in spite of the functional parallelism between depth and goodness.

Where there is uncertainty about the juncture, where the affixed element cannot rightly claim to possess its full share of significance, the unity of the complete word is more strongly emphasized. The mind must rest on something. If it cannot linger on the constituent elements, it hastens all the more eagerly to the acceptance of the word as a whole. A word like goodness illustrates "agglutination," books "regular fusion," depth "irregular fusion," geese "symbolic fusion" or "symbolism."

The psychological distinctness of the affixed elements in an agglutinative term may be even more marked than in the -ness of goodness. To be strictly accurate, the significance of the -ness is not quite as inherently determined, mined, as autonomous, as it might be. It is at the mercy of the preceding radical element to

this extent, that it requires to be preceded by a particular type of such element, an adjective. Its own power is thus, in a manner, checked in advance. The fusion here, however, is so vague and elementary, so much a matter of course in the great majority of all cases of affixing, that it is natural to overlook its reality and to emphasize rather the juxtaposing or agglutinative nature of the affixing process.

If the -ness could be affixed as an abstractive element to each and every type of radical element, if we could say lightness ("the act or quality of fighting") or water-ness ("the quality or state of water") or awayness ("the state of being away") as we can say goodness ("the state of being good"), we should have moved appreciably nearer the agglutinative pole. A language that runs to synthesis of this loose-jointed sort may be looked upon as an example of the ideal agglutinative type, particularly if the concepts expressed by the agglutinated elements are relational or, at the least, belong to the abstracter class of derivational ideas.

Instructive forms may be cited from Nootka. We shall return to our "fire in the house." The Nootka word inikw-ihl "fire in the house" is not as definitely formalized a word as its translation suggests. The radical element inikw- "fire" is really as much of a verbal as of a nominal term; it may be rendered now by "fire," now by "burn," according to the syntactic exigencies of the sentence. The derivational element -ihl "in the house" does not mitigate this vagueness or generality; inikw-ihl is still "fire in the house" or "burn in the house." It may be definitely nominalized or verbalized by the affixing of elements that are exclusively nominal or verbal in force. For example, inikw-ihl-'i, with its suffixed article, is a clear-cut nominal form: "the burning in the house, the fire in the house"; inikw-ihl-ma, with its indicative suffix, is just as clearly verbal: "it burns in the house." How weak must be the degree of fusion between "fire in the house" and the nominalizing or verbalizing suffix is apparent from the fact that the formally indifferent inikwihl is not an abstraction gained by analysis but a full-fledged word, ready for use in the sentence. The nominalizing -'i and the indicative -ma are not fused form-affixes, they are simply additions of

formal import. But we can continue to hold the verbal or nominal nature of inikwihl in abeyance long before we reach the -i or -ma.

We can pluralize it: inikw-ihl-'minih; it is still either "fires in the house" or "burn plurally in the house." We can diminutivize this plural: inikw-ihl-'minih-'is, "little fires in the house" or "burn plurally and slightly in the house." What if we add the preterit tense suffix -it? Is not inikw-ihl-'minih-'is-it necessarily a verb: "several small fires were burning in the house"? It is not. It may still be nominalized; inikwihl'minih'isit-i means "the former small fires in the house, the little fires that were once burning in the house." It is not an unambiguous verb until it is given a form that excludes every other possibility, as in the indicative inikwihl-minih'isit-a "several small fires were burning in the house." We recognize at once that the elements -ihl, -'minih, -'is, and -it, quite aside from the relatively concrete or abstract nature of their content and aside, further, from the degree of their outer (phonetic) cohesion with the elements that precede them, have a psychological independence that our own affixes never have. They are typically agglutinated elements, though they have no greater external independence, are no more capable of living apart from the radical element to which they are suffixed, than the -ness and goodness or the -s of books. It does not follow that an agglutinative language may not make use of the principle of fusion, both external and psychological, or even of symbolism to a considerable extent. It is a question of tendency. Is the formative slant clearly towards the agglutinative method? Then the language is "agglutinative." As such, it may be prefixing or suffixing, analytic, synthetic, or polysynthetic.

Inflexion: An inflective language like Latin or Greek uses the method of fusion, and this fusion has an inner psychological as well as an outer phonetic meaning. But it is not enough that the fusion operate merely in the sphere of derivational concepts (group II), it must involve the syntactic relations, which may either be expressed in unalloyed form (group IV) or, as in Latin and Greek, as "concrete relational concepts" (group III).

As far as Latin and Greek are concerned, their inflection consists essentially of the fusing of elements that express logically impure relational concepts with radical elements and with elements expressing derivational concepts. Both fusion as a general method and the expression of relational concepts in the word are necessary to the notion of "inflection."

But to have thus defined inflection is to doubt the value of the term as descriptive of a major class. Why emphasize both a technique and a particular content at one and the same time? Surely we should be clear in our minds as to whether we set more store by one or the other.

"Fusional" and "symbolic" contrast with "agglutinative," which is not on a part with "inflective" at all. What are we to do with the fusional and symbolic languages that do not express relational concepts in the word but leave them to the sentence? And are we not to distinguish between agglutinative languages that express these same concepts in the word - in so far inflective-like - and those that do not? We dismissed the scale: analytic, synthetic, polysynthetic, and as too merely quantitative for our purpose. Isolating, affixing, symbolic - this also seemed insufficient for the reason that it laid too much stress on technical externals. Isolating, agglutinative, fusional, and symbolic is a preferable scheme, but still skirts the external. We shall do best, it seems to me, to hold to "inflective" as a valuable suggestion for a broader and more consistently developed scheme, as a hint for a classification based on the nature of the concepts expressed by the language.

The other two classifications, the first based on degree of synthesis, the second on degree of fusion, may be retained as intercrossing schemes that give us the opportunity to subdivide our main conceptual types.

It is well to recall that all languages must need to express radical concepts (group I) and relational ideas (group IV). Of the two other large groups of concepts—derivational (group II) and mixed relational (group III)—both may be absent. This

gives us at once a simple, incisive, and absolutely inclusive method of classifying all known languages. They are:

A. Such as express only concepts of groups I and IV; in other words, languages that keep the syntactic relations pure and that do not possess the power to modify the significance of their radical elements by means of affixes or internal changes. We may call these Pure-relational non-deriving languages or, more tersely, Simple Pure-relational languages. These are the languages that cut most to the bone of linguistic expression.

B. Such as express concepts of groups I, II, and IV; in other words, languages that keep the syntactic relations pure and that also possess the power to modify the significance of their radical elements by means of affixes or internal changes. These are the Pure-relational deriving languages or Complex Pure-relational languages.

C. Such as express concepts of groups I and III; in other words, languages in which the syntactic relations are expressed in necessary connection with concepts that are not utterly devoid of concrete significance but that do not, apart from such mixture, possess the power to modify the significance of their radical elements by means of affixes or internal changes. These are the Mixed-relational non-deriving languages or Simple Mixed-relational languages.

D. Such as express concepts of groups I, II, and III; in other words, languages in which the syntactic relations are expressed in mixed form, as in C, and that also possess the power to modify the significance of their radical elements by means of affixes or internal changes. These are the Mixed-relational deriving languages or Complex Mixed-relational languages. Here belong the "inflective" languages that we are most familiar with as well as a great many "agglutinative" languages, some "polysynthetic," others merely synthetic.

This conceptual classification of languages, I must repeat, does not attempt to take account of the technical externals of language. It answers, in effect, two

fundamental mental questions concerning the translation of concepts into linguistic symbols. Does the language, in the first place, keep its radical concepts pure or does it build up its concrete ideas by an aggregation of inseparable elements (types A and C versus types B and D)? And, in the second place, does it keep the basic relational concepts, such as are absolutely unavoidable in the ordering of a proposition, free of an admixture of the concrete or not (types A and B versus types C and D) The second question, it seems to me, is the more fundamental of the two. We can therefore simplify our classification and present it in the following form

I. Pure-relational Languages

A.Simple

B.Complex

II. Mixed-relational Languages

C. Simple

D. Complex

The classification is too sweeping and too broad for an easy, descriptive survey of the many varieties of human speech. It needs to be amplified. Each of the types A, B, C, D may be subdivided into an agglutinative, a fusional and a symbolic sub-type, according to the prevailing method of modification of the radical element. In type A we distinguish in addition an isolating sub-type, characterized by the absence of all affixes and modifications of the radical element. In the isolating languages the syntactic relations are expressed by the position of the words in the sentence. This is also true of many languages of type B, the terms "agglutinative," "fusional," and "symbolic" applying in their case merely to the treatment of the derivational, not the relational, concepts. Such languages could be termed "agglutinative-isolating," "fusional-isolating" and "symbolic-isolating."

