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Actual problems and methodology of modern comparative typology

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QUALIFICATION PAPER

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Contents

Introduction

Language is a means of forming and storing ideas as reflections of reality and exchanging them in the process of human intercourse. Language is social by nature; it is inseparably connected with the people who are its creators and users; it grows and develops together with the development of society[1].

For the past 20 years of independence in our republic there was done great number of changes in all spheres of our life. In the sphere of education here we can mention building and reconstruction of secondary schools, lyceums, and colleges in all part of Uzbekistan. In the years 2011-2016 the same work will be done in institutions and universities of our republic.

On December 10, 2012 there was released the decree of the president of Uzbekistan № 1875 about the development of the system of teaching foreign languages. This decree gives a language learner great amount of opportunities, and at the same time puts concrete tasks for teachers of foreign languages.

Based on our president's task for linguists, we decided to work with one of the most interesting topics of modern linguistics – comparative typology. The present qualification paper deals with the study of the actual problems and methodology of modern comparative typology, which presents a certain interest both for the theoretical investigation and for the practical language use.

The actuality of the investigation is explained on one hand by the profound interest to the function of comparative typology in modern linguistics, and on the other hand by the absence of widely approved comparative analysis of different language layers of modern English and Uzbek languages.

The novelty of the Qualification Paper is defined by concrete results of the investigation special emphasis is laid on comparative analysis of different language layers of modern English and Uzbek languages.

The aim of this Qualification Paper is to define the specific features of actual problems and methodology of modern comparative typology.

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[1] Karimov I. A. Ilmiy – tadqiqot faoliyatini takomillashtirish to'g'risida // "Xalq so'zi" gazetasi, 2002 yil, 15 mart

The following tasks are put forward according to the general aim of this research:

1. to define the notion of the typology;

2. to analyze different types of typology;

3. reveal specific comparative typological features of modern English and Uzbek phonological level;

4. to study comparative typological features of modern English and Uzbek morphological level;

The methods of investigation used in this research are follows: semantic, structural, functional and translation.

The practical value of the research is that material for theoretical courses of linguistics, lexicology, stylistics, translation, comparative typology and grammar as well as can be used for practical lessons in translation, home reading, conversational practice and current events.

The object of this research is to study the actual problems and methodology of modern comparative typology.

The material includes:

1. different types of linguistic books on comparative typology;

2. scientific literature on theoretical and practical grammar of English and Uzbek languages;

3. the practical books of English and Uzbek writers.

The theoretical importance of the Qualification Paper is determined by the necessity of detailed and comprehensive analysis of the actual problems and methodology of modern comparative typology.

The Structure of work – the given Qualification Paper consists of introduction, three chapters, conclusion and supplement which are followed by the lists of literature used in the course of the research. Introduction tells about the aim of the research, methods used on the course of it, explains its actuality, novelty, objective, practical and scientific value. The first chapter discusses analysis of the

linguistic literature on the actual problems of modern comparative typology. In the second chapter comparative typological analysis of the different language layers of modern English and Uzbek languages are discussed. The third chapter is about the essential problems of teaching English language to learners with native languages. Conclusion presents the results of investigation produced in the Qualification Paper. The list of used literature names all the books used in the course of this research. In the supplement we gave the examples of English phrasal verbs found in different literary works.

Chapter I Analysis of the linguistic literature on the actual problems of modern comparative typology

1.1. General notes on modern typology

Typology is a method of scientific cognition wherein a system of objects is divided up and the objects are grouped through the use of generalized and idealized models or types[2]. The method is used for objects existing at the same or different times in order to carry out a comparative study of important features, connections, functions, relations, or levels of organization of the objects. The term "typology" is also applied to the result of a typological description and juxtaposition of objects[3].

Problems of typology arise in all sciences that deal with sets of objects of diverse content, the objects generally being discrete, and that attempt to achieve an ordered description and explanation of the sets. Examples of such sciences are chemistry, biology, psychology, linguistics, geography, and sociology. One of the most universal procedures of scientific thought, the typological approach is based on the establishment of similarities and differences in the objects under study and on a search for reliable means of identifying the objects. In its theoretically developed form a typology seeks to depict the structure of the system being investigated and to establish patterns in the system that make it possible to predict the existence of heretofore unknown objects.

A typology either may be directly based on the concept of a type as a fundamental logical unit into which the area of reality under study is divided or may make use of such other logical forms as classification, systematics, and taxonomy. The goal of classification is essentially the construction of hierarchical systems of classes and subclasses on the basis of either certain features that are not inherent in the objects (such as name or number) or such features that are inherent in them. Systematics makes use of a fixed hierarchy of descriptive units to carry

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[2] Успенский В.А. Принципы структурной типологии. М.: Высшая школа, 1962, стр. 47.
[3] Виноградов В.А. Методы типологии. (В сб.: Общее языкознание: Методы лингвистической исследовании). М.: Наука, 1973, стр. 280.

out a maximally complete multipartite classification of a given set of objects. Within the framework of taxonomy a special study is made of, and a foundation is provided for, the principles of a rational classification and systematics. The boundaries between these forms are largely arbitrary, and the use of a particular form in a given area of knowledge depends, to a considerable extent, on historical traditions. In biology, for example, even typological problems in the narrow sense of the word are usually considered within the framework of taxonomy and systematics. Nevertheless, typology can be regarded essentially as the theory and language of taxonomy, which, in turn, can be treated as the foundation of systematics and the analysis of its language.

According to the method of construction, a distinction is made between empirical and theoretical typologies. Empirical typologies are based on the quantitative processing and generalization of experimental data; on the establishment, through the inductive method, of set features that may be used as indicators of similarity and difference; and on the systematization and interpretation of the obtained material. A theoretical typology requires the construction of an ideal model of an object—that is, a generalized expression of the object features—and the establishment of the principles of the taxonomic description of the set of objects under study. Examples of such principles are the principle of homological similarity in animal systematics and the principle of symmetry in particle physics. In a theoretical typology an object is usually treated as a system; this approach is associated with the identification of system-forming relationships and with the construction of a representation of the structural levels of the object. Such a typology provides one of the principal means of explaining the object and of creating a theory for it.

The general principles of typology are essentially dependent on how the concept of type is interpreted. The history of science evidences three ways of treating the concept and, accordingly, three methods of constructing a typology. In antiquity a type was viewed as an unchanging, eternal, ideal essence that exists, for

Plato, prior to things or, for Aristotle, in things and manifests itself in species or individual differences as an ideal prototype, ground plan, or norm. This concept of a type was associated with numerous searches for an archetype, ground plan of construction, morphological type, or invariant structure of objects. In biology this approach to types found expression in morphological typology, or idealist morphology, which sought to find some kind of first type or prototype (for example, the primeval plant of J. W. von Goethe and the archetype of R. Owen) and treated changeability as the imperfect expression of an actually existing prototype. Such a conception of typology has found adherents even in the 20th century—for example, the German zoologist A. Neff and the German botanist W. Troll. By absolutizing the significance of a static model or type, the supporters of this conception oppose typological thought to evolutionist thought.

The acceptance by science of the idea of development was accompanied by the emergence of a second approach to typology. Although rooted in the historical understanding of the notion of a type, this approach regarded a typology as a representation of a system in its development. The distinguishing feature of such typologies is the important role played by time in their construction and substantiation. The methods used in such representation, however, are different in different sciences. In biology, for example, the evolutionary approach led to the development of phylogenetic, or phyletic, systematics, which to this day plays the leading role. The typological foundation of phylogenetic systematics consists in treating homological similarity as the criterion for relationship and in treating the hierarchically organized system of the organic world as a representation of phylogeny. A number of controversial points arise in this connection. An example is the question of how the hierarchy is to be constructed: it must be decided whether the diversity of the organic world arose from a single ancestor or from many ancestors. In other words, a choice must be made between the monophyletic principle and the polyphyletic principle. Another important problem is the finding

of reliable criteria that permit each taxon to be assigned to a unique place in the system.

In linguistics F. and A. von Schlegel initiated a comparative historical approach to typology based on the comparison of languages with respect to the similarity of their substances (pronunciation and meaning) and on the placing of the languages in definite cognate groups. This approach led, in the 19th century, to A. Schleicher's arraying of the Indo-European languages in a genealogical tree. In the early 19th century W. von Humboldt viewed the morphological types of languages as stages or branches of an evolutionary development from a single parent language.[4]

The principles of historical typology were made use of in a distinctive way in bourgeois sociology. Here, a typology was originally understood as a classification of actually existing types of societies and was usually constructed in opposition to the general typology, which is based on the doctrine of socioeconomic formations. This situation is true of the theory of cultural-historical types, or civilizations, developed by N.Ya. Danilevskii and O. Spengler. By using typological methods to construct a morphology of cultures, the theory undermined the linear Europe-centered conception of the historical process. The theory emphasized, however, the irreducibility of the civilizations to each other.

The development of the third way of viewing a typology is associated with the treatment of a type as a special methodological device used to construct a theoretical picture of reality. Here, a type is regarded not as something taken directly from reality but as a product of complex scientific thinking, which theoretically reconstructs the most important characteristics of the set of objects being studied and unites them in a type. On this basis, it may be possible to identify in the set some definite object that, with respect to a number of criteria, can be considered a representative of the entire set of objects.

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[4] Шрейдер Ю.А. Математическая модель теории классификации. М.: Наука, 1968, стр. 76.

The shift to the interpretation of a type as a methodological device had two important consequences. One was that it became possible to abandon the view of a typology as a complete and unambiguous representation of a system: to a set of specific typological procedures there corresponds a set of different typologies for the given system. The construction of a typology therefore requires both a special analysis of the typological concepts introduced and a substantiation of the concepts. Such an approach makes possible the formulation of abstract typologies, in which a type is understood as a complex construct located in a multidimensional taxonomic space. Thus the type becomes a special ideal object rather than a direct substitute for the empirically given set of objects. Because it is an ideal object, the type permits the construction of rigorous, multifactor models and provides a basis for the extensive use of logicomathematical methods. By shifting the problems of typology into the sphere of methodology, it becomes possible to make use of the achievements of modern logic, in particular, the distinguishing of class and type, of the three kinds of conceptual systems used in science (classificational, comparative, and mensurational), and of extensional and intensional languages. Moreover, it becomes possible to associate typology with the transition from classificational concepts to mensurational concepts and with the establishment of intensional meanings, that is, the class of possible objects that are encompassed by the meaning of a concept.

This approach to typology is of particular importance in modern linguistics, where various typological methods have been developed. In linguistics, typology has become a special area of study, in which, through an investigation of the structure of individual languages and an extensive comparison of the languages of the world, the essential features of language structure in general are established and the interdependent and mutually exclusive characteristics of language structure are ascertained, along with elements that are often or rarely encountered in languages.

The turn to the methodological conception of the problems of typology in the early 20th century was associated with the works of E. Sapir, N. S. Trubetskoi

(Trubetzkoy), and the Linguistic Circle of Prague. This change in point of view entailed not only the interpretation of genealogical classification as typological but also a virtually complete rejection of global classifications, an analysis of the hierarchy of language levels and their units, and a neglect of problems of the development of language. The development of typological methods led to the formation of different kinds of typology, including content, or semantic, typology; quantitative typology (J. Greenberg and others); characterological typology, which studies the interdependence of linguistic features (V. Skalicka and others); generative typology (B. A. Uspenskii and others); and structural typology, which analyzes definite relations between the elements of a language system and emphasizes the importance of the standard language and metalanguage (F. de Saussure and others). The establishment of essential and specific features of natural language and the ascertainment of its structure are the ultimate aims of the development of the various methods and forms of typology, in particular, the typology of levels, for example, morphological or phonological typology; the typology of individual categories, such as voice and case; the typology of universals; and the typology of individual language families and areas.

A similar trend can be discerned in the development of typology in biology. In particular, attempts have been made to improve or even to reexamine critically the classical phyletic taxonomy. These attempts have resulted in, for example, the numerical taxonomy of the American entomologist R. Sokal, the constructional morphology of the German zoologist H. Weber, the homological morphology of the German zoologist A. Remane, and the nomogenetic taxonomy of the Russian biologist A. A. Liubishchev.

