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Qualification paper

Theme: Contrastive analysis of the consonants of English and Uzbek languages

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Content

Introduction

Learning of a language has been a regular preoccupationwith more or less professional scientists for hundreds of years. Since the oldest times, much before thebirth of linguisticsas anindividual scholar discipline, people have been know of thepredominant role, language plays not only in their everyday lifetime, but also as a characteristicfeature of human being, totallydifferentiating humanity from other species of theanimal kingdom from all over the world.

We can easily mention all advantages about language from the very beginning of our history in this world, with mentioning that language is a linker of both mankind and universe in general. It is necessary to underline that fact that differentcultures and nations seemto associate speech problems with intellectual shifts.The origin of language(believed to be divine in most earliestcultures), the connection between language and thinking, here we come across with such kind of question like if we can thinkwithout the help of language (and if we can, what kind of thinking it will be), the manner inwhich humanity (whocan not speak from the beginning of his life, but havehowever, an innate capacity for language possession) come, with an amazing speed, to successfully make use of language, beginning with the very first levels of their existence (thegaining of language actually parallels the birth of the child's subconsciousness andthe latter can hardly be imagined without the previous) have mystified researchers forcenturies and none of these questions has actually received a suitable and universallyadopted answers.

Language is surely the main system available for us, not only for recognizing the world and understanding it, but also for gathering, saving and sharing and communicatinginformation. Language can thus be understood as the basicsystem we have for conversing among us. All the other systems of communicating information are actually founded on this vital, basic one. Communicationby means of language can thus be understood as a difficult process which actually divided into several stages. Any process of communication mainly takes place between two contestants: one of them has a source of information, the

individuum who has to tell something, the sender of the message that contains the source, and on the other side of the coin we need a second person, like a port in order to receive source from that individ, the port of the message, the receiver of the communication act, in other words the mankind to whom the source of the information in the message is addressed. Since the sender has to carry a message, and the transmission is to take place on the principals of a system of signs (a code), the first step the sender should encode or codify his message, in other words to make the substances of the message by means of the signs of the respective code (the language). And then the next level is obviously symbolized by the transmission of the right message, which can be got in several directions (which depends of the form of contact; e.g. written or oral). After getting information first one has to understand the main idea of the sender after decoding of the given content.

The value of sounds as a transportation of meaning is somewhat that humanity have been sensitive forhundred of years. But, regularresearches on the speech sounds only emerged with the development of modern sciences[1]. The expressionphonetics used in linking with such kind of studies which comes from Greek and its basis can be marked out back to the wordphɸnein, to speak, in its type which can be related to phɸnз, a sound. The end of the 18th century is aspectator of the revival of the significance in the studying of the sounds of various languages and the introduction of the expressionphonology[2]. The word comes to be, however, decided from the former just more than a century anon with the improvement of structuralism whathighlights the vital contrastive part of classes of sounds what are labeled phonemes. The expressions continue to be used, however, haphazardly until the standing of phonology as a separate discipline is finally reached in the first half of the 20th century. Howeverthere is no universally adopted point of view about aneasy border line between the relevantspheres of phoneticsand phonologyas, in reality, we can not debate about a phonological

[1]Jakobson, R. & L. Waugh (1979). *The sound shape of language.*Bloomington: Indiana University Press.

[2]Ohala, J. J. (1986). Consumer's guide to evidence in phonology

system discounting the phonetic aspects it entails and, on the other hand, any phonetic approach has to take into account the phonological system that is stood for by any language, most researchers will accept about some basicfeatures between the two.

A huge interest to match up to studying of languages of diverse structures by the linguists is explained first of all that it can help to establishtotal and standard rules of language contact. This diploma work is devoted to comparative analysis of consonants of English and Uzbek languages.

When compare the analysis we outcome of that fact that the languages being the most important means of communication and first of all appears in sound speech. That is why the study of foreign languages begins with the creation of pronouncingskills.However control of fresh pronouncing skills is followed by some difficulties caused by means of interference, i.e. insensiblechange pronouncing standards of native languageto pronouncing standrds of learninglanguage.A teacher who knows of interference of native language has anoption to put off mistakes, to work out helpfulstructure of defensivelessons, which can predict the mistakes, when the sounds coincide a teacher is able to use the abilities of positive transference of norm of native language.

Novelty of the diploma work is that it adjoins some elements to what was studied earlier than. This topic is actual for nowadays and will always be. Many scientists are attracted in the features of consonant systems in English and their alike and reversesin the Uzbek language. Due to the analysis what is used in this diploma paper is to find out the features of consonant systems and to showtheir resembles in the Uzbek language, it is likely to notice the diversities and idiosyncrasies of consonant sounds and the types of their conveyance into the Uzbeklanguage.

The subject of the study is specific features of consonant systems and their equivalents and opposites in the Modern Uzbeklanguage.

Contrastive studying of the peculiarities of own and learning languages has a great importance when teaching.

Actuality of this topic is that practice of English pronunciation, mainly on the most important level.

When comparing any languages, if the languages of one group or unlike, related or opposedfeatures are appeared. The products of comparative linguistic analysis help to avoid on the methodical level the possibilities of interference and predictthe foretell of probable mistakes.

From the first stages of studying any language it is very vitaltowatch out deeply for an individuum to articulate the sounds, should doa right intonation. It is impossible to avoid any incorrect pronunciation of sounds. It is almost impossible to accurate wrong pronunciation at the end of studying process. That is why the chief stage in pronunciation of non native language is the most important.

It is almost underlined that English belongs to German group of Indo-European languages and Uzbek belongs to the EasternTurkic or Karlukbranch of the Turkic language family and they are different from one another by their sounding features. It plays magnificentposition in the methods of language teaching.

The purpose of this diploma work is to study of theoretical basis of English phonetics, comparing with the theoretical basis of Uzbekphonetics, to make comparative analysis of consonant systems in modern English and Uzbek languages.There are unbelievable numbers of learners in institutions of higher and further education who are studying English for many goals: as the standard of the literature and culture of English-speaking countries; for getting to scholarly and technological mass medias; to become certified as English tutors, translators, or interpreters; to develop their chances of employment or support in such fields as tourist trade or guide, international applications for economical or armed aid. In cities and nations where it is a second language, English is universally used as the standard for higher education, at least for scientific and technological spheres.

Advantage of this diploma paper is that it will be useful both to teachers, and to learners. In teaching activity it can be concerned in learning of such lessons as practical course of translation, theoretical course of translation, workshop on

culture of speech communication, etc. The analysis completed in this diploma paper will help to see coming mistakes while communication (oral), will help to practical exercises for improvement of skills of phonetics.

The main task is to make comparative analysis of consonant systems in modern English and Uzbek languages, find out resemblances and diversities between English and Uzbek consonants, to classifyhardness which come across the learners while reading and pronouncing thenon native consonant phonemes especially, which are essential to defeat, and also to learn the theoretical basis of English phonetics and compare them with the theoretical basis of Uzbek in order to understand the arrangement of Modern English language.

The structure of the degree work. The present diploma work consists of the introduction, three chapters, the conclusion, bibliography and references.

The introduction explains the actuality, the novelty and the subject of the study as well as the objective and tasks, the theoretical and practical value of the study; enumerates the methods of research.

Chapter I is devoted to general explanation about the classification of the consonant system, the English consonant system and their classification as well as the consonant systems of Uzbek language and their classification.It includes the survey of various classifications of consonant. At the end of the chapter there is a summary.

Chapter II includes the comparativeanalysis of consonant systems of English and Uzbek languages. This analysis can give us a possibility to find out some similarities and differences between the consonants of English and Uzbek languages.

Chapter III deals with Methods of teaching English phonemes in Uzbek classes where we can find out interesting methods and suggestions while teaching Uzbek learners. At the end of the chapter there is a summary.

The conclusion sums up the results of the study.

In references we can find the general tables of consonant sounds.

Chapter 1. CONSONANT SYSTEMS OF ENGLISH AND UZBEK

LANGUAGES

1.1 CONSONANT SYSTEM

In phonetic discipline, a consonant is a sound in general that is characterized by a closure or stricture of the vocal tract sufficient to cause creating a sound. The word consonant derived from Latin which means "sounding with" or "sounding together" the idea being that consonants do not sound on their own, but arise only with a nearby vowel, which is the case in Latin. This conception of consonants, however, doesn't reflect the modern scientific understanding which defines consonants in terms of vocal tract constriction[3].

Since the amount of consonants in all over the world languages is much predominant than the amount of consonant letters in any one alphabet, scientists have developed systems like the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) to hand over a unique symbol to each possible consonant[4]. In reality, the Latin alphabet, what is used to write English, has smaller amount of consonant letters than English has consonant sounds, so some letters characterize more than one consonant, and digraphs like "sh" and "th" are used to create some other sounds while standing together. Many spokesmen aren't even know that the "th" sound in "this" is a dissimilar sound from the "th" sound in "thing" (in the IPA they're [ð] and [θ], respectively.

Every consonant can be differentiated by numerous offeatures:

- The way of expression is the process that the consonant is articulated, such as nasal (through the nose), stop (complete obstruction of air), or approximant (vowel like).
- The position of articulation is where in the vocal tract the obstruction of the consonant occurs and where speech organs are involved. Positions include bilabial (both lips), alveolar (tongue against the gum ridge), and velar (tongue against soft palate). In addition, there may be a simultaneous narrowing at another

[3]Halle, Morris. 1990. "Respecting metrical structure". *Natural Language and Linguistic Theory*

[4]Katzner, Kenneth (March 2002). *Languages of the World, Third Edition*.

position of articulation, such as palatalisation or pharyngealisation.

- The phonation of a consonant is how the vocal cords vibrate during the articulation. When the vocalcords vibrate totally, the consonant is named voiced; when they do not vibrate at all, it called voiceless.
- The voice onset time (VOT) indicates the timing of the phonation. Aspiration is a qualityof VOT.
- The airstream system is how the air moving through the vocal tract is powered. Most languages have exclusively pulmonicagressive consonants, which use the lungs and diaphragm, but ejectives, clicks, and implosives use different types.
- The length is how long the obstruction of a consonant lasts or we can say duration. This feature is average distinctive in English, as in "wholly" [hoʊlli] against "holy" [hoʊli], but cases are limited to morphemeboundaries. Unrelated basis are differentiated in different languages such as Italian, Japanese and Finnish, with two length stages, "single" and "geminate". Estonian and kind of Sami languages have three phonemic lengths: short, geminate, and long geminate, although the distinction between the geminate and overlong geminate includes somehow equal features.
- The articulatory strength is how much muscular energy is involved. This has been intended many times, but no distinction relying exclusively on force has ever been showed.

All English consonants can easily be classified by the help of a combination of below given factors, such as "voiceless alveolar stop consonant" [t]. In this case the airstream mechanism is skipped over.

In linguistic phonetics, manner of articulationillustrates how the tongue, lips, and other active speech organs engaged in making a sound make get in touch with. Frequently the idea is only used for the invention of consonants. For any kind of place of articulation, there may be numerousmodes, and therefore more than a few homorganic consonants.

One parameter of methods is stricture, what is, how closely the active organs of speech approach one another. Parameters extra than stricture are those engaged in the ar sounds (taps and trills), and the sibilancy of fricatives. Often nasality and laterality are included in manner, but phoneticians such as Peter Ladefogedregard them as to be independent.

From greatest to leaststricture, speech sounds may be classified along with their evolution as stop consonants (with occlusion, or blocked airflow), fricative consonants (with semi blocked and therefore physically powerful turbulent airflow), approximants (with only minor turbulence), and vowels (with full unobstructed airflow). Affricates often behave as if they were halfway between stops and fricatives, but phonetically they are series of stop plus fricative.