This brings up the important general consideration that the method of handling one group of concepts need not in the least be identical with that used for another. Compound terms could be used to indicate this difference, if desired, the first ele-

ment of the compound referring to the treatment of the concepts of group II, the second to that of the concepts of groups III and IV.

An "agglutinative" language would normally be taken to mean one that agglutinates all of its affixed elements or that does so to a preponderating extent. In an "agglutinative-fusional" language the derivational elements are agglutinated, perhaps in the form of prefixes, while the relational elements (pure or mixed) are fused with the radical element, possibly as another set of prefixes following the first set or in the form of suffixes or as part prefixes and part suffixes.

By a "fusional-agglutinative" language we would understand one that fuses its derivational elements but allows a greater independence to those that indicate relations. All these and similar distinctions are not merely theoretical possibilities, they can be abundantly illustrated from the descriptive facts of linguistic morphology. Further, should it prove desirable to insist on the degree of elaboration of the word, the terms "analytic," "synthetic," and "polysynthetic" can be added as descriptive terms. It goes without saying that languages of type A are necessarily analytic and that languages of type C also are prevailingly analytic and are not likely to develop beyond the synthetic stage.

But we must not make too much of terminology. Much depends on the relative emphasis laid on this or that feature or point of view. The method of classifying languages here developed has this great advantage, that it can be refined or simplified according to the needs of a particular discussion. The degree of synthesis may be entirely ignored; "fusion" and "symbolism" may often be combined with advantage under the head of "fusion"; even the difference between agglutination and fusion may, if desired, be set aside as either too difficult to draw or as irrelevant to the issue. Languages, after all, are exceedingly complex historical structures. It is of less importance to put each language in a neat pigeon-hole than to have evolved a flexible method which enables us to place it, from two or three independent standpoints, relatively to another language.

All this is not to deny that certain linguistic types are more stable and frequently represented than others that are just as possible from a theoretical standpoint. But we are too ill-informed as yet of the structural spirit of great numbers of languages to have the right to frame a classification-that is other than flexible and experimental.

The reader will gain a somewhat livelier idea of the possibilities of linguistic morphology by glancing down the subjoined analytical table of selected types. The columns II, III, IV refer to the groups of concepts so numbered in the preceding chapter. The letters a, b, c, d refer respectively to the processes of isolation (position in the sentence), agglutination, fusion, and symbolism. Where more than one technique is employed, they are put in the order of their importance.

I need hardly point out that these examples are far from exhausting the possibilities of linguistic structure. Nor that the fact that two languages are similarly classified does not necessarily mean that they present a great similarity on the surface. We are here concerned with the most fundamental and generalized features of the spirit, the technique, and the degree of elaboration of a given language. Nevertheless, in numerous instances we may observe this highly suggestive and remarkable fact, that languages that fall into the same class have a way of paralleling each other in many details or in structural features not envisaged by the scheme of classification.

Thus, the most interesting parallel could be drawn on structural lines between Takelma and Greek, languages that are as geographically remote from each other and as unconnected in a historical sense as two languages selected at random. Their similarity goes beyond the generalized facts registered in the table. It would almost seem that linguistic features that are easily thinkable apart from each other, that seem to have no necessary connection in theory, have nevertheless a tendency to cluster or to follow together in the wake of some deep, controlling impulse to form that dominates their drift. If, therefore, we can only be sure of the

intuitive similarity of two given languages, of their possession of the same submerged form-feeling, we need not be too much surprised to find that they seek and avoid certain linguistic developments in common.

We are at present very far from able to define just what these fundamental form intuitions are. We can only feel them rather vaguely at best and must content ourselves for the most part with noting their symptoms. These symptoms are being garnered in our descriptive and historical grammars of diverse languages. Some day, it may be, we shall be able to read from them the great underlying ground-plans.

Such a purely technical classification of languages as the current one into "isolating," "agglutinative," and "inflective" (read "fusional") cannot claim to have great value as an entering wedge into the discovery of the intuitional forms of languages. I do not know whether the suggested classification into four conceptual groups is likely to drive deeper or not. My own feeling is that it does, but classifications, neat constructions of the speculative mind, are slippery things. They have to be tested at every possible opportunity before they have the right to cry for acceptance. Meanwhile we may take some encouragement from the application of a rather curious, yet simple, historical test. Languages are in constant process of change, but it is only reasonable to suppose that they tend to preserve longest what is most fundamental in their structure. Now if we take great groups of genetically related languages.

We find that as we pass from one to another or trace the course of their development we frequently encounter a gradual change of morphological type.

This is not surprising, for there is no reason why a language should remain permanently true to its original form. It is interesting, however, to note that of the three intercrossing classifications represented in our table (conceptual type, technique, and degree of synthesis), it is the degree of synthesis that seems to change most readily, that the technique is modifiable but far less readily so, and that the conceptual type tends to persist the longest of all.

The illustrative material gathered in the table is far too scanty to serve as a real basis of proof, but it is highly suggestive as far as it goes. The only changes of conceptual type within groups of related languages that are to be gleaned from the table are of B to A (Shilluk as contrasted with Ewe; Classical Tibetan as contrasted with Modern Tibetan and Chinese) and of D to C (French as contrasted with Latin).

But types A:B and C:D are respectively related to each other as a simple and a complex form of a still more fundamental type (pure-relational, mixed-relational). Of a passage from a pure-relational to a mixed-relational type or vice versa I can give no convincing examples.

The table shows clearly enough how little relative permanence there is in the technical features of language, That highly synthetic languages (Latin; Sanskrit) have frequently broken down into analytic forms (French; Bengali) or that agglutinative languages (Finnish) have in many instances gradually taken on "inflective" features are well-known facts, but the natural inference does not seem to have been often drawn that possibly the contrast between synthetic and analytic or agglutinative and "inflective" (fusional) is not so fundamental after all.

Turning to the Indo-Chinese languages, we find that Chinese is as near to being a perfectly isolating language as any example we are likely to find, while Classical Tibetan has not only fusional but strong symbolic features (e.g., g-tong-ba "to give," past b-tang, future g-tang, imperative thong); but both are pure-relational languages. Ewe is either isolating or only barely agglutinative, while Shilluk, though soberly analytic, is one of the most definitely symbolic languages I know; both of these Soudanese languages are pure-relational. The relationship between Polynesian and Cambodian is remote, though practically certain; while the latter has more markedly fusional features than the former

Both conform to the complex pure-relational type. Yana and Salinan are superficially very dissimilar languages. Yana is highly polysynthetic and quite typically agglutinative, Salinan is no more synthetic than and as irregularly and compactly

fusional ("inflective") as Latin; both are pure-relational. Chinook and Takelma, remotely related languages of Oregon, have diverged very far from each other, not only as regards technique and synthesis in general but in almost all the details are preserved.

SEMINAR -6.

Comparative Typology and its major distinctive features.

indifference to system identity of compared languages;
indifference to genetic identity of compared languages;
areal non-limitation of compared languages;
maximum quantitative limitation of compared languages;
indifference toward etic/emic identity;
indifference toward deep and surface identity;
content approach to comparison;
cross-level approach to comparison;
limited etalon language (the typological category);
Possibility of a complete typological operation

Characterology Open \ Closed

<i>Discipline</i>	<i>Characterology</i>	<i>Typology</i>
<i>List of differential signs</i>	<i>Open</i>	<i>Closed</i>
<i>List of languages</i>	<i>Closed</i>	<i>Open</i>

Comparative typology and its parameters

Comparative typology is an independent branch of General Linguistic typology. It deals with comparison of languages irrespectively of their genetic or structural identity. Comparative typology operates with a limited number of languages and the minimum number of these languages maybe as little as two.