In bourgeois social thought the tendency toward a methodological reinterpretation of typology is reflected in A. Toynbee's models of history, P. Sorokin's and A. Kroeber's models of culture, and especially in the method of ideal types developed by M. Weber. In Weber's view typology consists in the creation of certain ideal types, which are abstract constructs that represent a

deliberate simplification.[5] Ideal types are logical fictions or limiting concepts that have no direct analogue in reality. The social scientist is expected to study the causes and the nature of the deviation of historical reality from the ideal type. The methodology of ideal types reflected the essential features of the epistemology of neo-Kantianism, including its idealism, which entailed the rejection of the objective content of a typology. The methodology made use of ideography and emphasized the connection between typology and the study of values. The arbitrary quality and speculative character of typology, which are associated with bourgeois sociology's rejection of objective criteria for proposing and working out a typology, were considerably magnified in the American sociologist H. Becker's notion of constructed types (constructive typology). In stressing that a typology presupposes a departure from the reality being described, constructive typology overestimates the role of the researcher's arbitrary choice of some one case or event as a type. Associated with this form of typology in sociology is the study of the frequency distribution for each type and of the deviations from the type, as well as a search for means of predicting, on the basis of knowledge obtained from studying an individual case, what is possible and can be expected in other cases.

A typology based on theoretical considerations has the important advantage of permitting not only the inclusion of all forms that have been studied but also the identification of "unoccupied" areas, where newly discovered forms will subsequently be placed. A good example is the periodic system of the elements in chemistry.

The second consequence of the shift of the basic problems of typology to the sphere of theory and methodology was that attention was drawn to the question of the empirical interpretation of typological schemes and concepts. Empirical interpretation involves correlating the schemes and concepts with real sets of objects and finding definite rules (for example, rules prohibiting certain potential

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[5] Weber, M. Methodologische Schriften. Frankfurt am Main, 1968, p. 59.

combinations) that govern the juxtaposition of a type and empirical indicators and the transition from the theoretical concept of a type to the real system of discrete objects. Because of the abstract quality and one-sidedness of each specific typology, such interpretation presents a complicated problem.

1.2. Essential problems of linguistic typology

Linguistic typology is a subfield of linguistics that studies and classifies languages according to their structural and functional features. Its aim is to describe and explain the common properties and the structural diversity of the world's languages. It includes three subdisciplines: qualitative typology, which deals with the issue of comparing languages and within-language variance; quantitative typology, which deals with the distribution of structural patterns in the world's languages; and theoretical typology, which explains these distributions.

Qualitative typology develops cross-linguistically viable notions or types which provide a framework for the description and comparison of individual languages.[6] A few examples appear below.

One set of types reflects the basic order of subject, verb, and direct object in sentences:

- Subject–verb–object
- Subject–object–verb
- Verb–subject–object
- Verb–object–subject
- Object–subject–verb
- Object–verb–subject

These labels usually appear abbreviated as "SVO" and so forth, and may be called "typologies" of the languages to which they apply.

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[6] Song, J.J. (ed.) The Oxford Handbook of Linguistic Typology. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2011, p. 127.

Some languages split verbs into an auxiliary and an infinitive or participle, and put the subject and/or object between them. For instance, German ("Ich *habe* einen Fuchs im Wald *gesehen*" - *"I have a fox in-the woods seen"), Dutch ("Hans *vermoedde* dat Jan Marie *zag leren zwemmen*" - *"Hans suspected that Jan Marie saw teach swim") and Welsh ("*Mae*'r gwirio sillafu wedi'i *gwblhau*" - *"Is the checking spelling after its to complete"). In this case, linguists base the typology on the non-analytic tenses (i.e. those sentences in which the verb is not split) or on the position of the auxiliary. German is thus SVO in main clauses and Welsh is VSO (and preposition phrases would go after the infinitive). Many typologists classify both German and Dutch as V2 languages, as the verb invariantly occurs as the second element of a full clause.

Some languages allow varying degrees of freedom in their constituent order that pose a problem for their classification within the subject–verb–object schema. To define a basic constituent order type in this case, one generally looks at frequency of different types in declarative affirmative main clauses in pragmatically neutral contexts, preferably with only old referents. Thus, for instance, Russian is widely considered an SVO language, as this is the most frequent constituent order under such conditions—all sorts of variations are possible, though, and occur in texts. In many inflected languages, such as Russian, Latin, and Greek, departures from the default word-orders are permissible but usually imply a shift in focus, an emphasis on the final element, or some special context. In the poetry of these languages, the word order may also shift freely to meet metrical demands. Additionally, freedom of word order may vary within the same language—for example, formal, literary, or archaizing varieties may have different, stricter, or more lenient constituent-order structures than an informal spoken variety of the same language.

On the other hand, when there is no clear preference under the described conditions, the language is considered to have "flexible constituent order" (a type unto itself).

An additional problem is that in languages without living speech communities, such as Latin, Hellenic Greek, and Old Church Slavonic, linguists have only written evidence, perhaps written in a poetic, formalizing, or archaic style that mischaracterizes the actual daily use of the language. The daily spoken language of a Sophocles or a Cicero might have exhibited a different or much more regular syntax than their written legacy indicates.

Another common classification distinguishes nominative–accusative alignment patterns and ergative–absolutive ones. In a language with cases, the classification depends on whether the subject (S) of an intransitive verb has the same case as the agent(A) or the patient(P) of a transitive verb. If a language has no cases, but the word order is AVP or PVA, then a classification may reflect whether the subject of an intransitive verb appears on the same side as the agent or the patient of the transitive verb. Bickel (2011) has argued that alignment should be seen as a construction-specific property rather than a language-specific property.

Many languages show mixed accusative and ergative behaviour (for example: ergative morphology marking the verb arguments, on top of an accusative syntax). Other languages (called "active languages") have two types of intransitive verbs—some of them ("active verbs") join the subject in the same case as the agent of a transitive verb, and the rest ("stative verbs") join the subject in the same case as the patient. Yet other languages behave ergatively only in some contexts (this "split ergativity" is often based on the grammatical person of the arguments or on the tense/aspect of the verb). For example, only some verbs in Georgian behave this way, and, as a rule, only while using the perfective (aorist)[7].

Linguistic typology will also apply to the structure and spread of sound systems in languages world-wide in identifying patterns. Ultimately, the goal is to

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[7] Horn, K. M. Language Typology. Washington, 1966, p. 38.

understand the patterns of relative frequency between sounds and their co-occurrences and why they are thus. An example of this relative spread can be seen in trying to explain why contrastive voicing commonly occurs with plosives, such as in English with "neat" and "need", but much fewer have this occur in fricatives, such as the English "niece" and "knees". According to a worldwide sample of 637 languages,[8] 62% have the voicing contrast in stops but only 35% have this in fricatives. In the vast majority of those cases, the absence of voicing contrast occurs because there is a lack of voiced fricatives and because all languages have some form of plosive, but there are languages with no fricatives. Below is a chart showing the breakdown of these languages, showing the numbers as shown in this sample and how they relate to each other.[9]

Plosive Voicing	Fricative Voicing		
	Yes	No	Total
Yes	117	218	395 (62%)
No	44	198	242 (38%)
Total	221 (35%)	416 (65%)	637

Languages worldwide also vary in the number of sounds that are used within them. These languages can go from very small phonemic inventories (Rotokas with six consonants and five vowels) to very large inventories (!Xóõ with 128 consonants and 28 vowels). An interesting phonological observation found with this data is that the larger a consonant inventory a language has, the more likely it

[8] Song, J.J. Linguistic typology: Morphology and syntax. Harlow and London: Pearson Education (Longman), 2001, p. 81.
[9] Croft, W. Typology and universals. Cambridge: Cambridge UP. 2nd ed., 2002, p. 49.

is to contain a sound from a defined set of complex consonants (clicks, glottalized consonants, doubly articulated labial-velar stops, lateral fricatives and affricates, uvular and pharyngeal consonants, and dental or alveolar non-sibilant fricatives). Of this list, only about 26% of languages in a survey[2] of over 600 with small inventories (less than 19 consonants) contain a member of this set, while 51% of average languages (19-25) contain at least one member and 69% of large consonant inventories (greater than 25 consonants) contain a member of this set. It is then seen that complex consonants are in proportion to the size of the inventory.

Vowels contain a more modest number of phonemes, with the average being 5-6, which 51% of the languages in the survey have. About a third of the languages have larger than average vowel inventories. Most interesting though is the lack of relationship between consonant inventory size and vowel inventory size. Below is a chart showing this lack of predictability between consonant and vowel inventory sizes in relation to each other.[10]

Consonant Inventory	Vowel Quality Inventory			
	Small	Average	Large	Total
Small	47	153	65	265 (39%)
Average	34	105	98	237 (35%)
Large	34	87	57	178 (26%)
Total	115 (17%)	345 (51%)	220 (32%)	680

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[10] Croft, W. op.cit., p. 49.

Quantitative typology deals with the distribution and co-occurrence of structural patterns in the languages of the world. Major types of non-chance distribution include:

1. preferences (for instance, absolute and implicational universals, semantic maps, and hierarchies)

2. correlations (for instance, areal patterns, such as with 'a Sprachbund')

1.3. The essentials of comparative typology of languages

Comparative typology, as the notion itself reveals, represents a linguistic subject of typology based on the method of comparison. Like typology proper Comparative typology also aims at establishing the most general structural types of languages on their dominant or common phonetically, morphological, lexical and syntactical features. Comparative typology may equally treat dominant or common features only, as well as divergent features only, which are found in languages of the same structural type (synthetic, analytical, agglutinative, etc) or in languages of the different structural types, (synthetic and analytical, agglutinative and incorporative, etc).

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

The final aims of comparative typology are:

‒ To identify and classify accordingly the main isomorphic and allomorphic features characteristic of languages under investigation;

‒ To draw from these common or divergent features respectively the isomorphic regularities and the allomorphic singularities in the languages contrasted;

‒ To establish on the basis of the obtained isomorphic features the typical language structures and the types of languages;

‒ To perform on the basis of the obtained practical data a truly scientific classification of the existing languages of the world;

– To establish on this basis the universal features/phenomena, which pertain to each single language of the world.[11]

2. The difference between typological and historic and comparative linguistics.

Historical linguistics (also called diachronic linguistics) is the study of language change. It has five main concerns:

- to describe and account for observed changes in particular languages;

- to reconstruct the pre-history of languages and determine their relatedness, grouping them into language families (comparative linguistics);

- to develop general theories about how and why language changes;

- to describe the history of speech communities;

- to study the history of words.

Typological linguistics is a subfield of linguistics that studies and classifies languages according to their structural features. Its aim is to describe and explain the structural diversity of the world's languages.

Comparative linguistics (originally comparative philology) is a branch of linguistics that is concerned with comparing languages to establish their historical relatedness.

It aims to construct language families, to reconstruct proto-languages and specify the changes that have resulted in the documented languages. To maintain a clear distinction between attested and reconstructed forms, comparative linguists prefix an asterisk to any form that is not found in surviving texts. A number of methods for carrying out language classification have been developed, ranging from simple inspection to computerized hypothesis testing. Such methods have gone through a long process of development.

Comparative linguistics is that branch of one, which deals with the study of languages in terms of their history, relatedness, families and construct new forms.

3. Methods of comparative typological research.

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[11] Buranov J.B. Comparative typology of English and Turkic languages. T.: Ukituvchi, 1971, pp. 9-10.

-the comparative method aims at establishing the isomorphic(alongside of allomorphic) features and on their basis the determining of structural types of languages under contrastive investigation;

-the deductive method is based on logical calculation which suggests all the possible variants of realization of a certain feature/phenomenon in speech of one or more contrasted languages;

-the inductive method which needs novarification, since the investigated feature was proved by linguists and therefore the results obtained are possible;

-the statistic method for establishing the necessary quantitative and qualitative representation of some features or for identifying the percentage of co-occurrence of some features or linguistic units in the contrasted languages;

-the IC (immediate constituents) method is employed to contrast only linguistic units for investigating their constituent parts in one or some contrasted languages;

-transformational method for identifying the nature of a linguistic unit in the source language or for determining the difference in the form of expression in the contrasted languages.

4. Families of languages in the world today.

A language family is a group of languages related by descent from a common ancestor, called the proto-language of that family. There are over 100 language families in the world. The most widespread language families are:

The Indo-European Family

The most widely studied family of languages and the family with the largest number of speakers. Languages include English, Spanish, Portuguese, French, Italian, Russian, Greek, Hindi, Bengali; and the classical languages of Latin, Sanskrit, and Persian.

The Uralic Family

A family found in Europe (Hungarian, Finnish) and Siberia (Mordvin) with complex noun structures.