Historically, sounds may travel along this cline toward less stricture in a process called lenition.

Other parameters include like sibilants which are differentiated from other fricatives by the help of the shape of the tongue and how the airflow is expressed over the speaker's teeth. Fricatives at coronalpositions of articulation may be sibilant or non-sibilant, sibilants being the more general.

Taps and flaps are analogous to extremely brief stops. But, their articulation and behavior is clear enough to be considered a disconnect manner, rather than simply length.[specify]

Trills entail the vibration of one of the active speech organs. Since trilling is a separate parameter from stricture, the two may be gathered together. Risingthe stricture of a typical trill effects in a trilled fricative. Trilled affricates are also aware.

Nasal airflow may be adjoined as ansovereign parameter to any kind of the speech sound. It is most usually found in nasal stops and nasal vowels, but nasalfricatives, taps, and approximants are also established. When anysound is not nasal, it is namedoral. Any oral stop is often nicknamed a plosive, while a nasal stop is generally simply called a nasal.

Laterality is the discharge of airflow at the side of the tongue. This can in

addition be united with other manners, resulting in lateral approximants (the most normal), lateral flaps, and lateral fricatives and affricates.

Individual manners are the followings;

- Plosive or oral stop, whereverhere is totalocclusion (obstruction) of both the oral and nasal cavities of the vocal tract, and consequently no air flow. Examples include English /p t k/ (voiceless) and /b d g/ (voiced). If the consonant is voiced, voice is a single sound made during occlusion; if this voiceless, plosive completely calm. That we hear as /p/ or /k/ - an effect that begin occlusions have in previous vowel, and well as blast of the issue and effect in the following vowel. The Form and position of the language (the place to articulations), define the sonorous cavity, which gives other plosives their typical sounds. All languages have plosives.
- Nasal stop, usually shortened on nose, where there is full occlusion to spoken cavity, and air passes in lieu thereof through nose. The Form and position of the tongue define the sonorous cavity, which gives other nose stop their typical sounds. The Examples include the English /m, n/. Nearly all languages have nasals, single exceptions in the field of Puget and single language on Bougainvilles.
- Fricative, sometimes named spirant, where there is unceasing frication (tempestuous and noisy airstream) on place of the articulations. The Examples include the English /f, s/ (voiceless), /v, z/ (voiced), etc.. The majority of the languages have fricatives, while many of them have only /s/. However, Australianlanguage is completely deprived fricatives of any type.
- Sibilantssounds are a type of fricative where airstream is directed by groove in tongue to teeth, creating high and very well-marked sound. These - vastly most general fricatives. Fricatives On coronal places (the foreground of the language) to articulations - usually, all- not always, whistling sounds. The English whistling sounds include /s/ and /z/.
- Lateral fricatives - a rare type fricative, where frication occurs on one or both side of the edge of the tongue. "ll" Welsh of the language and "hl" Zulu - lateral fricatives.Affricate, which begins like a plosive, but this releases into a

fricative rather than having a separate release of its own. The English letters "ch" and "j" represent affricates. Affricates are quite common around the world, though less common than fricatives.

- The Flap, often named tap, - a momentary closing to spoken cavity. "tt" "Utter" and "dd" "udder" pronounced as flap in North American English. Lots of linguists distinguishtaps from flaps, but there is no consensus on what the difference might be. No language relies on such a difference. There are also lateral flaps.
- Trill, in which articulator (usually end of the tongue), is recognized revenge, and reason of the airstream this to vibrate. The Double "r" Spanish "perro" is a trill. Trills and flaps, where there is one or more short occlusions, form the class of consonant named rhotics.
- Approximant,wherethere is very small barrier. The Examples include the English /w/ and /r/. In some languages such as, Spanish, there are sounds, which seems between like fricative and approximant.
- One use of the expression halfvowel sound is a type approximant pronounced like a vowel but with language to roof of the mouth closer to there is lung turbulence. In English, /w/ - an equivalent полугласного sound vowel /u/, and /j/ (written on letter "y"), - an equivalent полугласного sound vowel /i/ in this use. The Other descriptions use полугласный sound for sound like vowel, which not syllabic, but no have raised стриктуру approximants. These are discovered as elements in diphthong. The Word can is also used to cover both notions.
- Lateral approximants, usually shortened on lateral, they are a type approximant observable with side of the language. The English /l/ is lateral. Together with rhotics, which has a similar behaviour on many languages, these form the class agree named to liquids.

And also there is broader ones;

- Ways to articulations with reliable barrier of the airstream (plosives, fricatives, affricates), is named obstruents. These semi typical voiceless, but voiced obstruents exceedingly general also. The Ways without such barriers (nose, fluid,

approximants, and also vowel), is named sonorants since they nearly are always voiced. Voiceless sonorants unusual but are discovered on Welsh and Classical Greek (the spelling "rh"), in Tibetce ("lh" Lhasa), and "wh" in that idiom English, which distinguishes "what" from "witches".

Sonoranty can is also named resonants, and some linguists prefer, which characterizes, limiting word sonorant that non-vocoidresonants (that is to say, nose and liquids, but not vowel or floor-vowel). Other general difference - between stop (plosives and nose) and continuants (still); it is considered that affricates will be both since they sequence of the stop plus fricative..

Standards of Classification of English Consonants

The fussy quality of a consonant depends on the labor of the vocal cords, the arrangement of the soft palate and the kind of noise that products when the tongue or the lips block the airstream[5].

Scientistsdivide two types of articulatory obstruction that are figured whileproducting consonants: complete and incomplete[6].

A complete barrier is figured when active organs of speech come into deal with each other and the air-passage is barren.

An incomplete obstruction is figured whenarticulating organs (articulators) are held so close to a point of articulation as to slim, or tighten, the air-passage without obstructing it.

[5]Bolinger, Dwight L.1986. *Intonation and Its Parts.Melody in Spoken English.*

[6]Berg, T. (1989). On the internal structure of polysyllabic monomorphemic words: the case for superrimes.

1.2 CLASSIFICATION OF ENGLISH CONSONANTS

In English language we have certainly all in all 24 consonants and these consonants are divided according to four below given principles[7]:

1. Depending on the type of barrier and the way of noise production.
2. Depending on the active organ of speechand the position of barrier.
3. Depending on the active of the vocal cords and the strength of verbalization.
4. Depending on the place of the soft palate[8].

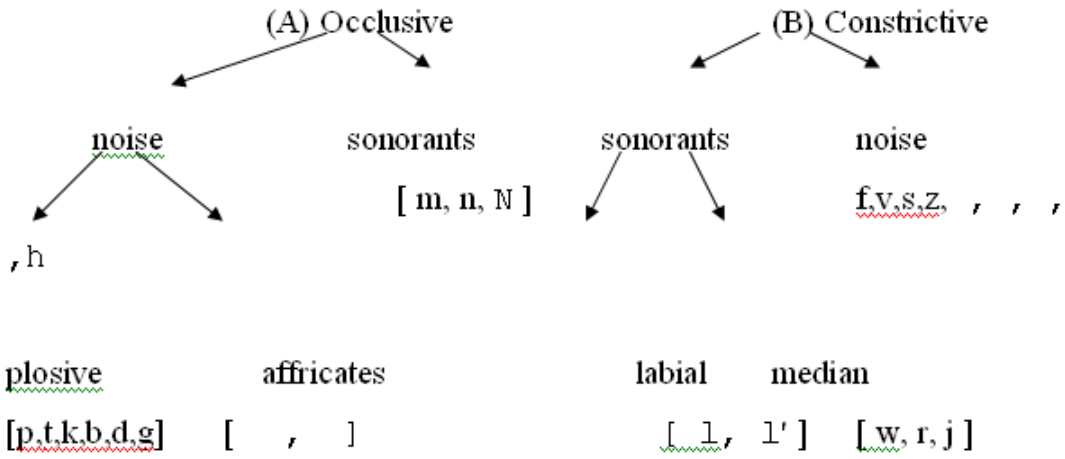
Table 1.

According to the Degree of Noise	
Class A. Noise Consonants	Class B. Sonorants
Vary: 1. In the manner of articulation. 2. In the place of articulation. 3. In the work of the vocal cords. 4. In the force of articulation.	Vary: 1. In the manner of articulation. 2. In the place of articulation. 3. In the position of the soft palate. 4. In the direction of the air stream.

[7] This classification is taken from the book: Vassiliev, Vyacheslav, A. 1980. English Phonetics.A Theoretical Course. Moscow: VyshayaShcola, pp. 16-19.

[8] A. 1980. English Phonetics.A Theoretical Course. Moscow: VyshayaShcola, pp. 18.

Depending on the form of barrierand the way of noise making

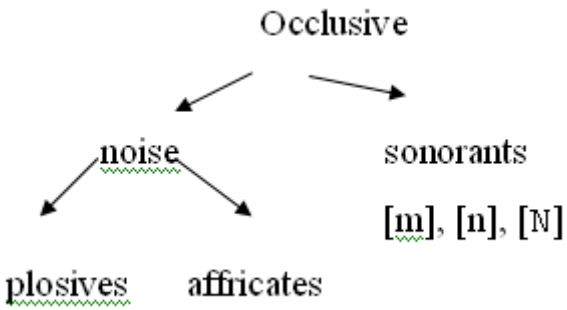


a) Depending on the variety of barrier, all English consonants are broke upinto occlusive and constrictive.

(A) Occlusive consonants are made with anabsolutebarriershaped by the articulating organs, when the airstreams is obstructed in the mouth cavity.

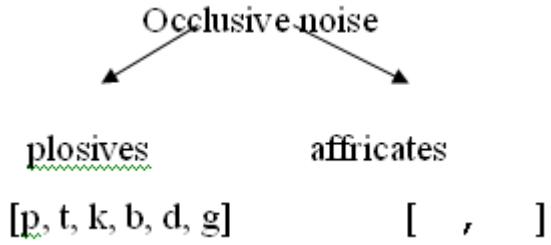
(B) Constrictive consonants are made with an partial or limited barrier, that is by a slighting of the airstream.

Occlusive consonants can be divided into two like: (1) noise and (2) sonorants.



In the making of occlusive organs of speech figure a fullbarrier in the jaws cavity, what is not released. The soft palate is below position and the air runs offall the way through the nasal cavity. In occlusive sonorans tone prevails over noise.

b) Depending on the way of noise making,occlusive noise consonants are fall into plosive consonants (or stop) and affricates.

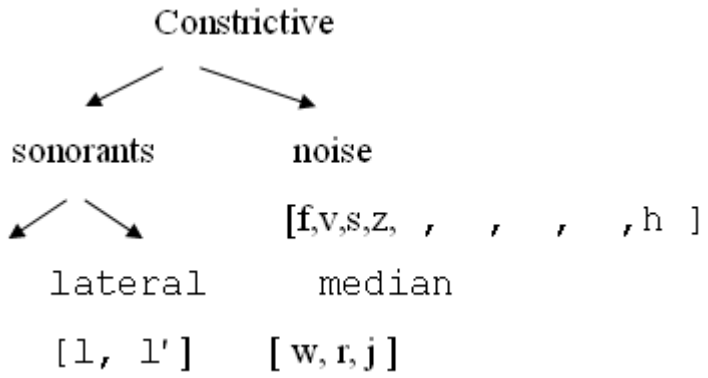


While making of occlusive plosives (or stop) active organs of speech create an absolutebarrier to the airstream, what is then discharged with a plosion.