Comparative typology cannot reveal linguistic universals but it does contribute to the Structural typology with the results of its comparative studies of concrete languages for further elaboration of linguistic universals. In its turn the Structural typology contributes to comparative typological studies while identifying correspondences in diverse languages.

One of the major differences between the Structural and Comparative typology is that the latter operates with cross-level units of the languages while the former (the Structural typology) utilizes mainly the level isolation/one level approach.

In Comparative typology the cross-level, cross-class units of expression are initially identified in each of compared languages separately. On the second stage of the typological operation the cross-language equivalents and cross-level correspondents are identified, isomorphic and allomorphic features are revealed.

The existence of Comparative typology became possible due to the possibility of comparison of sub-systems of different languages.

The major principle of Comparative typology is binarity: thus initially two genetically and/or structurally different languages are compared as the representatives of their genetic /structural groups. Further, the number of compared languages can be increased but still with the observation of the binary principle. For example,

English - Uzbek

English - a group of Turkic languages, etc.

The major tool or etalon language of comparison in Comparative typology is the *Typological Category*.

As an independent branch of Linguistic typology the Comparative typology is characterized by the following features:

- indifference to system identity;
- indifference to genetic identity;
- areal non-limitation of compared languages; -maximum

quantitative limitation;

- indifference toward etic/emic identity;
- indifference toward deep and surface identity;
- content approach to comparison;
- cross-level approach to comparison;
- limited etalon language (the typological category);
- possibility of a complete typological operation.

Characterology is a sub-branch of linguistics dealing with comparative study of separate language phenomena in the systems of limited number of genetically related and non-related languages. The scholars who dealt with characterology were V. Mathesius, B. Uspenskiy, Yu. Rojdestvenskiy, V. Skalichka

Comparative typology and Lexicography

Comparative typology has a direct connection to Lexicography as both of them deal with comparison and revealing equivalency of language units.

The main link between Comparative typology and Lexicography is in the analysis of systems of compared languages. Lexicography needs the typological analysis of language systems to compile dictionaries.

Both Comparative typology and Lexicography study the systems of related and non-related languages. One of those who first compiled an English vocabulary was a school teacher Kodry who began to gather and systemize words which were very difficult for his pupils during the process of study. His dictionary was completed in 1604 and it is considered to be the first English dictionary. The first dictionaries have a thousand years history. Through centuries different bilingual dictionaries were created. Bilingual dictionaries are one of the main means to compare languages. They help to study not only foreign languages but also study one's native language.

The work over compiling bilingual dictionaries is also about comparison of the languages. In bilingual dictionaries phonetic, morphological, lexical, semantic, syntactical, orthographical characteristics of the words are usually provided. Before describing the above characteristics it is necessary to learn the characteristics of the dictionary. In Comparative typology the results of comparison obtained in Phonological, Phonetic, Morphological, Lexical and Syntactic typologies can be summarized. Thus, without a typological comparison a dictionary can not provide a necessary reference.

A lexicographical process can be divided into two stages.

1. The stage of analysis
2. The stage of synthesis.

On the first stage Lexicography provides facts on language systems of the dictionary. On the second stage it gives equivalent units of the other language of the dictionary.

The part of lexicography, which studies the comparison of language systems for making dictionaries, can be called a Comparative Lexicography. It can study linguistic questions in two ways: synchronically and diachronically.

There arise problems related to the suffixes which are considered as form-building: should the verbs with the affixes of voice be included into dictionaries? If the suffixes are considered as voice forming, the words with these suffixes should not be included into the dictionaries, as these suffixes build a form of a word but not a new word. But this principle is not observed fully: some of the voice forms are included in the dictionaries of Turkic languages as independent lexical units while the others are not included at all. The question regarding the attitude toward the primary word to the causation, reflexivity, mutuality and other categories have not been solved so far in linguistics. The reason is that a simple word can express the causative and non-causative, reflexive and non-reflexive meanings at the same time. The exceptions are some words which are unambiguous. It is very important

to figure out semantic constructions or syntactic models which are the basis of linguistic meaning and express the causative meaning in modern English. For example causative meaning can be created by the help of zero modification like move, warm, grow, which are opposed to unassertive verbs.

Reflective verbs are created in the same way, for example: shave, wash. While explaining such words in the dictionary a lexicographer must show their combinations. Lexicographic analysis of proper names taken from the Arabic language is of a special interest while establishing degree of assimilation for proper names. Linguistic typology has played a positive role in creating bilingual English-Turkic and Turkic-English dictionaries. These topics were of special interest for Formal typology which displayed the meaning of proper names. Arabic proper names were not found in, for example, Chinese language. But when a part of China was attacked and occupied by the Muslims the problem of assimilating the Arabic proper names became acute for China too. While solving such problems Comparative typology and Lexicography must cooperate with Anthropology, Ethnography, History and others sciences.

We have a number of facts witnessing the links between Comparative typology and Lexicography:

- 1) Comparative typology and Lexicography analyze systems of two or more languages simultaneously;
- 2) Compared languages can be genetically related or not related;
- 3) Comparative typology and Lexicography set an intersystem of comparison allowing for comparison of units belonging to different levels of hierarchy.

SEMINAR -7

1. Branches of Linguistic typology as to the expression and content plans of the language.

1. b. Semantic typology



Formal Typology

*Identification
of formal
universals*

*The formal
aspect of the
language*

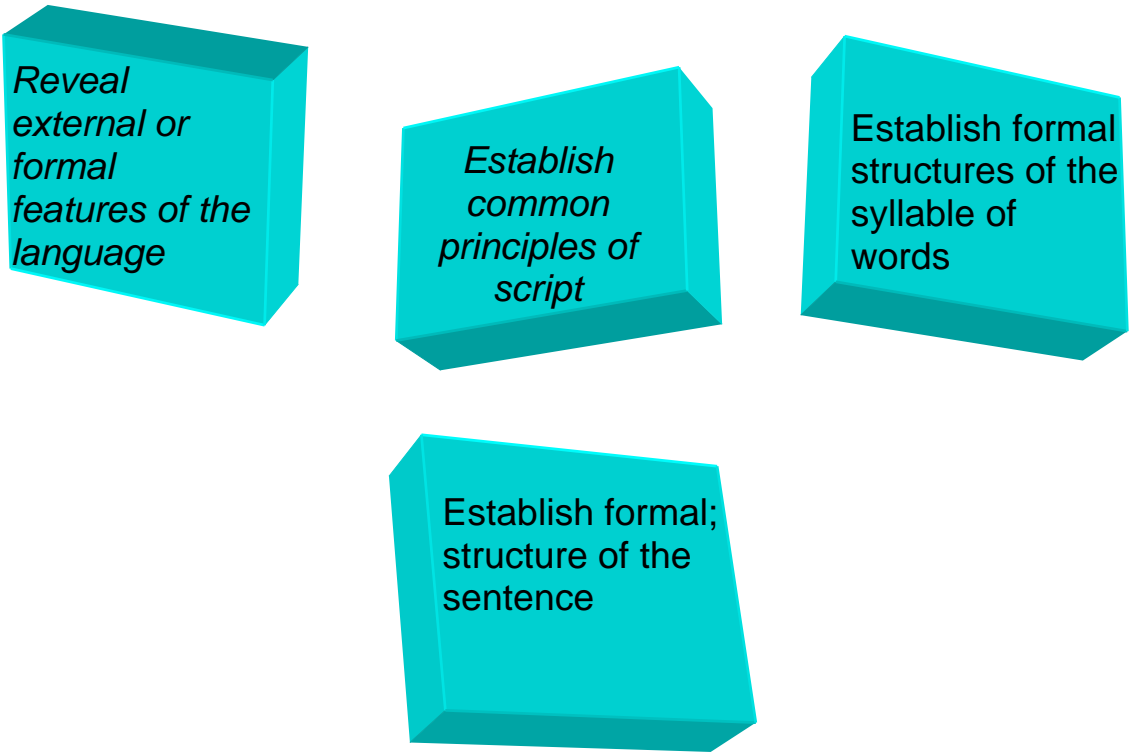
*A stylistic point
of view*

Alphabet
unification of
national
languages

Scholars list:
T.Amlirova,
I Sherba

Major Tasks of

Formal Typology



*Reveal
external or
formal
features of the
language*

*Establish
common
principles of
script*

Establish formal
structures of the
syllable of
words

Establish formal;
structure of the
sentence

Formal typology deals with the units of expression plan of the language which belong to various levels of hierarchy.