The Altaic Family

A family spread from Europe (Turkish) through Centra Asia (Uzbek), Mongolia (Mongolian), to the Far East (Korean, Japanese). These languages have the interesting property of vowel harmony.

The Sino-Tibetan Family

An important Asian family of languages that includes the world's most spoken language, Mandarin. These languages are monosyllabic and tonal.

The Malayo-Polynesian Family

A family consisting of over 1000 languages spread throughout the Indian and Pacific Oceans as well South East Asia. Languages include Malay, Indonesian, Maori and Hawaiian.

The Afro-Asiatic Family

This family contains languages of northern Africa and the Middle East. The dominant languages are Arabic and Hebrew.

The Caucasian Family

A family based around the Caucas Mountains between the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea. Georgian and Chechen are the main languages. They are known for their large number of consonants.

The Dravidian Family

The languages of southern India (in contrast to the Indo-European languages of northern India). Tamil is the best known of these languages.

Austro-Asiatic Family

This family are a scattered group of languages in Asia. They are found from eastern India to Vietnam. Languages include Vietnamese and Khmer.

Niger-Congo Family

This family features the many languages of Africa south of the Sahara. The large number of languages include Swahili, Shona, Xhosa and Zulu.[12]

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[12] The information is taken from: www.google.languagefamilies.com

5. Language type and the type of languages.

The type of the language is understood as a fixed set of main features of a language which are in definite relations with each other, and the presence or absence of one feature causes the presence or absence of another.

e.g. disappearing of the category of case in Old English > disappearing of the declensions of nouns, adjectives > fixed word order.

The language type is understood as a fixed set of main features of a language which are in definite relations with each other irrelatively a concrete language[13].

e.g. flexional, agglutinative, isolating, polysynthetic languages.

We should state that the whole comparative typological analysis of the languages is based on the above mentioned methods and principles as stated by the typologists of the present day linguistics.

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[13] Buranov J.B. Comparative typology of English and Turkic languages. T.: Ukituvchi, 1971, p. 63.

Chapter II Comparative typological analysis of the different language layers of modern English and Uzbek languages
2.1. Comparative typology of English and Uzbek

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

1. Non-linguistic and

2. Linguistic typology

Non-linguistic typology is the subject matter of the sciences except linguistics. Linguistic typology is a new branch of general linguistic which studies the systems of languages comparatively, also finds common laws of languages and establishes differences and similarities between them.

In linguistics we may come across many terms as to the terminological nature of linguistic typology. They are: 1. Comparative methods; 2. Comparative - historical method; 3. Comparative (or contrastive) linguistics; 4. Comparative typology; 5. Comparative grammar; 6. Connotation grammar; 7. Descriptive - comparative linguistics and on the terms used in Russian and Uzbek are not exact either. They are: сравнительная грамматика, сопоставительная грамматика, сравнительно-историческое языкознание, контрастивная лингвистика, сравнительная типология in Russian and қиёсий типология, қиёсий тарихий тилшунослик, қиёсий грамматика, қиёсий тилшунослик and so on in Uzbek.

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

Genealogical typology is a branch of linguistic typology which studies the similarities and the relationship between the related languages. It is applicated to

the systems of genetically related languages. Genealogical typology developed from the comparative - historical linguistics dominated during the 19th century in Europe. Its origin was stimulated by the discovery of Sanskrit, the ancient classical language of India. The discovery of Sanskrit disclosed the possibility of a comparative study of languages. The concept of relative languages was confirmed by the existence in India of a sister of the familiar languages of Europe e.g. Sanskrit «mata» means «mother», in the accuse case «matarum»

Dvau-two

Trayah - three

As ti - he is etc.

Before the discovery of Sanskrit European linguistics possessed very vague similarities for the current grammars built on the Greek model. They didn't set clearly the features of each language. It is worth to mention that at the same time Sanskrit discovery gave rise to confuse notions of linguistic relation which lived for a brief time that European languages were derived from Sanskrit. But this opinion gave way to a correct explanation, namely Sanskrit, Latin, Greek, and other were later forms of one prehistorically language.

Comparatives gave two kinds of classification of languages - genealogical and morphological. Genealogical classification deals with the family relationship of languages which descend from one common ancestor. It distributes languages into different families.

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

According to the morphological classification the languages are divided into:

Isolating (Chinese; Vietnamese; Japan; etc.)

Analytic (Russian; English; German; etc.)

Agglutinative (Turkish languages) and other.

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

Structural linguistic typology can be understood as a systematization of linguistic phenomenon from different languages according to their specific structural features. Structural typology research makes it possible to establish some traits are **universal, unique, and special**. The notion of language universals is closely connected with the process of unification of linguistic facts with a process of establishing common features between the systems of different languages.

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

Language universals study the universal features in the systems of different languages of the world. They find similarities which are typical of the absolute or overwhelming majority of languages. Types of universals are as follows: 1. Definitional universals, 2. Empirical universals.

Definitional universals are connected with the fact which the speaker possesses and uses his extrapolation. It means that linguistic phenomenon exists in the system of these languages which the scholar does not know, e.g. Indo-European languages have the opposition of the vowels and consonants. This phenomenon may be considered to be systems of other languages of the world.

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

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

Universal implication. These universals involve the relationship between two characteristics. If a language has a certain characteristics, it has also some particular characteristics but not vise-versa i.e. the presence of the second doesn't empty the presence of the firs, e.g. If a language has a category of dual number it has also a category of plural but not vise-versa. Such implications are numerous particularly in the phonological aspect of languages.

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

2.2. Comparative - typological analysis of the phonological systems of English and Uzbek

In the linguistic literature phoneme is defined as the smallest distinctive unit. Unlike the other bigger units of language as morpheme and word it doesn't have its meaning but helps us to distinct the meanings of words and morphemes. Comp. boy-toy, better-letter-latter-litter-later; бола-тола-хола-ола, нон-қон-сон-он, ун-ун(товуш)-ўн-ўнг(моқ), бўз(ўзлаштирилмаган) - бўз(материал), бўл-бўл (тақсима) etc. From the acoustic and articulatory points of view the phonemic system of any language may be divided into vowels and consonants.

From the acoustic point of the view vowels are speech sounds of pure musical tone. Their oscillagraphic melody tracing are characterized by periodically.

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

1) The fourth obstruction without which neither vowels nor voiced consonants are formed.

2) The third obstruction characteristic of both: English and Uzbek vowels.

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

In modern English we distinguish 21 vowel phonemes:

10. monophthongs [e, i, u, æ ɑ:, c, c:, ʌ,]ə, ə:]

9. Diphthongs [ei, ai, au, æ i, əi,]

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

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

1. according to the part (horizontal movement) of the tongue vowel may be divided into; central [ə: ə], front [i:, i, e, æ,] and back [a, u, æ, u, ɑ:, æ:] vowels.

2. according to the height of the tongue into: close (high) [i:], [u:] medial [e, ə: ə, ←] and open [æ, ɑ:, æ:, æ] vowels

In the languages, in which hot only the quality but also quantity of vowels is of certain phonemic or positional value, one more subdivision appears.

3. according to vowel length th vowels may be divided into short; [i, ə, u, æ, ←,] and long [i: ə: u: æ: ɑ:] 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 labilialized) [u:, u: ʌ, c,] and unrounded (non-labialized) [e, ə: ə, æ] vowels.

5. we may also subdivide vowels according to their tensely or laxity into: lax [i, c, e, ʌ, ə, ə, æ] and tense [i: u: ə: æ: ɑ:] vowels.

Vowel quality, vowel length and the position of the lips are denoted in the classification by transcription symbols of the phoneme itself. For instance [ɑ:] is a long diphthongized vowel phoneme, pronounced with lips unrounded and [æ:] is a rounded long diphthongized vowel, while [ʌ] and [e] are an unrounded monophthongs. The first and the second principles constitute the basis of any vowel classification. They were firs suggested by H. Sweet (1898).

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

The aim of our comparison is pedagogical. Every phoneme of the English language should be compared with the' Uzbek vowels as comparison of an unknown language phoneme with that of one's mother tongue is of great use. The aim of our comparison (does not need any universal principle) and is to underline the specific features of vowel formation in the two languages in question. The tables of English vowels (accepted in our country) are based on the principles of acad. L.V. Sherba's vowel classification, later on prof. G.P. Torsueva's and prof. V.A. Vasiljev's classification[14].

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

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[14] Канаев И.И. Очерки из истории проблемы морфологического типа от Дарвин до наших дней. М.-Л.: Наука, 1966, стр. 39.

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

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

Comparison shows, that:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

As has been mentioned above the system of English vowel phonemes consists of monophthongs, diphthongized vowels and diphthongs. There are 21 vowel phonemes in English. They are: monophthongs: [e, i, u, æ α:, c, c:, ^,]ə, ə:], Diphthongs: [ei, ai, au, æ i, əi,]. There are 6 vowel phonemes in Uzbek. They are: [a, o, y, (e, э) и, й].

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

1. The English and Uzbek Vowel phonemes are characterized by the oral formation. There are no nasal nasalized vowels in the languages compared.

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

3. According to the height of the tongue in English there are vowels of ail the 6 levels. Uzbek vowels belong to the narrow varieties of the 3 levels. In Uzbek there are no vowel phonemes like the English æ, əi, ə, [æ, ə:, ə]. These vowels are difficult for the student to master; especially the neutral vowel. But never the less the neutral [æ] can be compared with Uzbek unstressed in the words like: кетди, келди, китоб etc.

4. According to the position of the lips in the formation of vowels English vowels are rounded without protractions. Uzbek vowels [a], [ə] [a] I are more closely rounded and protruded, where as the English [æ, ά, ʌ, ə, ə] sounds are slightly rounded and. [a], [u:] are closely rounded without protrusion.

All the front and central vowels in English and Uzbek are ungrounded. In articulating the English vowels [i:, i, e] and the Uzbek vowels [u, e (ə)], [y], the lips are neutral. In articulating the Uzbek [ə, (e)] the lips may be either neutral or spread. In teaching the Uzbeks to pronounce the rounded English vowels care should be taken not to protrude the lips.

5. Besides considerable qualitative difference there is a quantitative difference between vowel phonemes of English and Uzbek. Traditionally all

English vowels are divided into slier-and long. Short – [ə, c, æ, ʌ, i], long [i:, ά, c: u: ə][15].

But at present the quantitative features of the English vowel) phonemes have become their main property and quality musty be regarded as additional. The Uzbek vowel phonemes may only - be differentiated their quality. Philologically there is quantities difference in the Uzbek vowel phonemes. They typical «middle sounds», neither long nor shorter Some-Hines English vowels, [u:] may sound like the Uzbek [o] «and when they are pronounced short. This acoustic resemblance makes it possible to compare the vowels in question v

6. The English Vowels are usually neutralized and may be substituted by [^] in unstressed position. The Uzbek vowels may be used either in stressed or unstressed position. Thus there is little difference between stressed and unstressed vowels in Uzbek. It is better to pronounce the correct pronunciation of the English without trying to find any parallels in the native tongue.

The paragraph before has examined the consonant phonemes of English from an articulator perspective. After trying to establish a general borderline between the two major classes of sounds - consonants and vowels respectively - by postulating some major articulator distinctions between them, an attempt was made to analyze English consonants in detail, discussing the distinctions among them as well as contrasting them with the corresponding sounds of Romanian.

We will remember then that if consonants are distinguished from vowels precisely on the basis of an articulator feature that all of them arguably share - a place along the speech tract where the air stream meets a major obstacle or constriction - it would be very difficult to describe vowels in the same terms as it will no longer be possible to identify a «place of articulation». Articulator criteria can be, indeed, used to classify vowels but they will be less relevant or, in any case, of a different type than in the case of consonants.

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[15] Buranov J.B. Comparative typology of English and Turkic languages. T.: Ukituvchi, 1971, p. 58.

Acoustic and even auditory features on the other hand will play a much more important role in accurately describing vowels as vowels are sonorous sounds, displaying the highest levels of resonance of all speech sounds.

Vowels, like consonants, will differ in terms of quality ~ the acoustic features will differ from one vowel to another depending on the position of the articulators, but in a way which is distinct from what we have seen in the case of consonants where there is another type of interaction between the various speech organs - and in terms of quantity or duration - again in a way distinct from consonants as vowels are all sonorous, continuant sounds.