And so in English language we have only three types of voiceless occlusive plosives, they are[p, t, k] and are aspirated[9], by the omission of the case when they are stood before - [s], like in clusters [sp, st, sk].

While making of occlusive affricates active organs of speech form anentirebarrier, what is then discharged toounhurriedly that aextensive friction takes place at the position of articulation.

Constrictive consonants can be then divided into the following two: (1) noise and (2) sonorants.



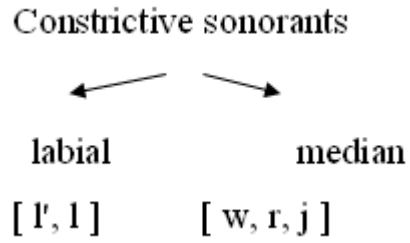
While making of noise constrictive active organs of speech shape apartialor

[9] *Aspiration* is a slight puff of breath that is heard after the plosion of a voiceless plosive consonant before the beginning of the vowel, that follows it.

elselimited obstacle.

While making of constrictive sonorant the air-passage is ratheropen, in order that the air going bythroughout the oral cavity does not makecapable of being heardresistance and intonation prevails over noise.

b) Depending on the way of noise making,constrictive sonorantconsonants fall into lateral consonantsand median.



While making of median sonorant the air runs awaylacking of audible friction over the mid part of the tongue, the areas of the tongue being lifted.

In English median constrictive sonorant are:[w, r, j]

While making of lateral sonorant the tongue is pushed against the alveolar rim or the teeth, and the parts of the tongue are downed, escaping the air-passage run along them.

In English lateral constrictive sonorant are: [l', l]

Depending on the active organs of speechand the position of barrier

a) Depending on the active organs of speech, English consonants are fall into tripleclusters: labial, lingual and glottal[10]l.

1.Labial consonants are produced with single or gathered lips and, therefore, can be (A) bilabial and (B) labio-dental.

(A) Bilabial consonants are produced with gathered lips, up lip and of course low lip. The English bilabial consonants are: [m, p, b]

(B) Labio-dental consonants are produced by the help of the low lip against the teeth what are situated at the top of your mouth. The English labio-dental

[10] Hyman, Larry M.1975. *Phonology: Theory and Analysis*, New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

consonants are [f], [v]

2.Lingual consonants are produced by the help of the tongue and can be three types (A) forelingual, (B) mediolingual, and (C) backlingual.

(A) Forelingual consonants are produced by the help of the tip or the blade of the tongue, they can be divided into two subgroups like: a) apical and b) cacuminal.

(a) Apical consonants are produced by the help of the tip of the tongue versusboth the upper teeth or the alveolar ridge. The English apical consonants are followings: [T], [D], [t], [d], [I], [n], [s], [z].

(b) Cacuminal consonants are produced by the help of the tip of the tongue moved up against the back piece of the alveolar ridge. The front of the tongue is downed in a 'spoon-shaped' form; the English [r].

(B) Mediolingual consonants are produced by the help of the front of the tongue versus the hard palate. For English the mediolingualconsonant is [j].

(C) Backlingual consonants are produced by the help of the back of the tongue versus the soft palate. The English backlingual consonants are:[k], [g], [N].

b) According to the position of barrier, English consonants may be fall into the followings (1) dental (interdental or post-dental), (2) alveolar, (3) palato-alveolar, (4) post-alveolar, (5) palatal, and (6) velar.

(1) Dental consonants are produced versus the upper teeth no matter with the tip or with the blade of the tongue. The English [T], [D], or by the help of the blade of the tongue.

(2) Alveolar consonants are produced by the help of the tip of the tongue versus the alveolar ridge: such kind of English consonants as [t], [d], [n], [l], [s], [z].

(3) Palato-alveolar consonants are articulated by the tip and blade of the tongue against the alveolar ridge or the back part of the alveolar ridge, while the front of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate: the English [S], [Z], [C], [G].

(4) Post-alveolar consonants are produced by the help of the tip of the

tongue versus the back piece of the alveolar ridge: the English [r].

(5) Palatal consonants are produced by the help of the front of the tongue being moved up on the way of the hard palate: the English [j].

(6) Velar consonants are produced by the help of the back or root of the tongue moved up on the way of the velum, or versus the uvula; the English [k, g, N].

The connection between the active organ of speech and the position of obstruction for the English forelingual consonants see in table given below.

Active organ of speech versusposition of barrier

Active org./ place of obstruction	Forelingual	Medioling ual	Backling ual
Dental/Interdental	d, t		
Alveolar	t, d, n, l, s, z		
Alveolar-palatal	c, g, s, z		
Post-alveolar	r		
Palatal		j	
Velar			k, g, n

Depending on the work of the vocal cords and the power of verbalization

a) Depending onthe work of the vocal cords, consonants can be easily divided into two voiced and voiceless.

b) Depending onthe power of pronunciation, consonants can be easily divided into fortis (or pretty strong), and lenis (or quite weak).

Voiced English consonants are lenis (quite weak)[11]. For example the followings are lenis: [b], [d], [g], [g], [v], [d], [z], [z], [m], [n], [n], [w], [i], [r], [j].

[11]Heffner, R. M. S. *General Phonetics*. 1964. Madison: The University of Wisconsin Press

Voiceless English consonants are fortis (pretty strong). They are made up by the help of the greater muscular tension and a some how powerful breath than the voiced ones. They are the followings: [p, t, k, f, T, s, C, S, h].

Voiceless consonant (surd)	Voiced equivalent
[p] (pin)	[b] (bin)
[t] (ten)	[d] (den)
[k] (con)	[g] (gone)
[tʃ] (chin)	[dʒ] (gin)
[f] (fan)	[v](van)
[θ](thin, thigh)	[ð](then, thy)
[s] (sip)	[z] (zip)
[ʃ](pressure)	[ʒ](pleasure)

Depending onthe place of the soft palate;

Depending onthe place of the soft palate, all English consonants can be easily fall into two clusters: nasal and sonorants.

Nasal consonants are created when the soft palate is pushed down and the air-passage moves straight the nasal cavity, and the access to the lips is barren.

The English nasal consonants are the following three letters [m], [n], [n].

List of nasal stops:

- [m] is a voiced bilabial nasal
- [ɱ] is a voiced labiodental nasal (SAMPA: [F])
- [n] is a dental nasal (SAMPA: [n_d]}
- [n] is an alveolar or dental nasal: see alveolar nasal

- [ɳ] voiced retroflex nasal, common in Indic languages (SAMPA: [n`])
- [ɲ] voiced palatal nasal (SAMPA: [J]); is a common sound in European languages as in: Spanish ñ; or French and Italian gn; or Catalan and Hungarian ny; or Occitan and Portuguese nh.
- [ŋ] voiced velar nasal (SAMPA: [N]), as in sing.
- [ɴ] voiced uvular nasal (SAMPA: [N\])

Oral consonants are produced when the soft palate is raised up and the air passage goes through the mouth cavity, and the access to the nasal cavity is blocked.

1.3 CLASSIFICATION OF UZBEK CONSONANTS

Uzbek belongs to the Eastern Turkic, or Karluk, branch of the Turkic language family. The name “Uzbek” is most likely derived from the name of Muslim ruler Oz Beg Khan, leader of the Golden Horde, a powerful group of Turkic tribes, from 1212 to 1341. The history of the Uzbek peoples is highlighted by a period of Soviet oppression followed by a rebirth of Uzbek nationalism and ethnic pride.

The term “Uzbek” can be used to refer both to the Uzbek language or people of native Uzbek origin. Human life existed in what is now Uzbekistan as early as the Old Stone Age (Paleolithic period), more than 55,000 years ago. The Turkic-Mongol tribe known as the Uzbeks is believed to have come to the area of modern-day Uzbekistan after migrating from Siberia. In 1428, Abu al-Khayr, a descendent of Genghis Khan, became leader of the Uzbek confederation of tribes in Siberia. Abu al-Khayr held a powerful rule for 40 years, and it was under his leadership that the Uzbeks migrated southward to what is now Uzbekistan. Despite a shattering of Uzbek unity during the Dzungar invasion of the 1460s, the Uzbek tribes managed to regroup. Throughout the late 15th century the Uzbeks conquered significant areas of land in modern-day Uzbekistan, expanding their power in the area. The Uzbek tribes found further unity under the rule of tribal leader Muhammad Shaybani Khan, a grandson of Abu al-Khayr. Reigning from 1500 to 1510, Muhammad Shaybani established the Shaybanid Dynasty that maintained its power in the region for almost a century. The Shaybanid Dynasty marked a period of cultural development for the Uzbek people. For example, the ruler Muhammad Shaybani was a skilled poet who emphasized the importance of the arts. During this time, the Uzbeks borrowed from the Chagatai literary language – it was not until the 18th century that a distinct Uzbek literary language would develop. Other developments included the erection of monuments, mosques and educational institutions. After the Shaybanid Dynasty was replaced by the Ashtarkhanid Dynasty in 1599, Uzbek power declined significantly until the mid-1700s. The

Ashtarkhanid Dynasty suffered a major defeat with the capture of the capital of Bukhara by Iranian ruler Nadir Shah in 1740, and was fully extinguished by 1785. The first significant invasion of Uzbek territory by the Russians occurred with the successful invasion of Bukhara in 1868. Five years later, Russian forces took control of Khiva, another major Uzbek center, and established protectorates in both cities. By 1875, Russia had officially completed its conquest of Uzbek territory, incorporating the area into the Russian province of Turkistan. The Russian Revolution of 1917 led to a period of instability in Turkistan which eventually ended in the establishment of communist leaders in the two major cities of Bukhara and Khiva by 1921. From 1924 to 1925, the Russian Communist Party (Bolsheviks) essentially redrew the map of Central Asia overnight, resulting in the official designation of an ethnically Uzbek territory – Uzbekistan – that was subsequently incorporated into the USSR. As part of the USSR, Uzbekistan suffered enormously during the communist purges of the 1930s. Most of Uzbekistan's scholars and leaders were executed or forced to flee the country. The Uzbek identity faced an additional threat with the introduction of foreign Russian, Polish and Jewish migrants to the republic, further smothering any sort of unique Uzbek identity. Uzbekistan's situation improved slightly after the Soviet leader Joseph Stalin's death in 1953. Uzbeks were permitted to enter Soviet politics and rose to high levels in Soviet government. Still, the communist leaders of Uzbekistan held firm control of the country. It was not until 1991 that Uzbekistan declared independence The surge of Uzbek nationalism that had developed in the later years of Soviet Uzbekistan continued to grow after independence. The newly independent country adopted a new constitution, flag and national anthem.

This surge of Uzbek pride and emphasis on native Uzbek identity had some negative consequences, however. The country's population fell significantly, as many Jews, Germans, Greeks, Turks, and Slavs living in Uzbekistan left the country due to fears of Uzbek ethnocentrism. Today the country's population is very homogenous, with approximately 80 percent of residents being native Uzbeks. Due to the historical influence of Islam on the people who inhabited

present-day Uzbekistan, the Uzbek language was initially written using an Arabic-based alphabet which read from right to left and used a script in which most of the letters were connected. This practiced continued until the 1920s, when Uzbekistan came under Soviet influence. The Soviet powers introduced a Latin-based alphabet to Uzbekistan and all other Turkic areas that came under Soviet rule during the 1920s. In the mid-1900s, however, another orthographical shift occurred when the Soviet Union developed a modified Cyrillic script similar to that used for the written Russian language, and made the script compulsory for all Turkic Soviet countries, including Uzbekistan. This modified Cyrillic script was mandatory throughout Uzbekistan until the republic gained independence in 1991. In 1993, the Uzbek government officially declared Uzbekistan's return to a Latin-based script. The Uzbek language is currently found primarily in Uzbekistan, where it is the official national language. Smaller communities of Uzbek speakers also can be found in areas of Turkmenistan, Tajikistan, Kazakhstan, Afghanistan, and northwestern China. An estimated 16 million people speak Uzbek around the world today.