The ultimate goal of the Formal typology is identifying formal universals. The major tasks of Formal typology embrace but are not limited to the following: a) reveal external or formal features of the language; b) establish common principles of script, e.g. graphic systems, alphabets, system of transcription signs, punctuation; c) establish formal structures of the syllable, composite words, word combinations; d) establish formal structure of the sentence etc.

The formal aspect of the language has not been studied to the necessary level to establish a universal graphic system for all the languages of the world, Still the Latin script is now considered to be the most globally used. But the languages adapt it to the specificities of their language in case they decide to utilize it.

Here we can also attribute the questions dealing with external structure of words and sentences in the languages of incorporate and polysynthetic type, studying the principles of shortening and abbreviation.

The world graphic system demands the typological study and needs for improvement. In Formal typology there are a lot of unsolved questions related to written and oral languages (graphemes, graphology, etc).

Formal typology can be studied from a stylistic point of view while figuring out stylistic peculiarities of graphical codes. Comparative analysis plays a great role in the study of graphic system of different languages in the process of teaching foreign languages.

Solving the problem of alphabet unification of different national languages, language groups, families, areals and the world language with consideration of the latest scientific and technical achievements would reduce the expense of people's time on the study of different alphabets.

The scholars who studied the issues related to Formal typology are:
T.Amirova T. Salomaa, A. Arnold, I Scherba, I. Uspenskaya

Semantic typology

Semantic typology is a branch of linguistic typology studying semantic structure of the language and related to the units of content plan. The ultimate goal of Semantic typology is identifying semantic universals which are directly related to the deep structure of the language. Other issues considered in the frames of Semantic typology are: identifying aims and problems of Semantic typology, defining different semantic fields for comparative analysis, grouping words on the basis of semantic signs, defining semantic fields in different languages, creating criteria to define semantic categories, elaboration of the principles of compiling semantic comparative dictionaries and many others.

Some scholars debate that there is no need to distinguish Semantic typology into a separate branch as similar issues are studied under the scope of Lexical typology. The major difference between the two seems to lie in the following; semantic typology operates with the units of emic level and is indifferent to etic identity of compared languages.

The Semantic typology is indifferent toward etic/emic identity.

The following deep structures that are common to all the languages of the world can be considered as absolute deep structures or semantic universals: age, color, location, quantity, quality, temporality, dehniteness/indefiniteness, personality, reciprocity, etc. On the surface structure the means of expression may refer to various levels of hierarchy, while the content is common.

The Linguistic typology operates at all levels of language hierarchy without exception. In other words, it can compare the units of phonological, morphological, lexical and syntactic levels. Allocation of those or other units of a certain level depends on various reasons. Firstly, from the character of comparison, i.e. Genetic typology operates mainly with atomic/one level approach and engages mostly with phonetic and morphological levels. The Comparative typology is engaged in revealing cross-level units of compared languages. Secondly, certain levels demand more isolated consideration. For example, the phonological level demands greater isolation. Differentiation of language levels in the process of comparison has a certain

sense, for without such a differentiation it is impossible to reveal linguistic universals.

Phonological typology

In comparison with other levels the given level is more isolated and at the same time, its sections are more developed from the typological point of view. Inside the phonological level actually phonologic and phonetic sublevels are identified.

The Phonological typology deals with comparison of units of the phonologic level of language. It engages in allocation of phonological differential signs, defining their universality, study of phonological structure of languages, classification of languages on the basis of their phonological features (e.g. tonic and atonic languages), defining phonemic structure of world languages and many others. For a long time the Prague linguistic school was the center of Phonological typology. A certain contribution to development of Phonological typology was made by N.S.Trubetskoy who is considered the founder of Typology of Phonological systems. R.Yakobson, G.Fant, M.Halle also worked in this area. Later other sides of Phonological typology were developed by such scientists as Ch. Hockett , K.Vegelin, T.Milevsky, P.Menzerat, V.Skalichka, A.Martine, M.I.Lekomtseva, T.J.Elizarenkova, G.P.Melnikov and others.

Major achievements of Phonological typology are related to: the allocated cases phonologic universals, N.S.Trubetskoy's differential signs, I.Kramskoy, P.Kovaleva's quantitative criteria, supra-segmental typological classification on tone and accent by A.Martine's, numerous researches on comparison of phonologic systems of various languages.

Morphological typology

The circle of research in Morphological typology is very wide. It compares the units of a morphological level. Depending on the character of research the morphological typology can classify into two types:

1) The morphological Typology is engaged into the morphological classification of languages.

2) The Morphological typology is engaged in particular questions of grammar. The first one is a continuation of traditional typological classification engaged in defining language types according to different principles and criteria.

The second type of Morphological typology deals with private/individual subjects of comparison: grammatical categories in various languages, defining ways of their expression, morphological markers, synonymous relations of affixation morphemes and syntactic words (prepositions and postpositions), comparison of primary grammatical categories/parts of speech (nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, adverbs, numerals and others), comparison of grammatical categories of certain lexical and grammatical categories of words (case, number, definiteness, transitivity - intransitivity, time, aspect, causation, mood, modality, etc.). Morphemes may serve major units of measurement in Morphological typology.

The Morphological typology compares the specified phenomena in the systems of both related and non-related languages. Comparison might include revealing morphological universals as well as a binary comparison of two languages. Morphological typology has accumulated a serious bulk of data both for Comparative typology and on separate concrete languages. Major scholars who dealt with the issues of Morphological typology are R.Yakobson, L.N.Zasorina, B.A.Uspenskiy, M.M.Guhman, R.L.Garvina and many others.

Syntactic typology

The Syntactic typology is engaged into comparison of syntactic level units. The basic units for comparison are the word, word-combination and the sentence. Depending on the character of research the Syntactic typology may fall into several sections: comparison of units of a word-combination, the level of the sentence, as well as comparison of units of various levels with regards to their

syntactic functioning. The Syntactic typology usually compares languages on the basis of transformational syntax.

Still there is no comprehensive list of topics related to the subject matter of Syntactic typology. Some of them are: definition of the subject-matter and volume of Syntactic typology, elaboration of basic criteria and a meta language, border lines between syntactic typology and other branches of Linguistic typology; defining syntactic universals, study of syntax of world languages (genetically or structurally related languages), definition of types of syntactic connection (attributive, predicative, etc.), definition of sentence types in languages, basic syntactic categories, classification of types of languages on the basis of their syntactic structure and many others.

SEMINAR -8

I. The problem of categorization in linguistics:

- 1.The Grammatical category;*
- 2.The Notional category*
- 3.The Functional Semantic category.*
- 4.The Lexical-Grammatical Fields*

II. Major Parameters of the Typological category

- 5.The cross-language character;*
- 6.The cross-level character;*
- 7.The cross-class character;*
- 8.Cross-level synonymy and cross language correspondence*

Grammatical categories of the English language

Aspects

Degrees of
Comparison

Case

Number

Mood

Voice

Person

Tense

The Grammatical category

The grammatical category is a union of the grammatical form and grammatical meaning reflected in a morphological paradigm. Grammatical categories can have one or more exponents. For instance, the feature [number] has the exponents [singular] and [plural]. The members of one category are mutually exclusive; a noun cannot be marked for singular and plural at the same time, nor can a verb be marked for present and past at the same time. Exponents of grammatical categories are often expressed in the same position or 'slot' (prefix, suffix, etc.). Some examples of this are the Latin cases, which are all suffixal: *rosa*, *rosae*, *rosae*, *rosam*, *rosa*, ("rose" in nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, ablative)

For example, in English, the grammatical number of a noun such as "bird" in: The bird is singing. The bird-s are singing is either singular or plural, which is expressed overtly by the absence or presence of the suffix -s. Furthermore, the grammatical number is reflected in verb agreement, where the singular number triggers "Is", and the plural number "are".

Grammatical categories of the English language: Aspect, Case, Degrees of Comparison, Mood, Number, Person, Tense, Voice.