The quality of a vowel is given by the way in which the tongue - the main articulator, as in the case of consonants - is positioned in the mouth and by the activity of the lips. This position of the tongue modifies the shape of the resonating cavities above the larynx and decisively influences the quality of the resulting sound. The great mobility of the tongue and the absence of any definite place of obstruction - as in the case of consonants - accounts for the great variety of vowels that can be found in any language and for the fact that vowels rather than consonants are more intimately linked to the peculiar nature of each and every language. It will be therefore much more difficult for a student of a foreign language to acquire the correct features of the vowel system than those of the consonant system of the respective language.

Three will be then the criteria that can be used to distinguish among vowels on an Articulator's basis: imposition of the tongue in the mouth - high or low on the vertical axis and fronted or retracted on the horizontal axis - and fast position of the lips. Many languages will also recognize a functional distinction between vowels produced by letting the air out either through the nasal cavity or through the oral one.

Tongue height. If we consider the position of the tongue in the mouth we can identify two extreme situations: one in which the body of the tongue is raised, almost touching the roof of the oral cavity and in this case we will be dealing with

high or close vowels - the name clearly refers to the position of the tongue high in the mouth or close to the palate - and the opposite position when the body of the tongue is very low in the mouth leaving the cavity wide open as in the case when the doctor wants to examine our tonsils and asks us to say «ah». The vowels thus produced will be called open or low vowels since the tongue is lowered in the mouth and the oral cavity is open. If the tongue is placed in an intermediate position, raised only halfway against the palate, we shall call the vowels mid vowels. A further, more refined distinction will differentiate between two groups of mid vowels: close-mid/mid close or half-close or high-mid/mid high vowels and open-mid/ mid open or half-open or low-mid/mid low vowels.

If we consider the position of the tongue along the horizontal axis we can identify three classes of vowels: *front* vowels - uttered with the front part of the tongue highest, central vowels - if it is' rather the central part of the tongue that is highest, modifying the shape of the articulator and back vowels - the rear part of the tongue is involved in articulation[16].

As we have mentioned earlier, the position of the lips is another major criterion that is used o distinguish among vowels. When we pronounce a vowel, our lips can be rounded, and then the resulting sound will be rounded, or they can be spread and then we shall say that the vowel that we have articulated is *ungrounded*. As we are going to see later, roundness may be more or less relevant, depending on the particular language we are talking about. The cavity through which the air is released - oral or nasal establishes an important distinction between oral and nasal vowels. There are nasal or nasalized vowels in all languages, but again this distinction will be more important in languages like, say, ' French, where it has a functional, contrastive, phonemic value, than in English or in Romanian where the feature is just contextual. More will be said about that later. As mentioned above, quantity is an important feature that we have to take into account

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[16] Gregg, J. R. The Language of Taxonomy. N.Y., 1954, p. 71.

when we discuss not only consonantal sounds, but vocalic ones as well. In fact, this is a feature that is much more important for vowels, because when we talk about duration in consonants we can contrast, for instance, non-durative sounds of the plosive type to continuant sounds of the kind fricatives are or simple to geminate consonants, while in the case of vowels much more refined distinctions can be established among various sounds. The fact that vowels vary in length is something we can intuitively become aware of if we contrast the vowel of peel [pi:l] for instance, to that of pill [pyl]. As we are going to see later, however, the contrast between the two vowels is not limited simply to duration and, moreover, vowel length is very much a contextual feature. Thus, what we consider to be members of one and the same phoneme, the long vowel [i:] will vary considerably in length in words like sea, seed and seat. It is obvious even for a phonetically less trained ear that the vowel is longer in case it occurs in syllable-final position and it becomes shorter and shorter depending on the voiced or the voice lessens of the following consonant. The picture becomes even more complex if we compare the preceding contexts to seal, seen or seem. On the other hand all the occurrences of [i:] mentioned above will be kept apart from the variants of the short vowel [y] in words like Sid, sit, sill or sin which differ in their turn in length depending on the nature of the following consonant. We shall then say that vowel length is not always a reliable distinctive feature when we try to contrast vowels - since it is so much influenced by the context. Other features will be added to obtain a more refined and closer to reality representation. The next features we are going to examine will then be the degree of muscular tension involved in articulation and deposition of the root of the tongue.

Muscular tension can vary considerably when we produce different vocalic sounds and this is something we can easily become aware of when we contrast the long vowel [i:] in seat and the short one [y] in sit, the examples analyzed above. Long vowels - conventionally marked in the ERA alphabet by a colon - are always associated with a higher degree of muscular tension in the speech organs involved

in their articulation. We will say that these vowels are tense, since the articulators are so when we utter them. Conversely, when we examine the way the vowel of sit is produced, the articulator organs are less strained, laxer than in the previous case. We will consequently describe these vowels as being lax. As we shall see later, unlike in Romanian, vowel duration, associated with tenseness, has a phonemic, contrastive value in English. The position of the tongue root. The more advanced or retracted position of the root of the tongue differentiates between vowels having different degrees of openness. The vowels pronounced with the root of the tongue pushed forward of its normal position will be specified as advanced tongue root (ATK) vowels. Conversely, non-advanced tongue root vowels will be articulated with the root of the tongue in its common, resting position. The first group of vowels will be comparatively tenser and higher than the vowels in the second group. Vowel quantity - duration, length - combines with stability of articulation to make the distinction between simple or «pure» vowels or monophthongs on the one hand and diphthongs on the other. Monophthongs are comparatively shorter vowels that preserve the same quality throughout the entire duration of their articulation. A diphthong combines two different vocalic elements joined together in a unique articulator effort and consequently being part of the same syllabic unit. In any diphthong one of the vocalic elements will be stronger than the other, from which or towards which the pronunciation glides. If the weaker element comes first and we have a glide towards the dominant vocalic element, the diphthong is a rising one: it is the kind of diphthong we have in Romanian words like 'iatac, iubire, iepure, iobag, meandre, boal' a etc. This is a type of diphthong that does not exist in English, a language that only has falling diphthongs, that is diphthongs in which the glide is from the dominant vocalic element to the weaker one. (e.g. *boy*, buy in English or *boi, bai* in Romanian - N.B. these examples do not suggest that the diphthongs in the two languages are identical!). It is often difficult to decide when we deal with a genuine diphthong (that is a sequence of two vowels pronounced together) and when we deal with a sequence of a vowel and a glide for

instance. In other words, shall we describe the vocalic element in buy as the diphthong ay or shall we rather interpret it as the vowel a followed by the glide j? Many linguists opt for the second variant and some will go as far as interpreting long vowels like i: in beat for instance as a succession of. The duration of the glide can constitute the basis for a differentiation, since glides will arguably take shorter to pronounce than the second vocalic element in a falling diphthong. If the vowel is very short, however, it is often difficult do distinguish it from the glide. The scope of this study will not allow us to go into further detail, so for, the sake of simplicity we will adopt the widely embraced approach that considers long vowels monophthongs and vocalic sequences as that of buy genuine diphthongs.

Diphthongs have already been described as sequences of two vowels pronounced together, the two vocalic elements being members of the same syllable. We have shown that it is often difficult to distinguish a genuine diphthong from a sequence of a vowel and a semivowel, that we can often pronounce diphthongs and even long vowels as such sequences and it is often the shorter duration of the less prominent vowel in the diphthong that transforms it into a semi vocalic element. There is, for instance, a difference, both in quantity and quality between the second vocalic element in the English diphthong [ay] - that occurs, say, in the word buy, and the semivowel [j] in the Spanish interjection ayl [aj].

According to the position of the more prominent element in the diphthong we have already divided diphthongs into falling diphthongs - if the prominant element comes first - and rising diphthongs - if the less prominent element comes first. All English diphthongs belong to the first category, as it has already been pointed out.

Diphthongs can then be opening diphthongs if the degree of aperture increases with the glide or closing diphthongs if the less prominent vowel is closer than the first. We can also differentiate between wide diphthongs - those in which the glide implies a more radical movement of the speech organs (e.g. [a 2]) and narrow diphthongs - if the two vocalic elements occupy neighboring positions (e.g.

[e] on the vowel chart. There are also cent ring diphthongs - if the glide is from a marginal vowel in the vowel chart - either back or front - to a central vowel. (See the three English diphthongs gliding towards schwa; [c] in dear, [e?] in chair and in moor - to which we should add [], no longer met in present-day standard English). A. The centering diphthongs is a centric &falling, narrow, opening diphthong that starts at about the position of the short, lax and glides towards schwa. The diphthong is distributed in all three basic positions: ear, deer, tier. If the first element of the diphthong does not have the normal prominence and length, it can be reduced to a glide and the diphthong is changed into [j:]. There are several possible spellings for the diphthong: eer as in deer, peer or career; ea(r) as in ear, weary, idea, tear (n. «lacrim»), beard, eir as in weird, ier as in fierce or pierce, ere as in here or mere. Exceptionally we can have ia as in media(l), labia(l), genial, eu as in museum, iu as in delirium-, eo as in theory and theology; e as in hero or in the diphthongized version of [i:]: serious, serial, b. [ec] is a centring falling, narrow, in most cases opening diphthong. The degree of openness of the first element varies, in some dialects of English the sound being quite close to [ae]. In the more conservative pronunciations, closer to RP, the articulation of the diphthong starts somewhere in the vicinity of cardinal vowel 2 [e]. Then follows a glide towards a variant of the schwa. There are dialects where the glide to [c] is very short and sometimes the diphthong is changed into a monophthong, a long, tense vowel [e:]. The diphthong is distributed in all three basic positions: air, scarce, fare. It can be spelt air: air, fair, chair, dairy, fairy; wee: fare, mare, care, care; ear: bear, wear, tear; acr: aerial, aero plane; ere: there; eir: their, heir. In words like prayer, layer, mayor, the spelling is ay followed by either or, or er. The vowel of Mary and derived words such as Maryland or Mary port is normally diphthongized to [ec]. c. [c] is a centering, falling, narrow, opening diphthong. If in the case of the two diphthongs analyzed before the glide was from a front vowel towards the centre of the imaginary vowel chart, in the case of [6 c] the articulation starts with a fairly back, close vowel [5]. [6 c] is distributed only hi word-medial: jewel or word-final

position: sure. The most common spellings of the diphthong are: ure and oor - endure, mature, cure, pure (words where the semivowel [j] is inserted before the diphthong), sure, poor, moor, or ur followed by other vowels than e: curious, duration. In a number of cases we can have the spelling ou: our, gourd, bourse. The diphthong can also occur in words where the suffix er is attached to a base ending in (0) 8] fewer, newer, chewer, doer, pursuer.

d. [] c] is a diphthong that has not survived in present-day RP. It used to render the vowel of words like floor, door, pore, score, snore, coarse, hoarse, oar, course now pronounced []:]. It still does that in various dialects of English, though the general tendency seems to be to monophthong such diphthongs. This has been the fate of [5 c] as well, which in many variants of English is pronounced [u:æ] in words like poor, sure etc.

B. The diphthongs to [y]: [jy], [ey]

a. [ay] is a falling, wide, closing diphthong. It is the diphthong that actually implies the amplest articulator movement of the speech organs that shift from the position of an open vowel which is fairly central (the position varies between cardinal vowels 5 and 4) to a front, close, lax vowel (not far from the position of cardinal vowel 1. Historically, the vowel originates in [i:], that subsequently lowered to [ey], than centered and lowered again to finally become [ay]. The diphthong is distributed in all three basic positions: isle [aisl]; bite [bayt], cry [kray]. It can be spelt i as in ice, dime, loci, or y a in dyke, fly, or ie as in die, lie, pie, or in inflected forms: spies, spied; ye as in dye, ye; ei as in height, either, neither, and, exceptionally uy in buy, guy. Note also the pronunciation of ay(e) [ay], eye [ay] and aisle is y falling, wide, closing diphthong. It starts from a back, mid vowel, situated between cardinal vowels 6 an 7 and ends in a front, close, lax vowel, somewhere in the vicinity of cardinal vowel 1. Like the preceding diphthong, it also involves an ample articulator movement from a back vowel to the front part of the imaginary vowel chart. It is distributed in all three basic positions: ointment, boil, toy. It can be spelt either oi: oil, toil or oy: oyster, Boyle,

is SL falling, narrow, closing diphthong. It starts with a front, mid vowel - between cardinal vowels [e] and [e] - and glides to a higher vowel value, closing. Often the second element is very short, sometimes even dropped, the diphthong being reduced to a long vowel monophthong [e:]. In Cockney the diphthong starts with a lower and central vowel, being pronounced. The diphthong is distributed in all three basic positions: eight; plate, play. It can be spelt a: ace, lace; ai: aid, maid; ay: aye, clay; ei: eight, reign, ey: they, grey, ea: break, steak. Exceptionally, there are spellings like goal [goal], bass [bess], gauge [geuge], halfpenny [helfpeni]. The diphthong also occurs in a small number of French loan words ending in et or 6: ballet, bouquet, chalet, cafe, fiance, attache, resume. The diphthong starts with a central mid vowel and glides to a back close one. It is a falling, narrow, closing diphthong. It is distributed in all three basic positions: old, gold, flow. It has various spellings: o: old, sold, wo; oa: oak, roast, oe: toe, ow: own, known, row; ou: poultry, dough; eau: beau, bureau, and, exceptionally, au: gauche; oo: brooch; ew: sew; oh: oh. b. [a] is a falling, wide, closing diphthong. It starts as an open, fairly front vowel (in the vicinity of cardinal vowel 4) and glides towards. It is distributed in all three basic positions: ouch, loud, cougar. It can be spelt by ou: oust, doubt, plough, or ow: owl, howl, how and, exceptionally eo in MacLeod.