Until 1927, Uzbek was written with the Arabic script when it was replaced by the Cyrillic script. Finally, in 1993 the Cyrillic script was abandoned and a Latin-based alphabet of 29 letters was adopted.

Aa	Bb	Dd	Ee	Ff	Gg	Hh	Ii	Jj	Kk	Ll	Mm	Nn	Oo	Pp
[æ/a]	[b]	[d]	[e]	[f]	[g]	[h]	[i/ɨ]	[ʒ/dʒ]	[k]	[l]	[m]	[n]	[o/ɒ]	[p]

Qq	Rr	Ss	Tt	Uu	Vv	Xx	Yy	Zz	O'o'	G'g'	Sh sh	Ch ch	Ng ng
[q]	[r]	[s]	[t]	[y/u]	[w]	[x]	[j]	[z]	[ø/o]	[ɣ]	[ʃ]	[tʃ]	[ŋ]

The system of Uzbek consonant phonemes consists of 24 phonemes. They are: [p, t, k, b, d, g, m, n, l, ng, v, r, s, y, sh, z, x, h, f, j, ch, c, q, g']

		Labial	Dental	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Glottal
Stop	*Voiceless*	p	t		k	q	
	Voiced	b	d		g		
Affricate	*Voiceless*			tʃ			
	Voiced			dʒ			
Fricative	*Voiceless*	f	s	ʃ	x		h
	Voiced		z	ʒ	ɣ		
Nasal		m	n		ŋ		
Liquid			l r				
Glide		w		j			

— stops (p, b, t, d, k, g, q);

— fricatives (f, v, ch, z, s, sh, κ, h, x);

— affricates (ng, g’);

— sonorants (m, n, q, 1, r, j).

The letter B b: is written to represent the voiced labial stop in words such as *bobo* (grandfather), *bahor* (spring), *bir* (one), *majbur* (obliged), *zarb* (hit). Even though the spoken form is "p" in words such as *kitob* (book), *yuzlab* (hundreds), *kelib* (coming), the written form is "b". Even though the spoken form in words such as *qibla* (the relative direction of Mecca for prayer), *tobla* (temper) is sometimes "v" the written form is "b".

The letter P p: is written to represent the unvoiced labial stop in words such as *paxta* (cotton), *pichoq* (knife), *opa* (elder sister), *tepa* (hill), *tup* (bush), *yop* (cover).

The letter V v: is written to represent the voiced labial fricative in words such as *ov* (hunt), *suv* (water), *kuyov* (bridegroom), *ovoz* (voice), *savol* (question), *volida* (mother), *vatan* (native land). Even though the spoken form in assimilated words such as *avtobus* (bus), *avtomat* (automate), is sometimes "f" the written form is "v".

The letter F f: is written to represent the unvoiced labial fricative in words such as *fan* (science), *fe'l* (disposition), *futbol* (football), *fizika* (physics), *asfalt* (asphalt), *juft* (pair), *insof* (conscience), *isrof* (squandering). Even though the

spoken form is sometimes "p" in words such as *fasl* (season), *fayz* (delight), *Fotima* (woman's name), *fursat* (moment), the written form is "f".

The letter M m: is written to represent the voiced bi-labial nasal in words such as *moy* (oil), *muborak* (blessing), *tomon* (side), *ilhom* (inspiration).

The letter D d: is written to represent the voiced front-tongue stop in words such as *dala* (field), *odat* (custom), *bunyod* (creation), *jiddiy* (serious). Even though the spoken form is "t" in words such as *obod* (well-equipped), *savod* (literacy), *marvarid* (pearl), *zavod* (factory), *pud* (16 kg. weight), *sud* (court), *badqovoq* (gloomy), *badxo'r* (bad taste) the written form is "d".

The letter T t: is written to represent the unvoiced front-tongue stop in words such as *tong* (dawn), *tun* (night), *butun* (entire), *o'tin* (firewood), *o't* (fire), *kut* (wait).

The letter Z z: is written to represent the voiced front-tongue fricative in words such as *zar* (gold), *zamon* (era), *toza* (clean), *o'zbek* (Uzbek), *yoz* (summer), *g'oz* (goose). Even when the spoken form is "s" before an unvoiced consonant in words such as *iztirob* (distress), *izquvar* (tracker), *bo'zchi* (weaver), *tuzsiz* (unsalted), the written form is "z".

The letter S s: is written to represent the unvoiced front-tongue fricative in words such as *sog'* (healthy), *somon* (chaff), *oson* (easy), *asos* (basis), *olmos* (diamond).

The combination of letters SH sh: is written to represent the unvoiced front-tongue fricative in words such as *shahar* (city), *shisha* (glass), *shodlik* (happiness), *ishq* (love), *pishiq* (ripened), *bosh* (head), *tosh* (stone). If the letters "sh" are to represent two sounds then an apostrophe is placed between them: *Is'hoq* (Isaac), *as'hob* (interlocutor).

The letter J j: is written to represent the voiced front-tongue mixed consonant in words such as *jon* (soul), *jahon* (world), *jiyda* ([bot.] Elaeangusangustifolia), *tijorat* (commerce), *rivoj* (development), *vaj* (reason). It is also written to represent the voiced front-tongue fricative in words such as

jurnal(magazine), *projektor* (projector), *gijda*(a light textured bread), *ajdar* (dragon), *garaj* (garage), *tiraj* (circulation amount).

The combination of letters Chch: is written to represent the unvoiced front-tongue mixed consonant in words such as *choy* (tea), *chevar* (seamstress), *chiroyli* (beautiful), *chaman* (blossoming meadow), *achchiq* (bitter), *uchun* (for), *bichiqchi* (pattern-cutter), *kuch* (force), *kech* (late).

The letter R r: is written to represent the voiced front-tongue flap in words such as *rahmat* (thanks), *rohat* (enjoyment), *orom* (rest), *doira* (circle), *bor* (exist(s)), *diyor* (homeland).

The letter L l: is written to represent the voiced lateral consonant in words such as *lola* (tulip), *loyiq* (worthy), *la'l* (ruby), *iloj* (means), *mahal* (moment).

The letter N n: is written to represent the voiced front-tongue nasal in words such as *non* (bread), *nomus* (honor), *ona* (mother), *tana* (body), *bilan* (with), *tomon* (side). Even though the spoken form is sometimes "m" in words such as *shanba* (Saturday), *yonbosh* (side), *jonbozlik* (self-sacrifice), *yonma-yon* (side-by-side), *ko'rinmaslik* (invisible), the written form is "n".

The letter G g: is written to represent the voiced back-tongue stop in words such as *gul* (flower), *go'zal* (beautiful), *ega* (owner), *gugurt* (matches), *teg* (bottom), *eg*(bend).

The letter K k: is written to represent the unvoiced back-tongue stop in words such as *ko'l* (lake), *ko'ylak* (dress), *uka* (younger brother), *moki* (weaving shuttle), *tok* (grape vine), *bilak* (forearm).

The letter Y y: is written to represent the middle-tongue fricative in words such as *yo'l* (road), *yigit* (youth), *yetti* (seven), *yaxshi* (good), *yoz* (summer), *yulduz* (star), *tuya* (camel), *dunyo* (world), *tayyor* (ready), *soy* (mountain-stream), *tuy* (feel).

The combination of letters NG ng: is written to represent the voiced back-tongue nasal in words such as *yangi* (new), *ko'ngil* (heart), *dengiz* (sea), *singil* (younger sister), *keling* (come), *bordingiz* (you went), *tong* (dawn), *ming* (thousand), *teng* (equal).

The letter Q q: is written to represent the unvoiced deep-back-tongue stop in words such as *qizil* (red), *qimiz* (fermented mare's milk), *qirq* (forty), *haqiqiy* (real), *aql*(mind).

The letter G' g': is written to represent the voiced deep-back-tongue fricative in words such as *g'oz* (goose), *bag'ir* (liver), *tog'* (mountain).

The letter X x: is written to represent the unvoiced deep-back-tongue fricative in words such as *xabar* (news), *xo'roz* (rooster), *xohish* (wish), *xushnud* (pleased), *baxt* (happiness), *axborot* (information), *mix* (nail).

The letter H h: is written to represent the unvoiced glottal fricative in words such as *hosil* (harvest), *hamma* (all), *bahor* (spring), *isloh* (renovation), *nikoh* (marriage).

Consecutive consonants: 1) Even though the sounds "t" and "d" are sometimes not pronounced at the end of words such as *baland* (high), *Samarqand* (Samarkand), *poyezd* (train), *do'st* (friend), *past* (down), *artist* (artist), *g'isht* (brick), they are still written. 2) Even though only one consonant is pronounced at the end of words such as *metall* (metal), *kilogramm* (kilogram), *kongress* (congress), two letters are written. But if a suffix beginning with the same letter is added to these words one letter is dropped from the end of the word: *metall+lar= metallar* (metals), *kilogramm+mi=kilogrammi* (one kilogram of...).

The apostrophe - ' 1) An apostrophe is written after a vowel in assimilated words such as *a'lo* (excellent), *ba'zan* (sometimes), *ma'yus* (downcast), *ta'zim* (reverence), *ra'y* (wish), *ta'b* (character), *e'lon* (announcement), *e'tibor* (attention), *e'tiqod* (persuasion), *me'mor* (architect), *ne'mat* (good thing), *she'r* (poem), *fe'l* (verb), *Nu'mon* (man's name), *shu'la* (ray) to represent a lengthening of the vowel. Even though the vowel "o'" is lengthened in words such as *mo'jiza* (miracle), *mo'tadil* (average), *mo'tabar* (honorable), a second apostrophe is not written.

2) An apostrophe is written before a vowel in words such as *in'om* (gift), *san'at* (art), *qat'iy* (definitely), *mas'ul* (responsible), to represent the vowel being pronounced separately from the preceding consonant.

Summary

All sounds are fall into three major groupings they are vowels, consonants and glides. A consonant is a speech sound while pronouncing where the speech organs figure a restricted obstruction or no obstruction to the airflow.

Most consonants are articulated with greater constriction, usually creating more accoustic noise than vowels.In the English language there are 24 consonants and they are classified according to 4 principles.

I. Depending onthe form of barrier and the way of noise making.

II.Depending onthe active organs of speechand the position of barrier.

III. Depending onthe activity of the vocal cords and the power of verbalization.

IV. Depending onthe place of the soft palate.

They are usually classified by the manner of articulation, place of articulationand voicing.

Consonants may be voiced and voiceless, and oral or nasal. They are produced at various places of articulation: labial, dental, alveolar, alvelarpalatal, palatal, velar, and glottal. At the place of articulation, the airstream is modified by different manners of articulation and the resulting sounds are plosives, fricatives, median, lateral or affricates.

Until 1927, Uzbek was written with the Arabic script when it was replaced by the Cyrillic script. Finally, in 1993 the Cyrillic script was abandoned and a Latin-based alphabet of 29 letters was adopted.

Uzbek has 24 consonant phonemes. There are no consonant clusters at the beginning of words. Stops, fricatives, and affricates are devoiced in final position.