The Notional category

Study of the notional categories is related to the necessity within comparative typological operations to rely on certain logical backgrounds.

The term « notional categories)) emerged due for typological heterogeneity of external means of expression for separate notions lying in their basis. The given term is closely connected with the names of Otto Jespersen and Ivan I. Meshchani-nov. According to O. Jespersen the notional categories are outer language general categories, «not dependent on more or less casual facts of existing languages”. These categories are universal as they are applied to all languages, though they are

seldom expressed in these languages in a clear and unambiguous way... The task of a grammarian is to understand in every particular case the ratio existing between the notional and syntactic categories).

Thus, the notional categories of O. Jespersen are common to all languages, however in some languages they coincide with syntactic categories and are represented with the help of special grammatical means. And in systems of other languages the notional categories can remain under expressed. For example, the category of biological sex correlates to the notional category, while the grammatical gender correlates to syntactic category.

The scheme of their opposition may be presented as follows:

<i>Grammar</i>	<i>Reality</i>
<i>Gender</i>	<i>Biological sex</i>
<i>(Syntactic)</i>	<i>(notional)</i>
1) masculine gender	1) male sex
2) feminine gender words	2) female sex

According to Jespersen «grammatical categories represent at the best symptoms or the shades rejected by notional categories)³⁵.

I.I. Meshchaninov in his works also specified that one or another notion can be differently represented in various languages. In some languages it can be displayed with the help of definite grammatical formal means and thus, transform into a grammatical concept. In other languages it can be lack of special formal signs. These general categories Meschaninov named as notional categories « Everything which is perceived as a single unit, as a uniform category, acquires its formal distinctive indicators. And if the latter, i.e. distinctive formal indicators, come out in the way of grammatical categories, then the semantic notions lying in the base of the grammatical categories can be named as the notional categories)³⁶.

According to I.I. Meshchaninov, the concept can become a notional category if it forms a certain system of language means. He treats the notional categories from

the logical point of view which becomes clear from the following quotation «The subject and the predicate (logical) are the notional categories» When displayed in the syntactic structure of the sentence they become grammatical concepts of the subject and the predicate. Division into male and female genders remains in Russian as the notional distinction. These conceptual categories in Russian are in lexicon, in corresponding semantics of words, but the morphological display of the category of gender does not reflect the notional category of male and female sexes (compare: the table - is a masculine gender, compare: As it is seen from the examples above the notional categories and grammatical categories are different. Relations between the notional and grammatical categories can be different: a) they can coincide; b) the notional category remains, while the grammatical concept falls away; c) the notional category can be expressed in the field of lexical semantics not acquiring grammatical forms and not becoming «the grammatically expressed concept»; d) the grammatical form continues to allocate corresponding grammatical notions while the related notions are lost.

In general, the concept of the notional categories could be better used for the purposes of comparative typology, than the existing grammatical categories. However, neither I.I. Meshchaninov, nor O. Jespersen gave an all-embracing explanation of this category and did not provide sufficient analysis of any actual language material with the full application of the notional categories for learning purposes of various languages of the world.

Later the concept of the notional categories was developed in the works of A.V.Bondarko. He distinguished two aspects of notional categories: cognitive-language aspect and cognitive-speech aspect. The cognitive-language aspect of the notional categories is understood as «existing in the given language and in the consciousness of its speakers, in the ways, types, models of transformations of notional categories into language semantic functions...». These two aspects of notional categories are interrelated.

The Functional-Semantic category

The concept of the functional-semantic category is connected with the cross-level description of the system of a certain language. While distinguishing these categories A.V.Bondarko starts with «a partial commonness of semantic functions of language elements (existence of semantic invariant despite the diversity of variants)³⁹.

The functional-semantic category has the content and expression plans. The semantic content is identified with the meaning of morphological categories (such as the verbal aspect, tense, person and mood). «The expression plan is formed by language means related to different levels of language hierarchy and aspects of language”: morphological, syntactic, word-formation, lexical, various combinations of means in the context)⁴⁰.

What is important is that the functional - semantic categories A.V. Bondarko bases on the morphological categories which are looked at as a starting point.

. Units of other levels are defined as means, cooperating with morphological units on the basis of partial semantic coincidence. On this basis A.V.Bondarko identifies a number of the functional-semantic categories such as temporality, modality, personality, aspect and others. The above categories are expressed by cross-level units of the language: morphological, lexical and syntactic.

The functional-semantic categories can be successfully applied in comparative typological research. The concept of functional-semantic categories can be applied in comparative studies as it represents a reliable basis for cross-language comparisons.

The functional-semantic categories are developed on the strong logic basis, and theoretical positions developed by A.V.Bondarko and can serve a specific meta-language while describing not only a system of one concrete language, but they can also be applied in typological researches.

The functional-semantic categories constitute certain fields and in many senses they coincide with the concept of grammatical-lexical fields existing in linguistics.

The Grammatical - Lexical Fields

General-theoretical and applied issues of the field theory were considered by many linguists. The field approach is connected with a principle of content approach to research: «from meaning to form», or «from function to form», i.e. «from meanings to the means of their expressions. The given question was considered by L.V. Shcherba, I. I. Meshchaninov, F. Bruno and others.

A detailed scientific description of the grammatical-lexical fields was made in the special work of E. V.Gulyga and E.I.Shendels. In their opinion the concept of the grammatical-lexical field is connected to the process identifying different-level means of separate categorial concepts⁴¹.

The Grammatical-lexical field is category, uniting lexis and grammar while expressing this or that categorial concept. The grammatical and lexical units constitute a common system. E.V.Gulyga and E.I.Shendels identify several grammatical-lexical fields: the field of plurality, the field of tense, the modality field, the comparison, the animaty/unanimaty fields and demonstrational field. Each of these fields is characterized by a number of signs⁴².

The field approach offered by E. V.Gulyga and E.I. Shendels can be useful for the typological inventory of systems of compared languages.

The Major Parameters of the Typological Category

The Comparative typology operates with the special meta-language to compare languages. The typological categories serve a meta-language and are common to the systems of compared languages, thus constituting the cross-language nature of the category. Typological categories are content-based and represented as special units of some common content or categorial meaning in the systems of compared

languages which have correlated means of expression. The typological category is a unity of the typological form and typological meaning.

The typological meaning is an abstract generalized cross-language meaning which is used as a base for comparison of languages. Examples of the typological meaning: quantity, quality, temporality, personality, location, relativity, relationship, color, age, mutuality, diminution, causation, etc.

The typological form is varied into cross level and cross-class. The cross level means of the typological form can relate to each other as cross level synonyms in one language and cross language correspondents in compared languages. Typological forms may be *explicit*, i.e. they might be expressed by special markers, or *implicit*, i.e. expressed by the stem of the word.

The typological form may be represented in the following way.

On the morphological level it is represented by synthetic forms (affixes, inner flexion, etc) and analytical form (auxiliary word, functional parts of speech, etc). On the lexical level it can be represented by root morphemes, derivational affixes, compound and composite words. On syntactic level the typological form can be represented by combinations of words or by the sentence.

The cross-level character of the typological category is displayed through participation of units belonging to different levels of language hierarchy in the expression of a certain typological category. Invention of cross-level means of expression is needed to describe systems of each compared language separately.

The typological category can be expressed on a number of levels simultaneously. Still one of the levels might be considered as dominant. For example, if a language has explicit morphological means of expressing a certain typological meaning, this level is taken as dominant, e.g. the category of number in English is expressed by the morpheme -(es,s) or in Uzbek - by the morpheme -lar.

The dominant levels in compared languages may or may not coincide thus conditioning the level of genetic and/or typological closeness of compared languages. In the process of categorization the most abstract means of expression are considered dominant while the others are looked at as peripheral.

In English the typological category of voice is expressed by various typological forms with different extent of abstraction:

a) Fully abstract: be+V (en) = to be written

b) Partially abstract: get, become, remain + V (ed) = to become educated

Reflexive voice:

English:

Semi-abstract: V + oneself: She washed herself

Lexical: self-accusation: She dressed.

The cross-class character of the typological category is displayed through participation of words belonging to various lexical-grammatical classes of words (or parts of speech) in expressing a certain typological category. Both notional and functional parts of speech are involved into inventory.