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

The consonants should be classified on the following 3 Principles;

1. The manner of production

2. The active organs employed in the production

3. The place of production

The last division is very important, due to it the 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. They are: [**p, t, [p, t, k, b, d, g, mf n, 1, n, f, v, s, z, w, j** , ð, ə, s, ʒ, ts, w, j] and the problematic phoneme [ju].

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

Some of the English consonants like [ð, ə] have no counterparts ill Uzbek. There are also seine Uzbek consonants which do not exist in the system of the English consonant phonemes. They: are [x, тс,][17].

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

1. The English [f, v] are labio - dental fricatives, whereas the Uzbek [4>, B] are bilabial fricatives. They have labio-dental versions in dialects. So Uzbek [B] pronounced in the same way as the English [в], especially in the - middle of words. Pg. қовун, совун, шавла, давлат, шавкат, қувват. Uzbek students often substitute [w] for [v]: wine - vine.

2. [t, d, n, s, z] also [1] are alveolar in English. The corresponding consonants in Uzbek are dentals. The English [t, d, n] require apical articulation, while their Uzbek counter - parts are dorsal (dental). The dorsal articulation does riot exists in English.

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

4. The English [1] phoneme consists of the main member; the clear alveolar [1], used before the vowels a ad semi - vowel and its positional, also dialectal,

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[17] Buranov J.B.op. cit, p. 93.

versions dark [1] which besides, being alveolar is also velar. The latter is used before" consonants and in word final position. The Uzbek [A] is dental consonants.

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

6. The English affricates [tS, dз] and fricatives [S, з] are polato-alveolar, while Uzbek [ш, ж] are post-alveolar fricatives and [ж] may be palatalized.

7. The English voiceless [p.h, k, s, s, ts] are more energetic

Than the corresponding Uzbek voiceless consonants. In the Uzbek [n, t, k] there is less aspiration than in the corresponding English voiceless plosives. While the English voiced [b, d, g, z, j;] are less energetic than the corresponding Uzbek voiced consonants.

8. We regard the jota combination [ju:] as u separate phoneme in English. It is not a chance combination, it is very often used and there is a letter in the alphabet to denote R In spelling. According to its first element it may be regarded as a consonants phoneme [c+v] may-form phonological opposition

9. The English [j] is a palatal semi-vowel. The Uzbek [й] is a palatal fricative» Gomp, yet= ет [йт]

10. The English [ðэ] are interdentally. The interdentally articulation is unknown in Uzbek. They are extremely difficult for me Uzbek to master.

11. The English sonant [m, 1, n] in word - final position are very sonorous and somewhat prolonged before a pause, especially when they are preceded by a short vowel, whereas the corresponding Uzbek sonant are les& sonorous in Use same position. Compare: *Bell, Toni, on*; Uzbek: *бел, том, он*.

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

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

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

Being a meaningful segmental component of the word a morpheme is formed by phonemes but unlike word it is elementary, i.e. is indivisible into signaller components. There may be zero morphemes, i.e. the absence of morpheme may indicate a certain lexical or grammatical meaning: Cf: - *book-s, hope-hope китоб-китоб-лар, но-умид-* In cases of «students come children come, geese come» the morphs - s, en, and [i:] (of goose) are allomorphs of the morpheme of plurality *«-лар»* In Uzbek.

Like a word a morpheme is two-facet language unit, an association of a certain sound-pattern. But unlike the word a morpheme is not an autonomous body (unit) and can occur in speech only as a constituent part of the word. It cannot be segmented into smaller units without losing constitutive essence.

The morphemes can be divided into root (free0) morphemes and affixal (bound) morphemes (affixes). A form is said to be free if it may stand without changing its meaning; if not it is a bound form, as it always doubt to something else: e.g: In the words sportive, elegant morphemes sport, elegant may occur alone

as utterances, but the forms-ive, - ant, eleg cannot be used alone without the root morphemes.

The morphemes may be classified in two ways: a) from the semantic point of view, and b) from the structural point of view. Semantically morphemes fall into two classes: the root morphemes and non-root (affixational) morpheme.

The root morphemes is the lexical nucleus of the word and it they usually express mainly the lexical meaning i.e. material part of the meaning of the word, while the affixes morphemes can express both lexical and grammatical meanings, this they can be characterized as lexical affixes (-er) and grammatical suffixes (-s) in «writ-er-s». The lexical suffixes are usually used mainly in word building process to form words (e.g. *help-less, black-ness, teach-er, speak-er, нажот-сиз, қора-лик, ўқит-ув-чи, сўз-лов-чи*) where grammatical suffixes serve to express the grammatical meaning of the word by changing its form (paradigm) (e.g. speaker) John' - s, (case ending denoting possession) come a (person, number, tense, aspect, mood, active, voice) 3rd person singular present simple, indicative mood, active voice. Thus we can say that the grammatical significance of affixes (derivational) morphemes is always combined with their lexical meaning: e.g. *verb-to write_ёзмоқ; noun - writer - ёзувчи*

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

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

Inflexions word-forming suffixes express different morphological categories. Structurally morphemes fall under three types: a) free morphemes, b) bound morphemes, c) send-bound morphemes.

A free morpheme is the stem of the word, a great many free morphemes are root morphemes. (e.g. London-er, sports-man-ship). Bound morphemes for they are always make a part of the word. (e.g. - *ness, - ship, - dom, - dis, - pre, un-, чи, паз, - дон, бе-, сер, по*) some root morphemes also belong to the class of bound morphemes.

2.3. Typological categories of English and Uzbek morphology

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

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

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

2.3.1. Typological category of case

The system of grammatical forms indicating the syntactic relations of nouns (or pronouns) is usually treated as the category of case, in other words, case is a grammatical form which takes part in the formation of the paradigm of nouns (or

pronouns). Grammarians seem to be divided in their opinions as to the case system of the English nouns. The most common view is that they have only two case: common (subject) and possessive (genitive) cases. The common case is characterized by a zero morpheme (suffix) e.g. child, boy, student, ir. and the possessive case by the indexing is and its phonetic variants as [s] and [z].

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

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

Dealing with notion of possession one should keep in mind that in Uzbek this category may be expressed not only by the nouns but also their antecedents in the pleonastic phrase such as: *менинг опам - сизнинг паспортингиз*. In this case we have to face the problem of redundancy and often try to avoid it using the modified noun only which contains the possessive suffix. e.g. *опам келди*. In this case the suffix of possession can be rendered in English and in Russian by means of special possessive pronouns. e.g. *My sister came. Моя сестра пришла*.

Meaning and functions of the other Uzbek cases may be denoted in Uzbek either by means of prepositions or by word order. For instance the meaning and function of the Uzbek 'тушум келишиги' is expressed in Uzbek by means of the case ending - ши which denotes the object acted upon and it may be expressed in English by means of word order which is characterized in this language to be very strict in comparison with Russian or Uzbek (e.g. *кўрдим кўзингни қолдим балога,*

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қайга борайин энди давога? - Видел я твои очи черные (и заболел) куда мне теперь идти на лечение?) Some English grammarians O. Curme, M. Doutschbein recognize word order in English as dative case.

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

The Uzbek 'ўрин пайт келишиги' denotes he place of the thing or a person in the space and it can be rendered in English by means of prepositions at, in, an, by, over, above, among, between, behind etc. (e.g.*У китоб жавонда*. The book is in the bookcase.) 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. (like in - мчи-behind_орқасида, between_орасида, under_остида, etc).

The Uzbek 'жўналиш келишиги' denotes the direction of an action performed by means of the case ending_га. It can be rendered in English also by means of prepositions to, at, into, etc. e.g. У *(йигит) мактаб - га кетди. He went to school. У қиз менга қаради. She looked at me*.

'Чиқиш келишиги' of Uzbek nouns denotes the beginning point of the action denoted by the verb. It can be rendered in English by means of preposition from, out of, from under, etc. e.g.: *У (қиз) Лондон-дан келди. She came from London. У (йигит) сумкаси-дан қўлқопларини олди. He took his gloves out of his bag.*

2.3.2. Typological category of gender

The typological category of gender consists of the notions of natural (biological sex and the grammatical (formal) gender. The connection of this category with the natural sex is in the animals and birds. It is displayed by the nouns and pronouns in English. (But in Russian it can also expressed by the adjectives and the past simple tense forms of the verbs.) Most of the Uzbek grammar books do not contain any information about the category of gender of

Uzbek nouns, because the authors consider Uzbek nouns not to have this category at all.

In accordance with their lexical meanings the nouns of the comparing nouns may be classed as belonging to the masculine, feminine and neuter genders. Names of male beings are usually masculine (e.g.: *man, husband, boy, son, nephew, bull, ox, ram(whether), cock, stallion - ota, ўғил, эркак, хўкиз, буқа, новвос, қўчқор, хўроз, айғир*) and names of female beings are feminine (e.g.: *woman, lady, girl, daughter, wife, niece, cow heifer(ғунажин), ewe [ju:] (совлиқ), hen, mare_аёл, хоним, қиз(бола), қиз (фарзанд), хотин, сигир, ғунажин, совлиқ, макиён, байтал*). All other nouns are said to be neuter gender (e.g.: *pencil, flower, rain, bird, sky-қалам, гул, ёмғир, парранда, қуш, осмон*). Gender finds its formal expression in the replacement of nouns by the personal pronouns in the mind person singular, i.e., she, it.

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

There are three ways of expressing the category of gender in the comparing languages: morphological, syntactical and lexical. Morphological way of expressing the category of gender is realized by adding suffixes of gender to the stem of the word. It is a highly developed way of expressing gender in Russian by means of suffixes ending in: a) consonants to be masculine, e.g.: *дом, стол, праздник;* b) vowels as - a, - я to be feminine. e.g.: *мама, старуха, тетя;* c) vowels-o, - e to be neuter. e.g.: *ружъё, море, окно* и т.п.

English has the only suffix - ess which is used to denote feminine gender.e.g.: *host-ess, actr-ess, waitr-ess, princ-ess, lion-ess, and tiger-ess.* Feminine gender in Uzbek may often be expressed by means of the suffix- a which

is supposed to be of Arabic origin e.g.: - *раис_а, вазир_а, шоир_а, муаллим_а, котиб_а* etc.

In order denote the gender syntactic way is also possible. In this case different kinds of combinations of words are formed in which adjunct word (modifier) usually denotes the sex of the head word. e.g.: *man servant - қарол, amid servant_оқсоч, boy friend-ўғил бола ўртоқ, girl friend-қиз бола ўртоқ, tom cat_эркак мушук, tabby cat_урғочи мушук, he-wolf_эркак бўри, she wolf_урғочи бўри, he goat_така, she goat_она эчки,* etc. As is seen from these examples English gender denoted by a syntactic combination (man servant she goat can be expressed in Uzbek both by syntactically and lexically, (*қарол, она эчки*).

In most cases gender can be expressed lexically, i.e. by the stem of the noun only. e.g.: *father_ota, uncle_амаки, niece - (қиз) жиян, sister-in-law_келин, lord_жаноб, also names of animals, such as mare_бия, tiger - (арка) йўлбарс, ram-қўчқор,* etc. Names of people can also denote the gender of the person who owns this name. e.g.: *Arthur, Christopher, John - Аҳмаджон, Баҳодир, Шаҳобиддин denoting male being and Mary, Christine, Nelly, - Сайёра, Меҳринисо, Гулойим,* etc.

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

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

b. England prides herself with her greenness and tidiness.

Such nouns as masculine gender. Nouns like `nature, country, mercy, faith, and hope, modesty `are used as feminine gender.