Consonants may be voiced and voiceless, and oral or nasal. They are produced at various places of articulation: labial, labiodental, alveolar, postalveolar, palatal, velar, and glottal. At the place of articulation, the airstream is modified by different manners of articulation and the resulting sounds are fricatives, tap, lateral approximant, semivowel or affricates.

Chapter 2. ANALYSIS OF CONSONANTS OF ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

2.1 SIMILARITIES OF THE CONSONANT SOUNDS IN ENGLISH AND UZBEK

Consonants are made with air stream that meets an obstruction in the mouth or nasal cavities. That is why in the production of consonant sounds there is a certain degree of noise.

Consonants are the bones of a word and give it its basic shape[12]. English accents differ mainly in vowels, the consonants are more or less the same wherever English is spoken. So if your vowels axe not perfect you may still be understood by the listener, but. If the consonants are imperfect there may be some misunderstanding.

The sentence "W-l y- -nv-t- m-t- th- p-t-?" "Will you invite me to the party?" is easy for understanding even if all the vowel letters would be left out. But if we leave all the consonant letters out ; "-i -ou i--i-e -e -o --e -a--y" it is impossible to make any sense out of it. Thus we see that there are good reasons for beginning the course of pronunciation with consonants.

First we would like to examine some similarities between English and Uzbek consonant sounds.

[b] is a lenis bilabial stop in English. It is fully voiced in positions between voiced sounds, as in labour, symbol, rub out, while in initial and final positions it is partially or completely devoiced, as in big, blow, rib, ebb. Note mute <b> in limb, thumb, comb, etc.,-and debt, subtle, doubt.

[b] is a plosive labial stop in Uzbek. It is fully voiced in positions between voicedsounds, as in bobograndfather, barobar equal, while in initial and final positions it is partially or completely devoiced, as inbir the number one. There is

[12]R. T. Oehrle (eds.), *Language sound structure: studies in phonology presented to Morris Halle by his teacher and students.*

no mute <b> in Uzbek.

Stops are bilabial [p, b], produced with both lips pressed together; forelingual, apical alveolar [t, d], produced with the tip of the tongue against the teeth ridge; backlingual, velar [k, g] produced with the back part of the tongue against the soft palate.

[p, t, k] are strong or fortis as they are pronounced with more muscular energy and a stronger breath effort than [b, d, g] which are weak or lenis.

[b, d, g] may be fully voiced in word initial position before a vowel as in bag, dog, got, gapirmoq to talk, bahor spring anddushanba Mondayor in intervocalic positions as in rubber, leader, eager. In these cases the vocal cords are drawn together and vibrate.

In word final position they are partly devoiced: [b. d, g] as in rob [rob], bed [bed], log. [p, t, k] are voiceless as the vocal cords are kept apart and do not vibrate[13].

[p, b] occur in word initial, word medial and word final positions, [p] spelt "p" as in pin, pane, capable, lip, parvoz fly, katta big,[b] spelt "b, bb" as in big, rubber, tabiiy naturally, bosh head.

[p, b] are occlusive, plosive, bilabial; [p] is strong and voiceless, [b] is weak and voiced, in final position it is to a degree devoiced.

Pronunciation;

The lips are firmly kept together

2.The soft palate is moved up and the air coming into the mouth stops for some time and then breaks the obstruction with a slight explosion.

3. The vocal cords do not vibrate when [p] is produced. For [b] they are tense kept together and vibrate when [b] occurs before vowels or in intervocalic positions, egbegin, rubber, bayon clear.

4. The breath effort is very strong for [p],for [b] it is weak.

[13]Hooper, Joan Bybee. 1976. *An Introduction to Natural Generative Phonology*.

Suggestions;

Press your lips together and push the air through the mouth breaking the obstruction made by the lips.

[tʃ] <chtch t> is a fortis, voiceless, palato-alveolar affricate in English., as in cheese, watch, nature, righteous, question.

[d] is a lenis apical stop in English. It is fully voiced between voiced sounds, as in leader, London, endways, while in initial and final positions it is partially or completely devoiced, as in do, dry, bid, rubbed. It is most often alveolar, but may be dental before a dental fricative, as in width.

[d] is a plosive alveolar stop. It is also fully voiced between voiced sounds in Uzbek like in English as in kedicat,adaisland,merhaba hello. While in initial and final positions it is partially or completely devoiced, as in od fire.

[f] is <f ffphgh> is a fortis, voiceless, labio-dental fricative, as in fork, off, physics, enough.

[f] is a fortis, voiceless, labial fricative as infaiz interest (resulting from finance),fakat but, fuzla too much, etc. It sounds same as in English.

[f, v] are constrictive fricative, labio-dental; [f] is strong and voiceless; [v] is weak and voiced, in the final position it is partly devoiced. [f, v] are labio-dental, produced with the lower lip against the edge of the upper teeth;

Pronunciation;

The low lip is very close up to the edge of the up front teeth, thus making apartialbarrier. When the air moves right through the slighting it causes slim friction.

2. For [f] the vocal cords do not vibrate; there can be some how vibration convoying [v] when it occurs in the word primarypoints as in vast or between vowels as in never, cover, over.

3. For [f] the air energy is especiallypowerful.

Suggestions;

1. Put the low lip closer to the edge of the top front teeth and make a breath through them. For [f] the friction must be powerful however, not very noisy; for [v] it must be weaker then the first one.

2. Keep the top lip out of the direction.

[k] <k c ck cc qu [kw] ch> is a fortis, voiceless, dorsal stop, as in kind, cake, clock, accord, conquer, stomach, chemist. The graphs <c cc>characterize [k] before <a o u>. [k] is aspirated when syllable-initial, as in come, incur, according, cry, quick, and non-aspirated after /s/, as in skin.

[k] is a velar, voiceless, plosive stop as inkitob book,kuylamoq singing, ko'z eye,kapalak butterfly. [k] is aspirated atthe beginning of the word as in before given examples like kapalak, kitob, kongil-soul.

[l]<l ll> is an alveolar lateral sonorant, as in let, light, yellow, fill,apple.

[l] is an alveolar lateral sonorant, as in lozim necessary, limon lemon. The pronunciation is the same as in English.

[1] occurs in all word positions, spelt "1, 11", like, glad, tall.

[1] is constrictive, lateral, forelingual, apical, alveolar.

Pronunciation;

The tip of the tongue is in firm contact with the alveolar ridge.

2. The soft palate is moved up and the air moves freely to the jaw.

3. The sides of the tongue are lowered and the air can go right through between them and the palate.

4. The vocal cords are came together and vibrate.

Suggestions;

Put the tip of the tongue versus the alveolar ridge feeling a solid contact with it.

2. Let the air move right through the mouth.

[m]<m mm> is a bilabial nasal sonorant, as in me, summer, seem,comb, autumn; note that <m> may precede mute <b n>.

[m] is a labial nasal sonorant, as in maktab school, mehmon guest, mavin soft. [m] occurs in all word positions, spelt "m, mm, mb, mn", For examplemean, summer, seam, comb, autumn

[m] is occlusive. nasal, bilabial.

Pronunciation;

The lips are definitely kept together.

2. The soft palate is downed and the air moves right through the nose.

3.The vocal cords vibrate.

Suggestions;

Press your both lips together and let the air move right through the nose.

[n]<n nn> is an alveolar nasal sonorant, as in neat, knit, gnaw,snow, dinner, gone, open; note that <n> may be preceded by mute<kg>.

[n] is an alveolar nasal sonorant, as in nazil how, namaz prayer, natice result. [n] is occlusive nasal, forelingual, apical, alveolar.

Pronunciation;

1. The tip of the tongue is pressed against the alveolar ridge.

2. The soft palate is lowered and the air escapes through the nose.3. The vocal cords vibrate.

Suggestions;

Put the tip of the tongue against the alveolar ridge and push let the air move right through the nose

[p] <p pp> is a quite strong, or fortis, voiceless bilabial stop. It is generally went by an aspiration when initial a stressed syllable,' as in pin, appear, impatient, play. Primarily in an unstressed syllable and finally aspiration is pretty weak, as in polite, upper, lip. When [s] comes before [p] originally in a syllable, there is

sensibly no aspiration, as in spin.

[p] <p pp> is a fortis, voiceless labial, plosive, relatively strong stop in Uzbek. It is usually accompanied by aspiration when initial stressed syllable,' as in parda curtain.Originally in an unstressed syllable and final aspiration is some how weak, as in pardoz make up, panjara cage.

[r]<r rr> is a post-alveolar lateral sonorant, as in red, write, tree, mirror, very.

[r]is a alveolar, flap, lateral sonorant, as in rohat peace and quiet, radetmoq to refuse, to reject, rasim picture.

[r] is constrictive, medial, forelingual, cacuminal, post-alveolar.

Pronunciation;

The tip of the tongue is held in a situation near to but not touching the back of the alveolar ridge, the front part of the tongue is lower and the back is rather high so that the tongue has a curved form (cacuminal verbalization).

2. The place of the lips is determined by that of the following vowel.

3. The soft palate is moved up and the air flows quietly between the tip of the tongue, and the palate.

4. The vocal cords vibrate.

Suggestions;

Put the tip of the tongue versus the back of the alveolar ridge lack of touching it. If you touch the alveolar ridge with the tip of the tongue there will be a rigid contact between them and the producting sound will be [1] but not [r]. Remember that [r] is a softly gliding sound with no unexpectedtransform, e.g.light — right, low — row, lock — rock.

2. Keep the lips in the location for the following vowel, foe examplereach (spread lips), root (rounded lips).

3. Let the air move right through to the mouth so that you could hear a smooth glide.

[s] <s ss c sc x [ks]> is a fortis, voiceless, alveolar fricative, as in son, passenger, mice, scene, max.

[s] is a fortis, voiceless, alveolar fricative, as in sut milk, sado echo, samo sky.

[t] <t tt d> is a fortis, voiceless, apical stop, as in touch, thesis.Tliomas; it is spelt <d> in the inflection -edafter fortis consonants other than [t], e.g. ramped, mucked. It is aspirated when initial in a stressed syllable, as in touch, attempt, maintain, tree, and nonaspirated after [s], as in strip. The place of articulation is most often alveolar but it can be dental when a dental fricative follows, as in at these. In RP and most other accents the place of articulation is postalveolar when /r/ follows, as in tree.

[t] is a fortis, voiceless, alveolar, plosive stop, as in tahmin an estimate, guess, tahminqilmoq to guess,takdim a presentation. It is aspirated when initial in a stressed syllable, as in tez fast,tom roof, taqinchoqjewellery.

[t, d] occur in word primary, word medial and word ending positions

[t]— spelt "t, tt, th, ed", for example tomb, attract, romped, took, tahmin a guess.

[d]— spelt "d, dd", for exampledoom, dude, loader, sad, kissed, odam mankind.

[t, d] are occlusive, plosive, forelingual, apical, alveolar; [t] is powerful and voiceless, [d] is weak and voiced, in final position it is somewhat devoiced.

[k, g] occur in word initial, word medial and word final positions, [k] — spelt "k; c; cc+ a, o, u; qu; ch", for examplekitchen, cord, acclivity, conquest, mechanism, kabutar bird, kitob book;[g] — spelt "g;gg; gh; gu", for examplegarden, giggle, ghost, guard, gilam carpet.

Pronunciation;

The totalbarrier is made by the help of the tip of the tongue tightly pressed versus the center of the alveolar ridge.

2. The soft palate is moved up and the air moving into the mouth is trapped for a period of time.Then it breaks the barrier with a minorblast.