[In this sense the typological category is opposed to the traditional grammatical category which is mono-class. For example, the category of number in the traditional grammatical category is described separately in the systems of different parts of speech. E.g., in English it is looked at in the systems of the noun, the verb, the pronoun.

Each language possesses various resources to express different categorial meanings. If a certain categorial meaning can be expressed simultaneously through several lexical - grammatical classes, they are considered as cross-level synonyms.

For example, the typological category of status:

1) The child is sleeping:

2) The child is asleep

3) A sleepy (sleeping) child

The typological categories can be represented differently in compared languages. For example, in English the typological category of plurality is more represented in the systems of the noun and verb while other parts of speech like the adjective stay-isolated.

Thus the typological category has the following distinctive features: it is cross-language, cross level and cross class; it has the possibility of cross level synonymy and cross language correspondence.

It is characterized by special markers of the categorial opposition which can be in various relations to each other: central and peripheral; explicit and implicit; allo-morphic and isomorphic; mutually inclusive and exclusive.

The Typological category of personality

The category of personality should be dealt in close connection with the category of number (plurality) in English and Russian languages, because in the languages of Indo-European family these categories are usually expressed by one and the same morpheme simultaneously.

In compared languages the category of personality is a characteristic feature for pronouns and verbs. The compared languages make distinction between the three classes of personal pronouns denoting respectively the person(s) spoken to (the second person) and the person(s) (or things) spoken about (the third person).

singular

plural

1 person - the speaker, the speaker and some other people

2 person - a person spoken to, more than one people spoken to

3 person - a person or a thing spoken about, some people or things spoken about

The category of personality in verbs is represented by the 1st, 2nd, 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 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.

We live.

2) there is no distinction of numbers in the 1st and 2nd persons. Thus, the form «live» in these persons may refer to both one and more than one subjects. Thus the opposition of all other persons expresses relations of the 3rd person with any person of both numbers.

The marked member of the opposition differs greatly from that of unmarked one in the form and in the meaning. It should be kept in mind that in the Subjunctive mood of the form «live» denotes any person of both numbers. There is 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 morphological level units have explicit markers of personality, i.e. special affixes with the grammatical meaning of personality. The category of personality can be also found on other level of hierarchy: lexical and syntactic.

The meaning of personality can be expressed by the implicitly of the lexical meaning of some lexical-grammatical classes of words.

The so called "editorial we" (Lat. plural is modestial) is well 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.

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

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 gram-

matical form which takes part in the formation of the paradigm of nouns (or pronouns). Grammarians seem to be divided in their opinions as to the case system of the English nouns. The most common view is that they have only two cases: the Common case (subject) and the Possessive case.

The Common case is characterized by a zero morpheme (suffix) e.g. child, boy, student, etc. and the Possessive case is formed by the indexing *is* and its phonetic variants as [s] and [z].

The English Possessive case and other five cases of Uzbek are the marked members of the case opposition in both languages. The English Possessive case is marked by the apostrophe 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 or rendered by genitive case. This case denotes possession of a thing or a person and in Uzbek-it has its correspondence in the *Капатий КейвиннрН* which is expressed by the case ending suffix - *mmr*.

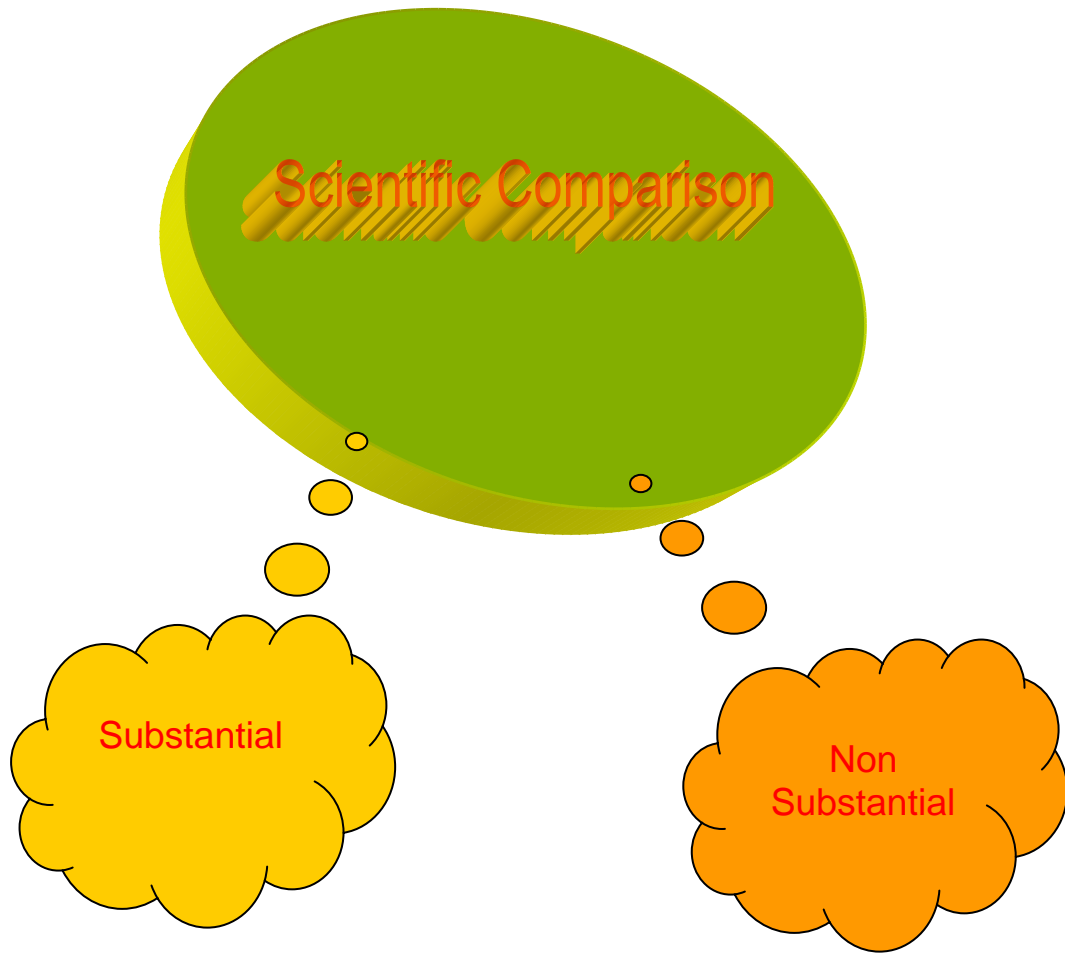
Dealing with notion of possession one should keep in mind that in Uzbek this category may be expressed not only by the nouns but also by their antecedents in the pleonastic phrase such as “*МЕНИНГ ОНАМ*”. In this case we have to face the problem of redundancy and often try to avoid it using a modified noun “only”, which contains the possessive suffix.

Meaning and functions of the other Uzbek cases may be denoted in English either by means of prepositions or by a word order.

The Uzbek *Urin Payt Kelishik* 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. It should be kept in mind that most of the English preposition may contain (more) additional meaning denoting the place of the thing or a person.

Visual aids on Lectures and Seminars

Lecture I



Branches of General typology

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graph TD; A[Branches of General typology] --> B[Linguistic Language typology]; A --> C[Non Linguistic Typology<br/>Historical<br/>Math<br/>Botony];
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Linguistic
Language typology

Non Linguistic
Typology
Historical
Math
Botony

Historical development of Linguistic Typology undergoes different steps
Vladimir Skalizka plays an important role

- **Vladimír Skalizka** is known as one of the founders of modern linguistic typology - gives a detailed survey of the characteristic features of the above given language types.