2.3.3. Typological category of plurality

The system of grammatical forms expressing grammatical degree (number) is termed (called) the category of plurality. This category. In comparing languages

the formants indicating this category are usually added to the stem of nouns (or pronouns). WE should distinguish the logical number (degree) and grammatical number. From the logical point of view proper nouns usually denote a single thing or a person. e.g.: *John, Собир, London, Тўймепа,* etc. The common nouns are used to denote common type of things, of course, logically more than one.

As we know that the category of plurality denotes more than oneness of things, people or phenomena. Grammatically it can be based in English on the opposition of `zero morpheme and the suffix - s, - en, and root changing abilities of some nouns: i.e. - s, - en, in Uzbek it is based on the opposition of zero morpheme and suffix - лар, i.e. - лар. Among the parts of speech this category is distinguished grammatically by nouns, pronouns and verbs. In comparing languages this category may also be denoted lexically by numerals. (i.e. *two, fifteen, thirty, thousand_иккт, ўн беш, ўттиз, минг*) Numerals are not used in the grammatical plural forms because in the plural form they became substantive zed i.e. they become nouns (*иккичилар, олтичилар*).

It should be kept in mind that there are languages having `dual` and `trial` numbers pronouns - ic-wif-we where wit denoted a dual number)

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

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

a) by means of suffixes:

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

- en (ox-oxen, child-children, brother-brotheren);

- a datum-data, sanatorium-sanatoria, phenomenon-phenomena) etc.

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

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

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

b) by means of suppletive forms of auxiliary verbs:

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

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

а) - лар (келди) лар;

б) - миз, - сиз, - гниз, дилар (бора-миз, келадилар);

с) - ш, - иш (кел-ишди);

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

Lexically this category may be expressed in both languages with the help of numerals. e.g.: anmy-қизғаниш, dual_иккилик, majority_кўпчилик, family_оила, pair_жуфт, double_икки (лантирилган), etc.

Plurality can sometimes be expressed by means of prepositions (between, among_орасида, ўртасида)_adverbs (arm-in-arm_йўлланилиб), indefinite pronouns (some_бир неча, анча, бироз), verbs (join-қўшилмоқ бирлашмоқ, gathe_тўпламоқ), get together - йиғилиш unite - бирлашмоқ) also by quantitative markers (two-seater, many staged, two-storeyed): and in Uzbek (кўпхад, қўшариқ, учкўприк).

2.3.4. Typological category of person

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

amabant, habebunt, etc. expresses simultaneously the third person and the plural number.

In the comparing languages the category of person is a characteristic feature of pronouns and verbs. They (languages) make distinction between the three classes of personal pronouns denoting respectively the person(s) 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 same other people

2_person-a person spoken to more than one people spoken to

3_person-a person of a thing spoken about some people or things spoken about

The category of person 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 and this is for two reasons:

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

you

we   } live

they

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

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

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

The verb «be» has a system of its own both in the present indicative and in the past

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

The personal system of the Uzbek verbs is as follows

Indic mood	Person	Singular	Plural
Past	I	Bordim	bordik
	II	Bording	Bordinrizlar
	III	Bordi	Bordilar borishdi
Present	I	boraman	Boramiz
	II	Boras an	Borasiz(lar)
	III	Boradi	Boradilar
Future	I	Boraman bormoqchiman	Boramiz bormoqchimiz
	II	Borasan bormpqchisan	Boramiz bormoqchimiz
	III	Boradi	Boradilar

		bormoqchi	borishmoqchi
Imperative mood	I	Boray	Boraylik
	II	Borgin	Boringlar, boringiz
	III	Borishsin	Boringizlar

In Uzbek we have no the so called modal verbs and impersonal verbs as it is understood in English or Russian (дождит, смеркается, темнеет, похолодало). The functions of the modal verbs are performed in Uzbek by means of the adjectives such as зарур, керак, даркор, лозим etc. As to the impersonal verbs in Uzbek we use the so called impersonal verbs which are combined only with one and the nouns denoting the names of natural phenomena, such as sop, ёмғир, дўл, etc. e.g.: *Ёмғир ёғади, чақмоқ чақди.*

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

You (we) don ' (know what to do in such a situation.

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

Бундай ҳолатда нима қилишингни билмайсан кишию

Инсон зоти борки яратгани унутиб фарзанди томон интилади.

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,

Қудуқ қуримагунча (ариқдан оққан) сувни қадрини билмаймиз.

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

Нима эксанг – шуни ўрасан.

Зар қадрини заргар билади.

Билиб туриб билмасликка оламиз.

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

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

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

2.3.5. Typological categories of tense and aspect

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

Past tense denotes an action which has taken place at a definite time before the moment of speech. Present tense denotes a regular or recurrent action happening around the moment of speech. Future tense denotes an action which will or going to happen after the moment of speech.

The English verbs also distinguish the category of aspect continuous process. The notion of aspect can also be described as a form of the verb that shows habituality, continuance or completion of the action or state expressed by the root of the verb. In Uzbek grammars aspect is not studied as a separate category of the verb as it not always expressed distinctly as it seems because of the lack, of the analytical forms.

In the comparing languages the categories of tense and aspect are so closely merged together that it is impossible to treat them separately. One and the same

form of the verb serves to express tense and aspect at the same time and therefore they should be regarded as a 'tense - aspect forms 'of the verb.

In the comparing languages we distinguish three aspects of the verb forms; Simple (Common or Indefinite), Continuous and Perfect aspects. Combining with all the tense forms of the verb they form the so called 'tense aspect forms of the verb.

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

The sun rises in the East; We love our mothers; Children go to school at the age of 6; 'They call me Nancy' r said the girl; I know him well (Stative action)

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

As has been mentioned above Past simple denotes an action which happened at a definite time before the moment of speech. Definite time of the action may be clarified by means of such time expressions as 'yesterday, last week, two years ago, when I was a child, etc. The main indicator of the verb form in the past simple of the English verbs is the formant '-ed' (for the regular verbs) and the change of the root vowels (or consonants) for the irregular verbs, e.g.; live - d, help - ed, give - gave, send - sent.

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

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

I'm going to visit my grandfather on Sunday.

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

(be - Participle I.) of the notional verb which correspond to the Uzbek verb forms in the example of the verb 'bor':

I person	Singular	-аяпман
		-мокдаман
	Plural	-аяпмиз
		-мокдамиз
II person	Singular	-аяпсан
		-мокдасан
	Plural	-аяпсиз
		-мокдасиз
III person	Singular	-аяпти
		-мокда
	Plural	-аяптилар
		-мокдалар
		-ишмокда

The Present Continuous expresses three ideas;

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

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

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

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

3) a planned future arrangement.

Cf. I'm leaving for London next week,

Past Continuous of the English verb is formed by means of the combination of 'was (were) ~P1 of the notional verb and denotes an action happening (in progress) at a definite time in the past. Definite time may be expressed by means of time expressions or by a. clause of time connected to the principle one with the;

conjunctions while and when. In Uzbek in the past continuous the verbs may take the suffixes.

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

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

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

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

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

As is seen from this example Uzbek future continuous is expressed with the help of the suffix '-ётган' and auxiliary verb булл-мок.

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

I've travelled a lot in Africa.

It can also express an action or state which began in the past and continues to the present. Present Perfect Continuous is used to express a) an activity which continues to the present.

Chapter III The Essential problems of teaching English language to learners with native languages

3.1. Modern methods used in teaching English language as a structure

Debate and developments around the methods of language teaching and learning have been ongoing since the time of Comenius in the 17th century, if not before. The complexity of contexts and the greater appreciation of the issues lead us to the conclusion that the panacea of a single, universal, optimum method for teaching and learning modern languages does not exist. Instead, teachers now acknowledge the need to adopt an informed eclectic approach, incorporating elements from the range of methods available. Most language teaching today emphasise oral communication, although many Higher Education programmes, including some CRAMLAP questionnaire respondents, place greater emphasis upon grammatical mastery and reading.

In attempting to define what 'method' is, we can consider Edward Anthony's tripartite distinction of **Approach, Method and Technique**.

This distinction was developed and recast by Richards and Rodgers (1982, 1985) as **Approach, Design and Procedure**, encompassed within the overall concept of **Method**, "an umbrella term for the specification and interrelation of theory and practice" where

➢ *Approach* refers to the beliefs and theories about language, language learning and teaching that underlie a method

➢ *Design* relates the theories of language and learning to the form and function of teaching materials and activities in the classroom;

➢ *Procedure* concerns the techniques and practices employed in the classroom as consequences of particular approaches and designs.
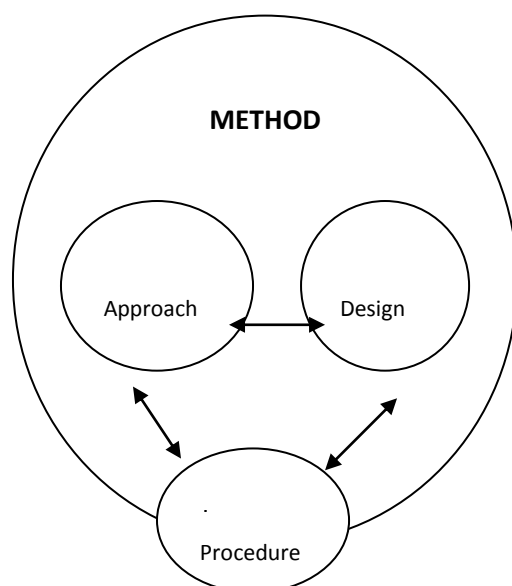
There are many publications discussing the various language teaching methods employed over the years. We have drawn here, inter alia, upon Chapter Two of H. Douglas Brown's *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy* (Longman/ Pearson Education, White Plains, New York, 2nd edition 2001).

Brown draws a distinction between **methods** as "specific, identifiable clusters of theoretically compatible classroom techniques", and **methodology** as "pedagogical practices in general…Whatever considerations are involved in 'how to teach' are methodological" (ibid.).'Methodology' here can thus be equated to Richards and Rodgers' 'Procedure'.

Pedagogic approaches are typically informed by both a theory of language and a theory of language learning. For example, audiolingualism was informed by a structuralist model of language and by behaviourist learning theory.

The twentieth century saw new methods emerging with regularity in what Marckwardt saw as a cyclical pattern of "changing winds and shifting sands" with each new method breaking from what preceded, while incorporating some of the positive aspects of its predecessors. This mortality of language learning methods,

to use Decoo's phrase can usually be attributed to the neglect or lack of one particular component.

Brown summarises:

A glance through the past century or so of language teaching will give an interesting picture of how varied the interpretations have been of the best way to teach a foreign language. As disciplinary schools of thought – psychology, linguistics, and education, for example – have come and gone, so have language-teaching methods waxed and waned in popularity. Teaching methods, as "approaches in action," are of course the practical application of theoretical findings and positions. In a field such as ours that is relatively young, it should come as no surprise to discover a wide variety of these applications over the last hundred years, some in total philosophical opposition to others.

The Grammar-Translation Method

The Classical or Grammar-Translation method represents the tradition of language teaching adopted in western society and developed over centuries of teaching not only the classical languages such as Latin and Greek, but also foreign languages. The focus was on studying grammatical rules and morphology, doing written exercices, memorizing vocabulary, translating texts from and prose passages into the language. It remained popular in modern language pedagogy, even after the introduction of newer methods. In America, the Coleman Report in 1929 recommended an emphasis on the skill of reading in schools and colleges as it was felt at that time that there would be few opportunities to practise the spoken language. Internationally, the Grammar-Translation method is still practised today, not only in courses, including CRAMLAP respondents, teaching the classical older stages of languages (Latin, Greek, Old Irish etc.) where its validity can still be argued in light of expected learning outcomes, but also, with less justification, in some institutions for modern language courses. Prator and Celce-Murcia listed the major characteristics of Grammar-Translation:

➢ Classes are taught in the mother tongue, with little active use of the target language;

➢ Much vocabulary is taught in the form of lists of isolated words;

➢ Long, elaborate explanations of the intricacies of grammar are given;

➢ Grammar provides the rules for putting words together, and instruction often focuses on the form and inflection of words;

➢ Reading of difficult classical texts is begun early;

➢ Little attention is paid to the context of texts, which are treated as exercices in grammatical analysis;

➢ Often the only drills are exercices in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue;

➢ Little or no attention is given to pronunciation.

Decoo attributes the grammar-translation method's fall from favour to its lack of potential for lively communication.