3.The vocal cords do not vibrate when [t] is figured. For [d] they are drawn simultaneously and vibrate when it occurs before vowels or in intervocalic points, for example done, ladder,tadbirkor businessman.

4. The breath effort for [t] is very powerful, for [d] it is weak.

Suggestions;

1.Raise the back of the tongue to the soft palate so that you can feel a firm contact of them. Push the air from the lungs breaking the obstruction with a slight popping noise.

2.Make the sound [k] strong and aspirated, for examplecool, calm.

The Uzbek consonants [k, g] are produced in a similar way, but the breath effort for the Uzbek [κ] is not so strong as for the English [k] which is aspirated. In word final position only [k] is heard, for examplebermoq to give, while the English [g] in final positions is partially devoiced, log, monologue.

[v] <v f ph> is a lenis labio-dental fricative, as in voice, of, nephew. It is fully voiced in medial positions between voiced sounds, as in ever, nephew, silver, and partially or completely devoiced initially and finally, as in voice, leave, of.

[v] is a lenis alveolar fricative, as in vaqt time, va and.. It is fully voiced in medial positions between voiced sounds, as in tovuk hen, and partially or completely devoiced initially and finally, as in va'da promise.

[z] <s ss z zz x [gz] > is a lenis alveolar fricative, as in rose, scissors, zoo, fuzzy, exactly. It is fully voiced in word-medial positions, as m easy, thousand, husband, and partially or completely devoiced in word-initial and final situations, as in zeal, is, rose.

[z] is a lenis alveolar fricative, as in zahmat hard, difficulty, zamon age. It is completely voiced in word-medial poses, as in go'zalawesome,toza clear, and incompletely or fully devoiced in word-initial and final locations. [s, z] are constrictive fricative, forelingual, apical alveolar, [s] is powerful and voiceless, [z] is weak and voiced, in thelastsituation it is to some extent devoiced.

Pronunciation;

The tip of the tongue is close up to the teeth ridge. The narrowing is rounded, because of the groove in the blade of the tongue.

2. The teeth are very close up together.

3. The vocal cords do not vibrate when [s] is created. For [z] they vibrate when it occurs before vowels or in intervocalic situations, for examplezone, easy.

4. The friction for [s] is powerful.

Suggestions;

1. Put the tip and the blade of the tongue close to the alveolar ridge. The air should hit the tongue at the very centre of the teeth ridge. Push the air through the narrowing very quickly, so that the strong friction is heard. For [z] push it more slowly, so that the friction is weaker. Alternate strong and weak friction for [s-z].

2. Keep the teeth very close together.

2.2 DIFFERENCES OF THE CONSONANT SOUNDS IN ENGLISH AND UZBEK

Currently it is time to check up some differences between English and Uzbek consonants.[dz] or [ʤ] is a lenis palatal affricate, as in join, gentle, widget, sugar, adjective, grandeur, soldier, Norwich. It is fully voiced in central poses between voiced sounds, as in midget, urgent, agenda, major, and partially or completely devoiced in initial and final positions, as in jam, bridge, cage, range.

There are only two affricates in English: [ʧ, ʤ]. In Uzbek we have [ʧ, ʤ]. They are occlusive-constrictives because a totalbarrier to the stream of air is shaped and it is released slowly, with friction, [ʧ, ʤ] are bicentral. They have two contractions, both flat, the second focus being between the front part of the tongue and the hard palate (front secondary focus).

[ʧ, ʤ] are palato-alveolar, forelingual apical.

[ʧ] is strong (fortis), [ʤ] is weak (lenis).

[ʤ] is fully voiced in word initial position before a vowel or in intervocalic position, for exampleJackob, pigeony. In word finishing position it is partially devoiced [ʤ], for example Geography, [tf] is voiceless in all situations.

[ʧ, ʤ] are occlusive-constrictive, forelingual, apical, palato-alveolar, bicentral; [tf] is powerful and voiceless, [ʧ] is weak and voiced. In word last position it is somewhat devoiced.

Pronunciation;

The tip of the tongue gets in touch with the back piece of the teeth ridge.

2. The front part of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate forming the front secondary focus (a flat narrowing).

3. The soft palate is raised 50 that the ureatrris-trapped for a short time (because of the complete obstruction between the tongue-tip and the teeth ridge)

then the barrier is released slowly and the friction is heard.

4. The lips are a little rounded.

[g] <g gggh> is a lenis dorsal stop, as in google, juggle, ghoster, guardian; note mute <g> in gnaw, diaphragm, resigning, etc. It is fully voiced between voiced sounds, as in eager, eagle, juggling, angry, while in initial and final poses it is somewhat or totally devoiced, as in garage, log etc.

[g] is a velar plosive stop. It is always a solid 'g' as in gazeta newspaper, gapir say, gilam carpet etc. It is never soft.

[ğ] - Not exactly a consonant, it rather distinguishes properties of the vowel it follows. When following a member of the 'dark' vowels (a, o, u, ı) it lengthens the vowel, causing it to be held for two beats instead of one. This is not the same as stress, but rather like the difference between 'saw off' and 'soft': the former 'aw' sound is held for twice the time of the latter. When following a member of the 'light' vowels (e, i, u) it becomes a gliding 'i' sound. This letter does not exist in the English alphabet. For example; g'oz – goose, g'amgin – sad.

[j] is a palatal sonorant ("semivowel"), as in yetti, young, onion. It is often found in the cluster [ju:], spelt <u eweu eau ueui>, as in museum, nephew, beautiful, suitcase.

[h] <h wh> is a fortis, voiceless, glottal fricative, found only in syllable-initial poses (word-initially and word-medially), as in he, whom, head, perhaps, childhood.

[h] is constrictive fricative, glottal, voiceless. As [h] occurs only in pre-vocalic positions it is the sound of breath passing between the vocal cords and out of the mouth which is already held really for the following vowel: before [i:j the mouth is in position fur [i:], before [u:] it is ready for [u:] and so on; so there are many [h]-sounds in English because different-types of friction will be heard for it in the sequences [hi:], [ha:], [hu:] and others.

Suggestions;

In order to make [h]-sounds, hold the mouth ready for the vowel and push a short gasp of breath by the lungs; breathe the air out weakly adding some slight

fricative noise to the vowel.

[ʃ] <shchsch s ss t sc c x [ks]> is a fortis, voiceless, post-alveolar fricative, as in ship, machine, schedule, sure, assure, mansion, session, Russian, nation, conscience, special, ocean, luxury. It is spelt <s ss> before <u>, <s sssc c> before <i>, and <c> before <e>. Therefore textbooks usually distinguish <tisisci ci ce> as graphs for [s].

[ɵ, ð] are constrictive fricative, forelingual, apical, palate-alveolar, bicentral; [ɵ] is strong and voiceless, [ð] is weak and voiced, in final position it is partially devoiced.

Pronunciation;

The tip of the tongue is close to the back part of the teeth ridge forming a flat narrowing.

2. The front part of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate, forming the front secondary focus, thus palatalizing the sounds.

3. The lips are on the fence or a little rounded.

4. The vocal cords do not vibrate when [ɵ] is pronounced, for [ð] they vibrate when it arises before vowels, for examplemeasure.

Suggestions;

1.Start from [s], then put the tip of the tongue a bit backwards. Draw the breath inwards to check that the tip is in the right place. Keep this position and then raise the rest of the tongue to say the vowel [i], slightly round the lips and push the breath through strongly.

For [ɵ] the friction is strong, stronger than for [ð], but less noisy than for [s]. For [ð] the friction is weak.

[sh]or [ʃ] is a fortis, voiceless, post-alveolar fricative, as in shahar city, shovvoz naughty.

[ð] <th> is a lenis dental fricative in English. It is fully voiced in word

medial positions, as in father, breathe, together, and somewhat or entirely devoiced in word-initial and final poses, as in that, theme, north.

[θ] <th> is a fortis, voiceless, dental fricative, as in earth, theft.

Constrictive fricative consonants include four pairs [f, v; Ɵ; ∂, s, z; ʃʒ] and [h].

They are constrictive because the air passage is constricted and an incomplete obstruction is formed; they are fricative, because the air passes through the narrowing with audible friction[14]. All the fricatives except [ʃʒ] are unicentral. [ʃʒ] are bicentral, because they have two places of articulation or two foci, the second being produced by the front part of the tongue raised towards the hard palate thus forming a front secondary focus.

In the production of fricative consonants the narrowing at the place of articulation is flat. Only when [s, z] are created it is round.

[θ, ʒ] are fore-lingual, apical, interdental, articulated with the tip of the tongue projected between the upper and the lower teeth; [s, z; θ, ʒ] are forelingual, apical alveolar, generated with the tip of the tongue versus the teeth ridge; [h] is glottal, made in the glottis.

[f,Ɵ, s, ʃ h] are powerful (fortis); [v, ∂, z, ʒ] are weak (lenis).

Voicing, [v, ∂, z, ʒ] are completely voiced in word initial location before a vowel as in this, zoo,or in an intervocalic position as in father, bosom, cover.

In word last location they are some how devoiced.

[f,Ɵ, s, ʃ h] are voiceless, the vocal cords are apart and do not vibrate.

Fricative consonants are oral, the soft palate is moved up and the air goes right through the mouth.

[ž]or [ʒ] <s z g x [gž] > is a lenis post-alveolar fricative, as in luxurious, pleasure, age, vision. It is fully voiced word-medially, as in measure,casual, and can be somewhat or totally devoiced word-finally (word-initially it is found only in

[14]Hooper, Joan Bybee. 1976. *An Introduction to Natural Generative Phonology*.

a few weakly integrated French loanwords, such as jabot, gigue).

[ŋ]<ng n> is a dorsal nasal sonorant, as in thing, finger, think, pynx.

[ŋ] is occlusive, nasal, backlingual, velar.

Pronunciation;

The back part of the tongue is pushed to the soft palate.

2.The soft palate is downed and the air moves right through to the nose.

3.The vocal cords vibrate.

Suggestions;

Open the jaw widely raise the back of the tongue to the soft palate so that you can easily feel the solid contact of them. Let the air move right through the nose. The tip of the tongue is lower in the mouth. Be sure to keep in this your jaw position. At the end of the sound let it die away into silence with no suggestion of [k] or [g].

[w]<w whqu[kw] u> is a labial dorsal' sonorant, as in win, witch,quake.

[w] is constrictive, medial, bilabial, bicentral. In Uzbek instead of [w] the phoneme [v] is used.

Pronunciation;

The lips are firmly rounded and slightly protruded forming an partialbarrier.

2. The soft palate is moved up and the air moves right to the mouth.

3.The back part of the tongue is lifted towards the soft palate forming the secondary focus.

4.The sides of the tongue are lifted and the air movesalongthe medial piece of the tongue.

5.The vocal cords vibrate.

Suggestions;

1. Make your lips well rounded and even a little protruded forming a round narrowing for the air flow.

2. Let the air go right through to the mouth.

Also to continue this we can underline that the difference in the articulation and acoustics of English and Uzbek consonants phonemes may be summed up as follows:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

8. We regard the jotal combination [й] as a separate phoneme in English. It is not a chance combination, it is very often used and there is a letter in the alphabet to denote it in spelling. According to its first element it may be regarded as a consonants phoneme [c-v] may form phonological opposition with the vowel [u:]. This opposition is an example of vowel-consonant dichotomy de-due (dew), loote-lute.

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

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

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

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

Summary

It has been hypothesized that sounds which are less perceptible are more likely to be altered than more salient sounds, the rationale being that the loss of information resulting from a change in a sound which is difficult to perceive is not as great as the loss resulting from a change in a more salient sound.