- Examples of polysynthetic languages include Inuktitut, Mohawk, Classical Ainu, Central Siberian Yupik, Cherokee, Sora, Chukchi and numerous other languages of the Americas, Siberia, Caucasus and northern Australia.
- An example from Chukchi, a polysynthetic, incorporating, and agglutinating language:

- **Synthetic languages** form words by affixing a given number of dependent morphemes to a root morpheme. The morphemes may be distinguishable from the root, or they may not. They may be fused with it or among themselves (in that multiple pieces of grammatical information may potentially be packed into one morpheme). Word order is less important for these languages than it is for analytic languages, since

- Examples of polysynthetic languages include Inuktitut, Mohawk, Classical Ainu, Central Siberian Yupik, Cherokee, Sora, Chukchi and numerous other languages of the Americas, Siberia, Caucasus and northern Australia.
- An example from Chukchi, a polysynthetic, incorporating, and agglutinating language:
 - Təmeyŋəlvtpəytərən.
 - *t-ə-meyŋ-ə-levt-pəyt-ə-rən*
 - 1.SG.SUBJ-great-head-hurt-PRES.1
 - 'I have a fierce headache.'(Skorik 1961: 102)
- Təmeyŋəlvtpəytərən has a 5:1 morpheme-to-word ratio with 3 incorporated lexical morphemes (*meyŋ* 'great', *levt* 'head', *pəyt* 'ache').

Typology is a branch of general Linguistics

Morphological Typology

Morphological typology First developed by brothers Friedrich and August von Schlegel, the field organizes languages on the basis of how those languages form words by combining morphemes. Developed by brothers Friedrich and August von Schlegel, the field organizes languages on the basis of how those languages form words by combining morphemes. As a way of classifying the languages of the world that groups languages according to their common morphological structures.

First developed by brothers Friedrich and August von Schlegel, the field organizes languages on the basis of how those languages form words by combining morphemes.

The field organizes languages on the basis of how those languages form words by combining morphemes.

Two primary categories exist to distinguish all languages: analytic and synthetic, where each term refers to the opposite end of a continuous scale including all the world's languages.

Analytic languages show a low ratio of words to morphemes; in fact, the correspondence is nearly one-to-one. Sentences in analytic languages are composed of independent root morphemes.

The basic idea underlying cross-linguistic research on categorization within lexical fields and conceptual domains (coherent segments of experience and knowledge about them) is that human experience is not delivered in nicely pre-packed units, categories and types, but has to be chunked, organized and categorized by human beings themselves. Categories correspond to experiences that are perceived to have features in common

Categories
correspond to experiences
that are perceived to have
features in common.

Experiences
systematically encoded by
one and the same
linguistic label (e.g., by
the same word) they are,
most probably, perceived
as being fairly similar to
each other; that is they
are taken to represent one
and the same class, or to
correspond to one and
same concept or lexical
meaning.

A reasonable way of defining what can be meant by “lexical typology” is to view it as the cross-linguistic and typological dimension of lexicology. The probably most updated overview of lexicology as a field is found in the two volumes, the title of which “underlines the special orientation towards the two core areas which makes of lexicology an autonomous discipline, namely, the characterization of words and vocabularies.

Lexical-typological research can also be more *local*, e.g., restricted to a particular lexical field, a particular derivational process, a particular polysemy pattern, or more *general*, with the aim of uncovering patterns in the structuring of the lexicon that are supposed to have a bearing on many essential properties of the language. The latter includes various approaches to the issues of “basic” vs. non-basic vocabulary, or suggestions as to how characterize, compare and measure the lexical-typological profiles of different languages. In fact, some people prefer using the term “typological”

Only a handful of conceptual domains typically encoded by words (rather than by grammatical means) have been subject to systematic cross-linguistic research on their semantic categorization, primarily *colour*, *body*, *kinship*, *perception*, *motion*.

Phonological typology involves comparing languages according to the number or type of sound they contain. Although there are inevitable problems in dividing the sounds of any language into separate abstract units

**Phonology and Typology
are integrally
connected disciplines**

- In English and Czech we may consider compounds (of more than two lexemes) a polysynthetic trace to some extent.
- In English, unlike in Czech, there exist the so-called *quotational compounds* (originally sentences or parts of sentences taken from their syntactic environment and used as one word):
- I don't like that *I-don't-knowish* look of

TWO - MEMBER SENTENCE

EXTENDED
IT WAS A NICE
DAY
BIZ MAKTAB
ZALIGA
YIG'ILDIK.

NON- EXTENDED
THE DOCTOR
CAME.
IKKI DUGONA TER-
MULIB
QOLISHDI.

IN ENGLISH

NOMINAL SENTENCE

EX: MY MOTHER IS A DOCTOR.

VERBAL SENTENCE

EX: ANN IS GETTING HER EXAMS.

GRAMMATICAL BASE

ONE-MEMBERS.

*IT IS RAINING.

*OTA-ONALARGA YORDAMBERDIK.

TWO-MEMBERS.

*THE SUN IS RISING.

*BIZ MAKTABGA BORDIK.

NOMINAL

1) Linking verb
to be +
predicative
(Bob is postaman)

2) A sentence with a pred. lack.
A finite verb
(The more- the merrier)

Commonly used:
1.Headlines ("First
animal Cloned")
2.Play- by-play sport
announcing ("The
batter 0 for 6 against
Matthews this year ")

SENTENCE

VERBAL

1)
passi
ve
voice

2)
Imperative
mood

The diagram illustrates four types of sentence structures, each in a red-outlined shape with a cyan fill. Arrows point from each shape to a starburst containing a description. 1. A triangle labeled 'MONO-STRUCTURAL' points to a starburst saying 'Have only subject'. 2. A hexagon labeled 'Double-structural' points to a starburst saying 'Have both: a subject and a predicate'. 3. A rounded rectangle labeled 'NOMINAL' points to a starburst saying 'Have only predicate'. 4. A starburst labeled 'NOMINAL' points to a starburst saying 'Have only subject'.

**MONO-
STRUCTURAL**

**Double-
structural**

Have both: a subject
and a predicate

NOMINAL

NOMINAL

Have only subject

Have only predicate

ОРАЛИҚ ВА ЯКУНИЙ НАЗОРАТ УЧУН ТЕСТЛАР

Variant No 1

1) What does the term "typology" mean?

- a) typos-разнообразие, logon- умение**
- b) typos-ТНн, logos-yneHHe**
- c) type-ТНн, logy-jiorHH**
- d) typen-nHCbMO. logon-MbiuiJieHHe**

*2) How many approaches in language description are there in typology? a)1
b)2 c)3 d)4*

3) Panchronically means

- a) the description, which deals with the cross-system of any concrete language*
- b) cross-system of two language systems*
- c) comparison of language systems concerning modern period*
- d) comparison of language systems though they are living or dead*

4) A semantic approach towards typological description is...

- a) content approach*
- b) formal approach*
- c) cross-level approach*
- d) one-level approach*

5) How many types of typology are there in linguistics according to the levels of language hierarchy?

- a) 6 b)4 c)5 d)3*

6) Syntactic typology studies....

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

7) How many types of typology are there in linguistics according to two plans of language?

a) 2 b) 3 c) 4 d) 5

8) *What does linguistic typology study?*

- a) *all kinds of language in comparison*
- b) *the periods of development of linguistics*
- c) *slative study of a certain period*
- d) *the systems of genetically related and non-related languages in comparison*

9) *What does substantial comparison mean?*

- a) *comparison of language systems concerning modem period*
- b) *comparison of some concrete things or objects*
- c) *comparison of systems and their elements*
- d) *comparison of cross-systems of languages*

10) *What does non-substantial comparison mean?*

- a) *comparison of objects*
- b) *comparison of language systems*
- c) *comparison of cross systems*
- d) *comparison of systems and their elements*

11) *Comparative-historical linguistics is....*

- a) *comparative-historical studies of languages in their development*
- b) *comparative scientific study of languages in their development*
- c) *comparative system of compared languages*
- d) *comparative typological content approach to comparison*

12) *The names of famous linguists who study the language system in comparison nowadays:*

- a) formal, phonological, semantic, morphological*
- b) structural, areal. lexical, genetic, phonetic*
- c) phonetic, phonological, morphological, syntactic, formal*
- d) phonetic, phonological, morphological, syntactic, lexical*

3) What language has non-developed morphology?

- a) Persian*
- b) Latin*
- c) Chinese*

4) Semantic typology studies two types of meaning. They are...

- a) lexical meaning and morphological meaning*
- b) lexical meaning and grammatical meaning*
- c) morphological meaning and phonetic meaning*
- d) grammatical meaning and morphemic meaning*

5) Diachronic development means the development of some linguistic phenomena from....