A greater attention to grammar (focus on form/ structure) has now re-emerged as well as appropriate integration by teachers of structures into content focused lessons. But the explicit teaching of grammatical paradigms in isolation is rare nowadays.

The Direct Method

While Henri Gouin's *The Art of Learning and Studying Foreign Languages*, published in 1880, can be seen as the precursor of modern language teaching methods with its 'naturalistic' approach, the credit for popularising the Direct Method usually goes to Charles Berlitz, who marketed it as the Berlitz Method.

The basic premise of the Direct Method was that one should attempt to learn a second language in much the same way as children learn their first language. The method emphasized oral interaction, spontaneous use of language, no translation between first and second languages, and little or no analysis of grammar rules.

Richards and Rodgers summarized the principles of the Direct Method as follows:

➢ Classroom instruction was conducted exclusively in the target language;

➢ Only everyday vocabulary and sentences were taught;

➢ Oral communication skills were built up in a carefully graded progression organized around questions-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small intensive classes;

➢ Grammar was taught inductively;

➢ New teaching points were taught through modelling and practice;

➢ Concrete vocabulary was taught through demonstration, objects, pictures; Abstract vocabulary was taught through association of ideas;

➢ Both speech and listening comprehension were taught;

➢ Correct pronunciation and grammar were emphasized.

Decoo identifies as its weakness the lack of insight into the reality of the classroom situation for most learners, in its aspiration to a mastery of the language that few could achieve.

Many of the elements of the Direct Method listed above will be familiar to teachers in Higher Education, which, however, now includes more language use tailored to the needs and experiences of the students, and also a return to 'focus on form' (language structures)

The Audio-Methods

The Audiolingual/Audiovisual Method is derived from "The Army Method," so called because it was developed through a U.S. Army programme devised after World War II to produce speakers proficient in the languages of friend and foes. In this method, grounded in the habit formation model of behaviourist psychology and on a Structural Linguistics theory of language, the emphasis was on memorisation through pattern drills and conversation practices rather than promoting communicative ability.

Characteristics of the Audio-Methods:

➢ New material is presented in dialogue form;

➢ There is dependence on mimicry, memorization of set phrases, and overlearning

➢ Structures are sequenced by means of contrastive analysis taught one at a time;

➢ Structural patterns are taught using repetitive drills;

➢ There is little or no grammatical explanation. Grammar is taught by inductive analogy rather than by deductive explanation;

➢ Vocabulary is strictly limited and learned in context;

➢ There is much use of tapes, language labs, and visual aids;

➢ Great importance is attached to pronunciation;

➢ Very little use of the mother tongue by teachers is permitted;

➢ Successful responses are immediately reinforced;

➢ There is a great effort to get students to produce error-free utterances;

➢ There is a tendency to manipulate language and disregard content.

The Oral-Situational Approach

This resembles the Audiolingual approach as it is based on a structural syllabus but it emphasises the meanings expressed by the linguistic structures, not just the forms, and also the situations or contexts chosen to practise the structures. It can be found in courses dating from the 1970s which are now criticised for not achieving the hoped-for results.

As they were based on behaviourist psychology (see below), the Audio-method and Oral-situational approach were limited by their neglect of cognitive learning. The drill-based approach in the classroom re-emerged in early Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) software where it was perceived to motivate pupils and develop autonomous study and learning. CALL is now more sophisticated and can foster cognitive learning as well.

3.2. The problems of teaching learners to linguistic competence

What is the purpose of early language education? This is the question, which is often asked by educators, psychologists, and speech therapists all over the world. Particularly, one of the most common arguments against early language learning is that early language acquisition causes speech problems, such as native language delay. However, L.S. Vygotsky wrote in his article "The Question of Polylingualism in Children", that it is not only speech purity, which directly influences speech, but also the child's intellectual development, character features, and emotional development.[18]

There is a separate scope in a child's psyche for each of the two languages, which prevents the languages from simple mechanical crossing[19]. Logopathy is the developmental disorder caused by various diseases. Sometimes bilingualism is to blame for dyslexia, for example, but this juxtaposition is too flat. To support this idea we refer to Lubov Mitnik's opinion who establishes linkage between dyslexia and neuro-psychological factors – not bilingualism[20].

We define early language teaching as the process of interaction between an educator and a child, through which we target the child's language skills (which are mostly receptive) and competence development from the age of two years old, attracting a child to foreign culture – English folk songs and nursery rhymes, every day behaviour, games and signs; developing the child's personal qualities such as curiosity, empathy, commutability, collaboration and developing psychic processes, such as attention, imagination, thinking, perception, sensory sphere and phonemic awareness.

From our point of view, early language education promotes, first of all, the formation of a positive motivation towards learning a foreign language. Secondly,

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[18] Spiridonova A. Formation of a linguistic competenceof pre-school children in the language learning developmental environment. Chelyabinsk: Vestnik ChelGU, 2002, sbornik nauchnix statyey, pp. 45-50.

[19] Vygotski L.S. Myshleniye i rech. Izbranniye psihologicheskie issledovaniya [Text] / L.S. Vygotski. – M.:AST, 2008. – p. 597.

[20] Mitnik L. Obucheniye angliyskomu yazyku detei s priznakami disleksii v mnogoyazychnoi srede [Text] / L. Mitnik: dis. … kand. ped. nauk. – Moskva, 2000. – p. 194

familiarizing a child with a different culture also has a positive impact. The importance of early language education is realized in many parts of the world including Europe, Thailand, China and India, to name a few. Although bilingual kindergartens are mostly private in Asian countries, this tendency is indeed very encouraging. We cannot help but mention the European non-commercial project supporting multilingual education «LIGHT (Language for Integration and Global Human Tolerance)». The objectives of the project are the opening of two-language kindergartens in the participating states and the development of a universal educational model applicable to all European countries.

Nowadays it is an obvious truth that a modern person should speak not only his or her native language, but at least two foreign languages as well. That is why it is recommended to start learning a foreign language since early childhood. Thirdly, the range of sources available to pre-school children for the practice a foreign language has widened. One can watch English educational programs or cartoons via satellite TV or the Internet, listen to original fairy-tales and poems, read English books and talk with peers via Skype or any other chat program. The best option, however, is to go abroad and to immerse oneself in the natural language environment, which is the powerful mechanism that enables passive knowledge of the language to become transferred into an active one. All the factors mentioned above signify the possibility of early language education.

However, the most solid argument, in our opinion, supporting the idea of early childhood education, is brain development. It is a scientifically proven fact that the left hemisphere of the brain is responsible for speech. Due to its fast development, children are sensitive to their mother's speech even while being in her womb. It has also been stated that different parts of the brain produce different language phenomena[21]. As researcher Fred Genesee points out: recent findings

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[21] Craig G. Psihologiya razvitiya [Text] / G. Craig, D. Baucum. – 9-oeizd. – SPb.: Piter, 2007. – 940 p., p. 259.

indicate that the specialized functions of specific regions of the brain are not fixed at birth but are shaped by experience and learning.

There is direct evidence that when learning occurs, neuro-chemical communication between neurons is facilitated, and less input is required to activate established connections over time. New evidence also indicates that learning creates connections between not only adjacent neurons but also between distant

neurons, and that connections are made from simple circuits to complex ones and from complex circuits to simple ones. When a child is exposed to unfamiliar speech sounds the brain registers this exposure as undifferentiated neural activity. As exposure continues, the listener (and the brain) learns to differentiate among different sounds and even among short sequences of sounds that correspond to words or parts of words. With further exposure, both the simple and complex circuits are activated at virtually the same time and more easily. As connections are formed among adjacent neurons to form circuits, connections also begin to form with neurons in other regions of the brain that are associated with visual, tactile, and even olfactory information related to the sound of the word. These connections give the sound of the word meaning Effective teaching should include a focus on both parts and wholes.

This only shows that any knowledge should be supported by revisions, repetitions and connections with the real world. Educators should pay attention to both individual differences of the children and general things such as creating meaningful environments, exploring kids' opportunities, teaching skills in integration, etc. The first six years are sensitive for speech acquisition, whereas the age period from three to six is the time of linguistic competence development[22]. Nina Spada and Patsy M. Lightbown in the work "How languages are learnt", emphasize the fact that the process of a foreign language acquisition in the

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[22] Craig G. Psihologiya razvitiya [Text] / G. Craig, D. Baucum. – 9-oeizd. – SPb.: Piter, 2007. – 940 p., p. 324.

childhood follows the path of the native one, which stimulates the idea of early childhood education.

The researcher considers linguistic competence to be the structural component of communicative competence, which is recognized by the academic society. According to the author, "linguistic competence is a complex of components including both knowledge of vocabulary, grammatical structures, phonetic norms, words with cultural semantics and ability to consciously use them expressing child's own desires and thoughts in an aural-receptive and productive ways[23]". Thus linguistic competence can be presented as a three-component structure (Fig. 1)[24].

Anna Spiridonova

Language component

vocabulary, grammatical structures, phonetics, speech patterns, used in accord with a child's age

Speech component

the ability to use vocabulary in speech with the aim to communicate; the ability to differintiate seporate words in a speech stream and to pronounce them following the phonetical norms, the ability to prompely use grammar structures for forming a cohesive utterance

Linguistic-cultural component

learning culture and traditions of a foreign country, the ability to speak in accord with the situation and way characteristic of a native speaker
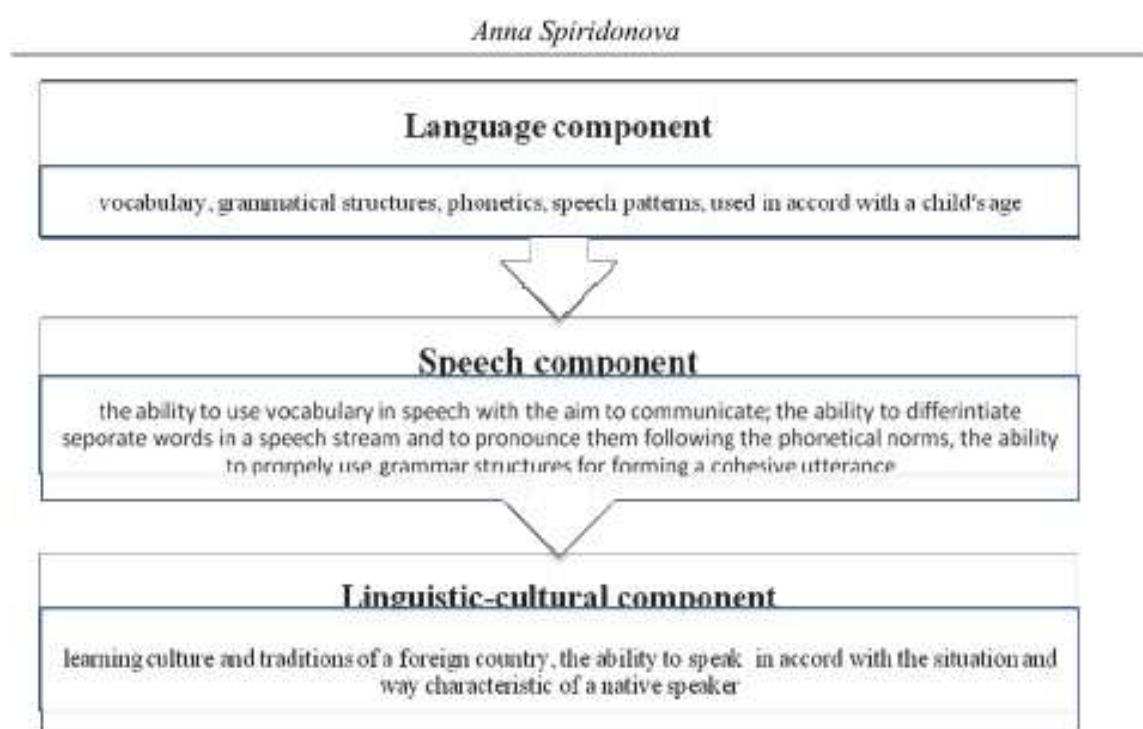
Fig. 1. Structure of Linguistic Competence.

[23] Zhigaleva K.B. Metodika formirovaniya lingvisticheskoi kompetenzii doshkolnikov na osnove sistemno-orientirovannogo modelirovaniya protzessa obucheniya inostrannomu yazyku [Text] / K.B. Zhigaleva: avtoreferat dis.. ... kand. ped. nauk. / K.B. Zhigaleva. – Nizhniy Novgorod, 2009. – 24 p., p. 11.