There are 24 consonants in the English language. The Uzbek language has also 24 consonant phonemes. There are 13 consonants that are the same in both languages. Among them are [b], [c], [d], [f], [k], [l], [m], [n], [p], [r], [t], [v] and [z]. Consonants are speech sounds in the pronunciation of which noise is heard. The degrees of noise are different. There are consonants in the production of which only noise is heard, there are consonants in the production of which noise and voice are heard, and there are consonants in the production of which voice prevails over noise, but the fact is that noise in different degrees and forms is always present. Consonants do not give periodic voice waves.

The consonants should be classified on the following 3 principles:

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

The last division is very important, due to it the principal difference in the formation of consonants in English and of consonants in Uzbek may be clearly shown. The system of English consonants consists of 24 consonants. They are: [p, t, k, b, d, g, m, n, l, ng, v, r, s, y, sh, z, x, h, f, j, ch, c, q, g’]

Some of the English consonants like [θ] and [ð] have no counterparts in Uzbek. Many consonants have their counterparts in the languages compared, but they differ in their articulation.

Chapter 3.METHODS OF TEACHING ENGLISH PHONEMES IN UZBEK CLASSES.

3.1 HOW TO TEACH ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION TO UZBEK CLASSES USING PHONEMES.

Teach the alphabetic code knowledge[15]bysystematically and comprehensively introducing the letter/s-sound correspondences of the English alphabetic code.If possible, introduce between two and four correspondences per week at first, including vowel letters and sounds andconsonant letters and sounds. Start with mainly one spelling alternative for each of the 44+ phonemes[16]before broadening out to focus on further spelling and pronunciation variations.

Model how to put the letter/s-sound correspondences introduced[17]to immediate use with real words teaching the three core skills of:

1. Decoding (reading) – Synthesise[18]all through the printed word to 'hear', or 'discern', the target word. Modify the pronunciation of the word to sound like the 'real' word where necessary.
2. Encoding (spelling) – Orally segment[19] the spoken word from beginning to end to identify the phonemes and know which graphemes[20]are code for the identified sounds.
3. Handwriting – Learn to write the 26 lower case letter shapes, then the 26 upper case (capital) letter shapes, of the alphabet correctly. Hold the writing implement with the tripod grip.

Provide regular dictation exercises from letter level, to letter groups, to words, to sentences (as appropriate). Provide cumulative, decodable words, sentences, plain texts and reading books which match the level of alphabetic code

[15]the relationship between speech sounds and letters or letter groups
[16]the smallest identifiable sounds in English speech
[17]the alphabetic code knowledge
[18]sound out and blend
[19]split up
[20]letters and letter groups

knowledge and blending/segmenting skills taught to date, when asking the learner to read or write independently.

Emphasize letter sounds at first and not letter names. Learn letter names and alphabetical order by chanting the alphabet or singing an alphabet song. Avoid spelling with letter names when learners are in the earliest stages of learning. Teach that conveying a spelling from one person to another by letter names is a convention and that the skill for spelling is oral segmenting and knowing which spelling alternatives to select for each sound. Eventually learn spelling word banks.

Do not teach an 'initial sight vocabulary' where learners are expected to memorise many words as whole shapes (for example, through whole words on flash cards). Do not teach or encourage guessing or predicting words from their shape, or from picture cues, context cues or initial letter cues (sometimes known as 'multi-cueing strategies' or a 'range of reading strategies'). Introduce useful, common 'tricky words' slowly and systematically emphasising the blending skill once the tricky letter, or letters, have been pointed out. For example, when teaching the word 'you', say, "In this word (pointing at the printed word 'you'), note that these letters (pointing at 'ou'), are code for /oo/." ('Tricky words' are a small number of words, inwhich there are rare/unusual graphemes, or, common useful words in which not all the graphemes have yet been formally taught, which tend to be used in early reading books.) Teach systematically according to a planned and structured phonics progression – but also teach phonics incidentally as the need arises. Note: This phonics teaching approach is set within a literacy-rich environment and requires a full range of further age-appropriate communication, language and literacy activities and creative opportunities.

Synthetic phonics is generally taught at the level of the 'phoneme' (single sound) and not onset and rime (e.g. tr-ick, fl-ap) ; and not consonant clusters (e.g. bl, sp, scr, -nd, -mp, -st) and not word families (e.g. cake, make, take, flake).

The three complexities of the English Alphabetic Code:

1. One, two, three or four letters can be code for one phoneme (sound):

e.g. /s/ s as in 'sat', /f/ phas in 'graph', /igh/ ighas in 'night', /ai/ eighas in 'eight'

2. Most phonemes (sounds) can be represented by different graphemes (letters and letter groups):

e.g. the /oa/ sound can be represented by: o, oa, ow, oe, o-e, eau, ough.

3. Some graphemes can be code for more than one phoneme:

e.g. ‘ough’ can be code for: /oa/ in though, /u/ in borough, /ou/ in plough, /or/ in thought, long /oo/ in through.

Proper pronunciation is often overlooked in the language teaching field. English textbooks and instruction manuals barely touch on the subject. Yet proper pronunciation is a major part of learning the English language! The number of words with similar sounds but utterly different meanings can cause much confusion if correct pronunciation is not taught. Can pronunciation be taught at all? Yes! Just realize that textbooks may not always cover all approaches to teaching this important language skill. Wrong ways to teach pronunciation Teaching pronunciation alongside the introduction of vocabulary is a common mistake. Auditory learners and EFL students who speak a related language may be able to pick up pronunciation readily with this method, but those with a markedly different mother tongue will struggle.

Learning pronunciation by drill is another popular method, and can be effective for some - particularly when combined with the study of the inconsistent patterns of English spelling. Handicaps, however, still apply to some learners.

Can we effectively teach these students for whom traditional textbook suggestions fall short? Again, yes! There is a starting point that can benefit all students, and that is the study of phonemes.

Step one - Introducing phonemes

The phoneme is the one sound which makes the distinct difference between similar words. For example, in the 'at' family of words (cat, fat, mat, sat) the phoneme is the beginning letter (/c/, /f/, /m/, /s/). Using phonemes to teach pronunciation focuses on these distinct units of sound. The best way to begin is by having students listen for and identify these differential sounds.

Introduce phonemes in pairs for the best results, like /t/ and /d/. Have the students repeat the sound, then simple words: 'tip', 'dip', 'tuck', 'duck'. Drawn diagrams of how to hold the lips and tongue can also be helpful. Visual learners may also benefit from the symbols of the phonetic language to help differentiate between phonemes that are written the same but sound different; the 'th' in the two words 'thanks' and 'there', for example.

Step two - Practicing phonemes

Once students have grasped the concept of and can identify phonemes, they will need to practice making the sounds accurately. This is where pronunciation diagrams can be helpful. Many sounds like 'r' and soft 'g' are articulated inside the mouth and they can be frustrating for students to try and duplicate. Diagrams of the correct positioning of the mouth and tongue for these sounds can be found in many books, and blown up for larger classrooms.

By now you have probably realized that teaching pronunciation to ESL learners is going to take time. Learning a second language requires, to an extent, a reprogramming of the brain; new neural paths must be created to process the new information. It is like a baby learning to talk at an accelerated pace - new facial expressions and sounds have to be learned and applied.

Step three - Word pronunciation

When teaching on the phoneme level, we take noises and make them significant. When we work on pronunciation at the level of conversational dialogue, a new set of barriers appears. Anxiety is a common enough symptom among ESL students. Fear of failure makes them stiff and nervous, and this is often readily apparent in their demeanor. Repetitive verbal games such as Jazz Chants, handclap rhymes and other structured activities can relieve much of this pressure and allow the students to concentrate on the pronunciation and intonation Classroom rituals, like learning a short greeting to use at the beginning of each class will help boost self confidence.

Learned helplessness is a less easily spotted hindrance. This refers to our psychological tendency to 'give up' after a few failed attempts, especially if there is

negative feedback from the teacher or classmates. The solution is simple - keep it positive! Praise each advancement, no matter how small, tape the students progress so he/she can hear their improvement on a regular basis, and don't forget to award the slow learners as much recognition as the rapid ones!

Finally - a word on accents

Cultural identity is the last and perhaps the most important question to be dealt with. ESL and EFL students who are learning English merely for business often do not intend to assimilate, and will not wish to completely give up their accent as it sends a clear message about their roots and history.

The main objective here is not to attain some hypothetical standard of English pronunciation, but to merely ensure that all students can be readily understood. Any 'foreign' accent, in the end, will probably not be any more distracting than ones of native English speakers from varying parts of the world.

Games can be useful here as well, to break the ice and lessen tension about accents. Impersonations are a wonderful way to help students improve their pronunciation, and have a fun as well. Many famous personalities can be used as models and the students will have a terrific time guessing who they are. Often the students will find that their pronunciation will markedly improve as they mimic the speech patterns of their favorite actors and celebrities. They can even imitate the teacher for an added note of hilarity!

All of these ideas can be expanded on and modified to fit the needs of your particular class. Teaching pronunciation to ESL students is very necessary, but it doesn't have to be nerve-wracking. Just work on it a little during each class, and see your students' abilities grow.

3.2 TEACHING PRONUNCIATION ON THE LEVEL OF ACCURACY FOR UZBEK CLASSES: CONSONANT CLUSTERS.

From history till nowadays teaching is the major statement for all of us, because by this simple way we can give something new for our pupils, students and learners, but how to teach is the main question for even skillful teachers, because each learner has different kind of mind and getting new information, so in the following paragraph there are some interesting and useful methods how to improve accuracy of pronunciation for Uzbek learners.

Minimal pairs: (T. Bowen, and J. Marks, (1992)). This activity is very suitable to monolingual classes. It can be used to make contrasts between English and students' mother tongue. The procedure of this techniques is, first, to put up on the board a list of minimal pairs. The first column is Uzbek sounds, the second one is English ones with similar pronunciations. The teacher will read out the list, but just choose only one word from one pair either in English or in Uzbek, and ask students to identify which choice the teacher has made in each case by shouting out the language "Uzbek" or " English". You can also use this technique to contrast two similar sounds in a English. Minimal pairs are pairs of words that have one phonemic change between them. For example: "let" and "lit", "leave" and "live" are minimal pairs. Using these pairs to help students recognize the minor differences between English muted vowel sounds can greatly help not only pronunciation skills, but also comprehension. To do this, teacher introduces the idea of "minimal pairs" by writing a list on the board of a number of minimal pairs. Teacher reads one word in a minimal pair, then asks students to recognize the word by saying "first" or "second". For example: if the aim is to teach the two sounds /p/ and /b/, the minimal pairs can be:

/p/	vs.	/b/
pan		ban
pay		bay
pet		bet

park bark

If the aim is to teach the two contrast sounds “f” and “v”, the words included in the minimal pairs can be:

/f/	/v/
fan	van
fine	vine
file	vile
fat	vat
fast	vast

Then teacher reads out one word in a minimal pair, asking students to recognize the word. With this technique, teachers can have students practice sounds that can cause confusion because of similar pronunciation. This can be used to contrast two similar sounds of which both are in English or to contrast the two similar sounds of which one is English, the other is Uzbek. In the second case, to contrast a Uzbek sound and an English sound that have nearly similar pronunciation, we call the technique “bilingual minimal pairs”.