- a) phono-morphological classification*
- b) non-functioning feature*
- c) modern view point*
- d) the historical view point*

6) The category of plurality expressed by syntactic means,...

- a) goose-geese*
- c) flower-flowers*
- b) a lot of teachers*
- d) class-people*

7) Linguistic typology.....

- a) deals with the cross system of any concrete language*
- b) means comparison of language systems though they are living or dead*

c) is a science of linguistics which studies the language systems in comparison

8) Genetically closely related languages are:

a) English, German, Italian

b) Latin, French, Russian

c) Uzbek, Kirgiz, Kazakh

9) Category of plurality can be expressed in Modern English by...

a) morphological means of expression, syntactic means

b) phono-morphological means, lexical means

c) all answers are right

10) Synchronic development means the development of some linguistic phenomena from...

a) the point of view of modern period

b) typological classification

c) the historical point of view

d) non-functioning feature

11) What approach deals with the cross system of any concrete language?

a) Internal

c) Panchronica!

b) External!

d) Non-substantial

12) What does substantial comparison mean?

a) comparison of some concrete things or objects

b) comparison of systems and their elements

c) comparison of two languages

d) comparison of language system

13) What does non-substantial comparison mean?

- a) comparison of systems and their elements*
- b) comparison of language system*
- c) comparison of some concrete things or objects*

14) The term "type in language" is used mostly with....

- a) one language*
- b) two languages*
- c) group of words*
- d) genetically related languages*

15) Linguistic typology.....

- a) is a science of linguistics which studies the language systems in comparison*
- b) deals with the cross system of any concrete language*
- c) means comparison of language system though they are living or dead*
- d) deals with the cross system of any abstract language*

Variant No 3

1) Comparative typology has a direct connection with...

- a) translation*
- b) lexicography*
- c) stylistics*
- d) all answers are right*

2) Traditional grammatical categories consist of....

a) grammatical categorization

b) grammatical form and grammatical meaning

c) analysis and synthesis

3) What is term of "category"?

a) comparison of language system from linguistic point of view

b) philosophical term meaning the sum of form and meaning

c) all answers are right

4) Which typology studies the syntactic structure of different languages...

a) lexical

b) syntactic

c) grammatical

5) Which languages have highly developed morphology?

a) English, Bulgarian

b) Arabic, Chinese

c) Russian, Arabic

6) Which languages have less developed morphology?

a) Armenian, Persian

b) Chinese, Arabic

c) Bulgarian, Russian

7) What language has non-developed morphology?

a) Persian

b) Ijatin

c) Chinese

8) Which approach deals with the cross level analysis of any concrete language?

- a) *internal*
- b) *extemal*
- c) *interlevel*

9) Which languages have only the forms of plurality and singularity?

- a) *English, Russian*
- b) *Uzbek, English*
- c) *Kazakh, Uzbek*
- d) *All answers are right*

10) What languages are genetically closely related languages?

- a) *Uzbek and Kirgiz*
- b) *English and Russian*
- c) *Kirgiz and English*
- d) *Russian and Uzbek*

11).....deals with the languages which are genetically related both synchronically and diachronically.

- a) *Genetic typology*
- b) *Areal typology*
- c) *Comparative typology*
- d) *Structural typology*

12) What branch of linguistic typology deals with geographically limited number of languages?

- a) *Areal a)typology*
- b) *Comparative typology*
- c) *Genetic typology*
- d) *Structural typology*

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

- a) *Isolating type*
- c) *Flexional type*

b) Agglutinative type

d) Polysynthetic type

14) According to the subject of comparison linguistic typology consists of:

- a) genetic typology, areal, comparative, and structural***
- b) genetic, comparative, structural, and semantic typology***
- c) syntactic, genetic, comparative, semantic typology***
- d) phonetic, syntactic, comparative and genetic typology***

15) According to the levels of language hierarchy linguistic typology consists of:

- a) phonetic, phonological, morphological, syntactic, and lexical typology***
- b) phonetic, phonological, and formal typology***
- c) semantic, areal, formal and phonetic typology***
- d) genetic, areal, comparative and structural typology***

Test on Comparative Typology.

Variant №1

1. How can you define the term “Linguistic Universals?”

- a) they are bound to unification of language facts, identifying common, similar features specific to systems of all or separate language groups
- b) they are united into the language varieties of differentiations on the language grammar features
- c) they may be found as the deep level of comparison linguistic unities flow into the phonetic specifications
- d) the universals may be classified according to various principles of liberation.

2. What does the term “Etalon Language” denote?

- a) the notions of different language classifications
- b) spontaneous and unique varieties of phonetic rules

- c) is an object language for Linguistic Typology and it is also a means or system of tools to compare languages
- d) the language differentiations of the grammar level of English

3. How is the term “Typological classification” defined?

- a) it is opposed to genetic, genealogical classification and is bound to classifying languages according to their taxonomic, systemic features and is defined by structural types of languages.
- b) it contradicts different pedagogical specifications and terms of the language
- c) It is similar to the language unities, hence influences the development of the language on the different basis.
- d) It notifies the specific features which are not to be mentioned within the language stream

4. What languages are “The isolated ones?”

- a) Japanese, English, Slovenian
- b) Chinese, Vietnamese, Japanese
- c) Norwegian, German, Latvian
- d) Portuguese, Spanish, Italian

5. Which word is considered to be an agglutinative.....?

- a) a word, which consists of a stem and one or more clearly identifiable affixes.
- b) a word having one root morpheme
- c) a word, which has no specific suffixation changes
- d) a word, which shows its best developmental features within the language

6. Which word is regarded to be a polysynthetic....?

- a) a word, which has two root morphemes
- b) a word, which has no morphemes at all
- c) a word consisting of long strings of stems and affixes, which may be translated as the entire language English sentence
- d) a word which has no affixes

7. What does a typological theory define?

- a) it defines common linguistic notions used in linguistic typology
- b) it defines grammar of English
- c) it defines a phonetic substratum of the language
- d) it doesn't define any language peculiarities

8. Which word may be considered as a flexional?

- a) a word, which has no affixation morphemes
- b) the words which consist of stem and affixes which often mark several grammatical categories simultaneously
- c) the words which bear no resistance to their origin
- d) the words which have no specific phonetic differentiations

9. What can you say about the inflections of Latin and Greek languages?

- a) their inflections mainly consist of the fusing elements that express logically impure relational concepts with radical elements and with elements expressing derivational concepts
- b) their inflections express mainly the pure grammar conceptions, while other features are not deeply considered
- c) their inflections are not a process of deep systematization of phonetic and morphological features
- d) their inflections are not visible in the context, because of several morphemic specifications

10. What languages are considered to be “prefixing” and which are entirely suffixing?

- a) cambodian and tamil
- b) check and Romanian
- c) bantu, tlingit and eskimo, latin
- d) english andrussian

11. What are the specific features of analytic languages?

- a) in the analytic language a word is of minor interest, while the sentence is of a prime importance
- b) in the analytic language a sentence is of a minor importance
- c) all answers are correct
- d) in the analytic languages the parts of speech are of a prime importance

12. What are the specific features of synthetic languages?

- a) in the synthetic language one of the most important factors is a noun
- b) in the synthetic language the most important role plays an adjective
- c) in the synthetic language the words are more richly chambered and there is a tendency on the whole to keep the range of concrete significance in the single word down to the moderate compass
- c) in the synthetic language the parts of speech are easily clustered

13. What does “The Structural typology” study?

- a) the Structural typology is the major branch of Linguistic typology and aims to identify structural language types
- b) the Structural typology is a branch of General linguistics, which studies word-formations
- c) the Structural typology is a science, which studies lexicological differentiations of words
- d) the Structural typology is a subject, which studies grammar features of the language

14. What is the ultimate goal of Structural typology?

- a) to reveal its specific features
- b) to identify universal features
- c) to realize its potential
- d) to have a language impact on the grammar

15. What are the scholars who contributed to the development of Structural typology?

- a) Peter Mardon, Sue Barrimor, Dennis Maccleyn
- b) Steven hockey, Marcus Farres, Samuel Jacobson
- d) B. Uspenskiy, V.P. Nedyalkov, Ch. Hockette, Yu. Rojdenstvenskiy