[24] All the below given figures are taken from: Spiridonova A. Formation of a linguistic competence of pre-school children in the language learning developmental environment. Chelyabinsk: Vestnik ChelGU, 2002, sbornik nauchnix statyey, pp. 45-50.

The best way to learn a foreign language is to immerse a child into the artificially created Language Learning Developmental Environment. What do we understand about this concept? There are different types of environment. We define the Language Learning Developmental Environment as the environment of developmental education in the integrity of its components: the space-and-object component, the technological component, the developmental and social components which provide favourable conditions for early language learning within he process of object-oriented activities, thus creating a positive emotional atmosphere and promoting the child to acquire skills of direct communication (without translation) (Fig. 2).
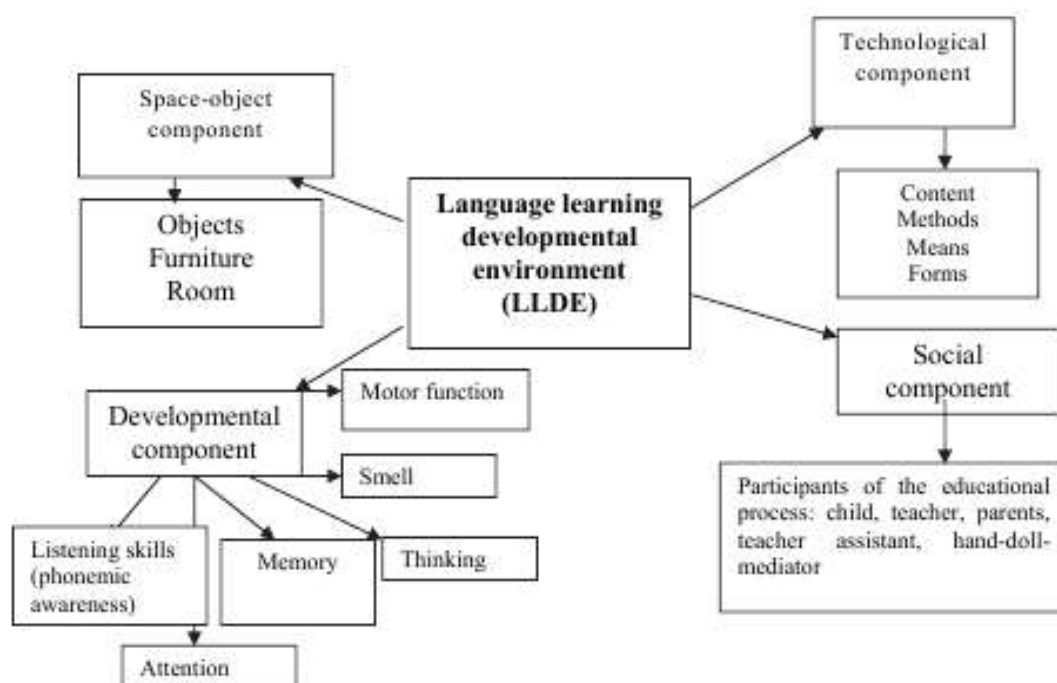

Fig. 2.Model of the LLDE

We emphasize that each type of object-oriented activity transforms into independent forms of language teaching (Fig. 3). By stressing this, the importance of each activity is implied. A child is able to express itself in all of them due Technological component Language learning developmental environment (LLDE) Objects Furniture Room Space-object component Developmental component Memory Motor function Attention Thinking Smell Listening skills (phonemic

awareness) Social component Content Methods Means Forms Participants of the educational process: child, teacher, parents, teacher assistant, hand-doll-mediator to the vital nature of each activity available to it. He becomes active while drawing or modeling, playing with cones, or singing. A child does not realize that at this very moment the process of education is being held and consequently is very responsive to what appears real and interesting to it.

Integration of activities is another characteristic feature, which is worth mentioning in this context. It often occurs when children draw something and listen to the music, or when they play with toys and follow the teacher's instructions (Fig. 3).
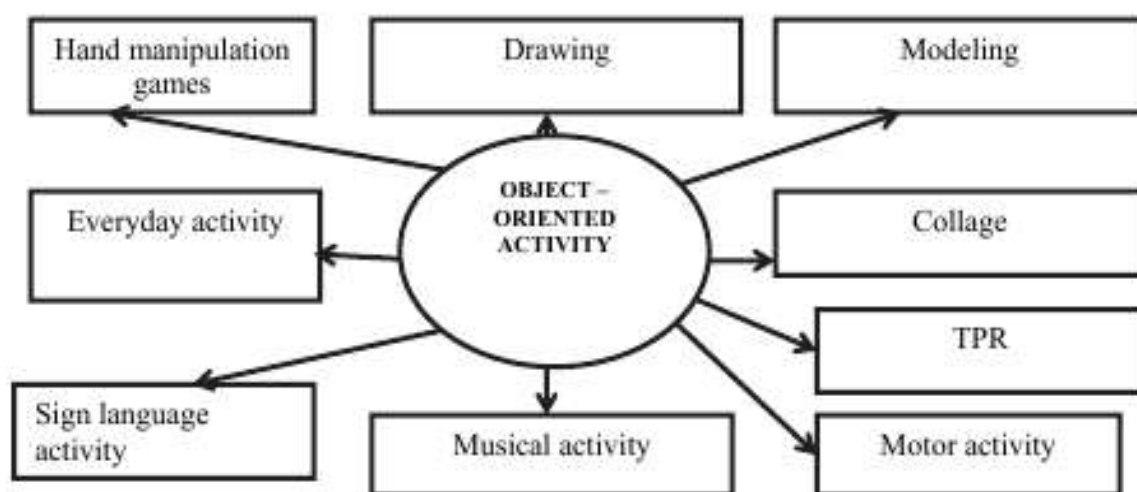

Fig. 3.Types of object-oriented activity at English classes involving early aged children

The social component comprises emotions and forms of subject-subject interaction within the educational process. The epicenter of this interaction is the child as a language personality. By the end of the second year of life a child becomes egocentric and mentions itself frequently in speech. This is the period when a child adapts to the norms of a society, learns to control its own incentives and tries to establish autonomy from adults. The role of adults in this period consists in providing support for the child and helping it to acquire these norms by organizing a language developmental environment for the child in order for it to realize itself within this setting as a little personality. The participants in the

educational process are not only teachers and children, but include also teacher-assistants, parents, and other pedagogues. Children are apt to copy adults by following their behavior.

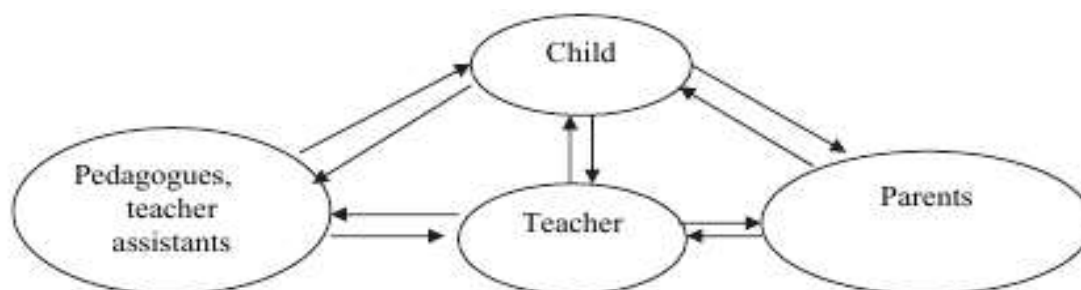The forms of subject-subject interaction are illustrated in Figure 4.

Fig. 4. The forms of subject-subject interaction in the language educational process

The developmental component includes a complex set of tasks and exercises aimed at the development of phonemic awareness, visual and aural memory, motor skills, smell skills, sensory sphere, attention, imagination, and thought.

Early language education is implemented either at individual classes "mother + child" or at in-group classes. In the first case the mother participates in all types of tasks showing a child her interest and thus stimulating it towards activity. In-group classes are usually held at day care or language centers. Parents are recommended to attend practical seminars in order to get some information and knowledge of the educational process and of the LLDE. At the seminars they are given recommendations on how to make language learning more effective and support the LLDE at home.

Conclusion

Linguistic typology is a subfield of linguistics that studies and classifies languages according to their structural and functional features. Its aim is to describe and explain the common properties and the structural diversity of the world's languages. It includes three subdisciplines: qualitative typology, which deals with the issue of comparing languages and within-language variance; quantitative typology, which deals with the distribution of structural patterns in the world's languages; and theoretical typology, which explains these distributions.

Comparative typology, as the notion itself reveals, represents a linguistic subject of typology based on the method of comparison. Like typology proper 'Comparative typology' also aims at establishing the most general structural types of languages on their dominant or common phonetically, morphological, lexical and syntactical features. Comparative typology may equally treat dominant or common features only, as well as divergent features only, which are found in languages of the same structural type (synthetic, analytical, agglutinative, etc) or in languages of the different structural types, (synthetic and analytical, agglutinative and incorporative, etc).

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

Comparative typological analysis of each linguistic layer of both English and Uzbek languages presented in the second chapter of our research proved us that there are more differences between them rather than similarities. For instance, at the phonological level, we should mention about the number of vowel sounds in both languages: in English there are 21 and in Uzbek there are only 6 vowel phonemes. Moreover, at the system of consonants we can also find such cases: in English we find cases when one consonant letter can stand for different sounds (like 'c' – for [s] and [k]), whereas in Uzbek it is not so.

The analysis of the word formation of these two languages also showed different results. In both modern English and Uzbek there mostly used affixation as a productive way of forming words, but in Uzbek the number of suffixes that can be attached to a word prevails the one in English. For example: *finish - ed, courage - ous, un-prepared - ness: тугал -лан -ма -ган -лик -дан -дир, бе-даво-лар-дан*. Also it should be mentioned that it is vital there are so many differences between these two languages; they belong to quite different language families: English to Indo-European and Uzbek to Altaic.

In the system of Grammar there are also found more differences than similarities. For instance, if there are some similarities in the expression of grammatical gender (there are very few cases in both languages and all of them are derived words) like: English has the only suffix - ess which is used to denote feminine gender. e.g.: *host-ess, actr-ess, waitr-ess, princ-ess, lion-ess, and tiger-ess*. Feminine gender in Uzbek may often be expressed by means of the suffix- a which is supposed to be of Arabic origin e.g.: - *раис_а, вазир_а, шоир_а, муаллим_а, котиб_а* etc.

But in the system of noun cases we have concrete differences: in English there are only 2, and in Uzbek there are 6 of them. As we have seen above in the second chapter of our qualification paper the meanings of most cases in Uzbek are expressed in English with the help of prepositions: e.g., the Uzbek 'ўрин пайт келишиги' denotes the place of the thing or a person in the space and it can be rendered in English by means of prepositions *at, in, an, by, over, above, among, between, behind* etc. (e.g.*У китоб жавонда - The book is in the bookcase*). But at same time, 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 (like in – ичида; behind – орқасида; between – орасида; under – остида, etc).

Also in the system of number of nouns in both languages there are some differences and similarities. Uzbek nouns and pronouns usually denote plural number by means of suffix – 'лар' (eg: *одам - лар, муттаҳам-лар*) Which can

sometimes be used also to denote respect to a person who is spoken about. e.g.: *Дадамлар келдилар,* (But you have to keep in mind that you can't have mote than one father; here '*лар*' is used in order to show respect to older people). Whereas in English nouns can express the notion of plurality in the following ways: a) by means of suffixes: '- s, - es' (*wife-wives, head-heads*); '- en' (*ox-oxen, child-children, brother-brotheren*); *- a datum-data, sanatorium-sanatoria, phenomenon-phenomena*) etc. b) by changing the root vowel (*man-men, goose-geese*), etc.

Debate and developments around the methods of language teaching and learning have been ongoing since the time of Comenius in the 17th century, if not before. To our mind, any methodological recommendation for the teachers of a foreign language can not be called successfully in all cases, for this reason; apart from the above mentioned methods of teaching English (chapter III) we should say that today it's very actual to use communicative approach to this process. After the presidential decree №1875 in our republic the attitude to teaching foreign languages, English in particular, has greatly changed for the better.

We would like to mention that, it was very interesting and useful to make linguistic analysis on this topic, as we have gained very valuable information about the linguistic peculiarities of two languages; English – our target and Uzbek – our mother tongue.

I would like to end up my conclusions with the gratitude and love for the all teachers of our university for giving us useful information, bringing us till now and up to this day.

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