Missing words: (A. Doff, (1988)). Another very simple way to teach consonants is using missing words. Using this techniques, the teacher says some short and simple sentences in which there is one missing word, then the teacher can ask students to say a word to fill in each gap. For example, if we want to teach the sound “g”, we can have our students fill the gaps such as :

A boy and a ….(girl)

This is a …… of wine (glass)

They give each other ……. at Christmas (gifts)

The antonym of “bad” is…… (good)

The Brazil won a …… medal for winning in the final. (golden)

Let’s take another example so that missing word technique can be demonstrate more clearly. In this place, the consonant to be presented is /s/.

Applying this technique, we can have our students fill the gaps such as:
Celine Dion is a very famous……. (singer).
Come in and …… down. (sit).
…… is the hottest season in a year (summer).
There are four ……in a year.(seasons)
From the examples above, we can see that "Missing words" is a technique that we can use for students to practice individual sounds. However, this can involve improving students fluency when teacher asks students to speak out the whole sentences.

Making sentences (A. Doff, (1988)).
With this technique, the teacher can help his students to practice either one consonant or two similar consonants that the students may get confused. Firstly, the teacher provides them with two groups of words that consist the sounds need practicing and gets the students to work in pairs. For example, if the consonants need practicing are /s/ and /ʃ/, the teachers should present two lists of words of opposite sounds on the board like this:

Group 1:	Group 2:
see	she
sake	shake
sin	shin
sign	shine
sell	shell

He can ask students to make some sentences with words of two groups. In order to make them know what to do, the teacher can make some examples first. Then the teacher can ask one student from a group to read out their sentences, the teacher may correct immediately if the student makes a serious mistake in pronouncing sounds, stress or intonation.

Sounds bingo: (T. Bowen, and J. Marks, (1992)).

This technique is suggested to help the beginner level students to recognize sounds with spelling. First of all, the teacher provides learners with a copy of Sounds Bingo worksheet and tells them that he is going to randomly pronounce sounds from the phonemic chart (e.g. number 1 /e/; number 2 /m/). If the students hear a sound which is on the card, they should write the corresponding number next to the sound. The winner is the first one to number correctly all the sounds in their card.

Sounds discrimination exercise: (T. Bowen, and J. Marks, (1992)). This activity can help to sentence learners to minimal differences between individual phonemes and enable them to recognize them in context. To do this, the teacher firstly gives each learner a copy of the worksheet and tells them that he is going to read contrasting sounds or words aloud to the class and that they must decide which sound is being uttered each time and indicate this by ticking the appropriate column next to the number. To some extend, this technique has some similarities with the minimal pair technique.

Information gap activities:(P. Avery and S.Erhlich (1992)). One of the easiest techniques for practicing consonants in a communicative way is to use information gap activities. For example, if the students are confused with two sounds /b/ and /v/, we can use the following activity to help them overcome this. Choose a topic such as food and have students brainstorm and think of as many related words as possible which contain the sound /b/ and /v/. It is best for students to work in groups so that they have more opportunity to generate these words in a communicative fashion. If students are beginners, it is good for teachers to provide them with pictures or clues. Students might come up with “berry”, “veal”, “liver”, “vegetables”, “vitamins”, etc. Teachers can also ask students to generate examples of names containing these two sounds. When enough words have been generated, the teacher can number the names and foods on slips of paper and hand out even- numbered foods and odd- numbered names

to one group and odd- numbered foods and even- numbered names to another group. Teachers can also hand out blank grids and have students work in pairs or in groups questioning each other about "who bought what at the store". Once the grids are filled out, the result of the activities can be presented to the class. By doing so, the students gain further communicative practice with these sounds. Role-play which incorporates some of the food words and names identified above can be used as a follow up to this activities. Variations on these activities can be carried out with many pronunciation contrast around a variety of themes.

Matching exercises: :(P. Avery and S. Erhlich (1992)). Another way in teaching English consonants is by giving students matching exercises. The teacher can divide the class into two groups, group A has a written description of several people, group B has a picture containing all of the people of which there are descriptions. The object of this activity is to match the written description with the appropriate people. For example, if we want our students to practice the two sounds /b/ and /p/, we have some pictures with suggested names: Becky and Peter. Students might describe the pictures as followings:
Becky is carrying a big bag
Becky's shoes are black
Peter is playing football
Peter is playing near a park.
In attempting to match the descriptor with the appropriate person, the students gain practice producing the relevant sounds. A variation on this activity has these descriptors generated by the students themselves. Creating such descriptors, especially in groups, provide additional communicative practice of the consonants.

Chain stories:(P. Avery and S. Erhlich (1992)). Each student receives a phrase containing the sound contrast being practiced. The first student must embed that phrase in a short story of no longer than four

sentences. The task of the other students is to guess the embaded phrase based on the correct pronunciation of the relevant sound or sound contrast. The next student continues the story using the phrase that he has received.

Fluency-square activities: (P. Avery and S. Erhlich (1992)). A less communicative technique, requiring less preparation for teachers is fluency- square. There are four illustrated squares used to contrast at least two sounds. A larger square is divided into four squares with each of the smaller squares depicting an activity differing from a contrasting square in terms of one variable.

For example:

Square	1:	Cassie	took	a	bus	this	morning.
Square	2:	Cassie	took	a	bath	this	morning
Square	3:	Cathy	took	a	bus	this	morning.
Square	4:	Cathy	took	a	bath	this	morning.

Squares 1 and 4 differ in the contrast between /s/ and / θ/ in “Cassie” and “Cathy”. Squares 1 and 2 and squares 3 and 4 differ in the contrast between /s/ and /θ/ in “ bath” and “bus”, etc. Students must describe the activities in each square so that another student is able to identify the correct square. For students to be able to gain the correct information about the activities, they have to be able to both hear and produce the differences between these consonant contrasts.

Summary

A teacher who is aware of interference of native language has a possibility to prevent mistakes, to work out effective system of preventive exercises, which can foresee the mistakes, when the sounds coincide a teacher can use the skills of positive transference of norm of native language. It is possible to notice the differences and peculiarities of consonant sounds and the way of their transference into the Uzbek language.

Teach the alphabetic code knowledge (the relationship between speech sounds and letters or letter groups) bysystematically and comprehensively introducing the letter/s-sound correspondences of the English alphabetic code.If possible, introduce between two and four correspondences per week at first, including vowel letters and sounds and
consonant letters and sounds. Start with mainly one spelling alternative for each of the 44+ phonemes (the smallest identifiable sounds in English speech) before broadening out to focus on further spelling and pronunciation variations.

Model how to put the letter/s-sound correspondences introduced (the alphabetic code knowledge) to immediate use with real words teaching the three core skills which we underlined above. Teaching pronunciation alongside the introduction of vocabulary is a common mistake. Auditory learners and EFL students who speak a related language may be able to pick up pronunciation readily with this method, but those with a markedly different mother tongue will struggle.

Games can be useful here as well, to break the ice and lessen tension about accents. Impersonations are a wonderful way to help students improve their pronunciation, and have a fun as well. Many famous personalities can be used as models and the students will have a terrific time guessing who they are. Often the students will find that their pronunciation will markedly improve as they mimic the speech patterns of their favorite actors and celebrities. They can even imitate the teacher for an added note of hilarity.

Conclusion

Having analyzed the consonant sounds and having found some similarities and differences between consonant sounds of English and Uzbek language we can come to the following conclusions:

Consonants may be voiced and voiceless, and oral or nasal. They are produced at various places of articulation: labial, dental, alveolar, alvelarpalatal, palatal, velar, and glottal. At the place of articulation, the airstream is modified by different manners of articulation and the resulting sounds are plosives, fricatives, median, lateral or affricates.

The last division is very important, due to it the principal difference in the formation of consonants in English and of consonants in Uzbek may be clearly shown. The system of English consonants consists of 24 consonants. They are: [p, t, k, b, d, g, m, n, l, ng, v, r, s, y, sh, z, x, h, f, j, ch, c, q, g']

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

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

We regard the jotal combination [й] as a separate phoneme in English. It is not a chance combination, it is very often used and there is a letter in the alphabet to denote it in spelling. According to its first element it may be regarded as a consonants phoneme [c-v] may form phonological opposition with the vowel [u:]. This opposition is an example of vowel-consonant dichotomy de-due (dew), loote-lute.

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

The interdental articulation is unknown in Uzbek. They are extremely difficult for the Uzbek to master.

Some of the English consonants like [θ] and [ð] have no counterparts in Uzbek. Many consonants have their counterparts in the languages compared, but they differ in their articulation.

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Games can be useful here as well, to break the ice and lessen tension about accents. Impersonations are a wonderful way to help students improve their pronunciation, and have a fun as well. Many famous personalities can be used as models and the students will have a terrific time guessing who they are. Often the students will find that their pronunciation will markedly improve as they mimic the speech patterns of their favorite actors and celebrities. They can even imitate the teacher for an added note of hilarity.

All of these ideas can be expanded on and modified to fit the needs of your particular class. Teaching pronunciation to ESL students is very necessary, but it doesn't have to be nerve-wracking. Just work on it a little during each class, and see your students' abilities grow.

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References

According to the Degree of Noise	
Class A. Noise Consonants	Class B. Sonorants
Vary: 1. In the manner of articulation. 2. In the place of articulation.	Vary: 1. In the manner of articulation. 2. In the place of articulation.

Ciass A. Noise consonants		
	b, d. g, v, d. z,	p, t, k, f, Э, sj.1f.li
According to the work of the	voiced	voiceless
According to the force of	weak (lenis)	strong (fortis

Active org./ place of obstruction	Forelingual	Mediolingual	Backlingual
Dental/Interdental	d, t		
Alveolar	t, d, n, l, s, z		
Alveolar-palatal	c, g, s, z		
Post-alveolar	r		
Palatal		j	
Velar			k, g, n

The Classification of English Consonants According to the Place ofArticulation

Labial		Lingual						Glottal
Bilabial	Labio dental	Forelingual				Medio-lingual palatal	Back-lingual velar	
		interdental	alveolar	post-alveolar	palato-alveolar			
P.b m w	f,v	e sz n	t,d	r		ʒ θ	k,g	h l

Noise Consonants			Sonorants	
Occlusive stops (plosives)	Constrictive fricatives	Occlusive-constrictive „(affricates)	Occlusive	Constrictive
p,b t, d k,g	f, v s, r h	ʧ, ʤ	m n 0	w 1 r j

Consonant phonemes of Standard English

	Bilabial	Labiodental	Interdental	Dental	Alveolar	Alveopalatal	Palatal	Velar Uvular	Pharyngeal	Glottal
Plosive	p, b			t, d				k, g		
Nasal	m			n						
Trill										
Flap					r					
Fricative		f, v	θ, ∂		s, z	ʃ				h
Approximant							j			
LateralApproximant										
Affricate						ʤ				

Consonant phonemes of Standard Uzbek

	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Postalveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosives	p b		t d			c j	k g	
Nasals	m		n					
Fricatives		f v	s z		ʃ ʒ		ɣ	h
Affricates				ʧ ʤ				
Tap				r				
Approximant						j		
Lateralapproximants			l		l			

Bb same as in English

Dd same as in English.
Ff same as in English
Gg as "g" in "God". Ğğ is silent, but makes the vowels before it long when it appears at the end of a word or before a consonant. Between vowels it is either silent or is pronounced (y)
Hh as in “Hello”
Jj as in “garage”
Kk same as in English.
Ll like “l” in “life”.
Mm same as in English
Nn same as in English
Pp same as in English
Rr same as in English
Ss same as in English, Shas in"shower"

Tt same as in English.
Vv just like English.
Zz just like English.
W, don’t exist in the Uzbek alphabet