ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС ТАЪЛИМ ВАЗИРЛИГИ

ЎЗБЕКИСТОН ДАВЛАТ ЖАҲОН ТИЛЛАРИ УНИВЕРСИТЕТИ

ИНГЛИЗ ТИЛИ 2-ФАКУЛЬТЕТИ

ИНГЛИЗ ТИЛИ ЛЕКСИКОЛОГИЯСИ КАФЕДРАСИ

Киёсий типология фанидан МАЪРУЗАЛАР ТЎПЛАМИ

ТОШКЕНТ – 2017

Фаннинг ўқув дастури Олий ва ўрта махсус, касб-ҳунар таълими ўқув-услубий бирлашмалари фаолиятини Мувофиқлаштирувчи Кенгашнинг 2008 йил "__ " _____даги "___ " – сонли мажлис баёни билан маъқулланган.

Фаннинг ўқув дастури Ўзбекистон давлат жаҳон тиллари университетида ишлаб чиқилди.

Тузувчилар:

Саидова М.С. – ЎзДЖТУ инглиз тили лексикологияси кафедраси доценти, ф.ф.н.

Мухамедова Н.А. –ЎзДЖТУ инглиз тили лексикологияси кафедраси катта ўқитувчиси

Мавлянова Н.А – ЎзДЖТУ инглиз тили лексикологияси кафедраси укитувчиси.

Тақризчилар:

Кўлдошев А.Н. – ЎзДЖТУ, инглиз тили грамматикаси ва тил тарихи кафедраси мудири, ф.ф.н., доцент

Сиддиқова И.А. – М.Улуғбек номидаги Ўзбекистон Миллий университети доценти, ф.ф.н.

Фаннинг ўқув дастури Ўзбекистон давлат жаҳон тиллари университетининг Илмий кенгашида кўриб чиқилган ва тавсия қилинган. 2008 йил _____ даги "___ "- сонли баённома

Foreword

Linguistic Typology as a part of General Linguistics has been know since early XX century. The literature on that science is enormous. Still in our days Typology has become a focus of interest to a very limited circle of scholars and experts.

Linguistic typology is a field of study aiming to identify such similarities and distinctive features of languages that do not depend on their genetic origin or influence of languages to one another. Typology strives to identify and look at the most significant features that affect other spheres of language systems, e.g. the way of junction of meaningful parts of the word or the so-called structure of the sentence in the language. Linguistic Typology bases on the materials of representative selection from many world languages, so that the findings and conclusions made on the results of such analysis could be applied to the entire majority of languages (in cases of linguistic universals)

CONTENT

Syllabus

LECTURE #1

(2 hours)

I. **Linguistic typology as a subject:**

Questions to cover:

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

Keywords: Taxonomy, substantial, non- substantial, isomorphic features, allomorphic features.

The Linguistic typology.

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

Basic types of scientific comparison: a) substantial, and b) non-substantial.

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

Branches of General typology: strategies, objectives and principles of identifying isomorphic and allomorphic features of substances, phenomena, facts, etc.

Non- linguistic typology. As a method it is used in law, math, history, botany, economy, psychology, etc. General and solitary differences and similarities are typical to all sciences. Some branches isolate systemic comparison into an

independent sub-branch within the frames of a more general science; differences and similarities of the two sciences – Linguistic typology and Literary criticism;

The subject-matter of Linguistic Typology.Linguistic typology as a branch of general linguistics; No unanimity in defining the subject matter; broad and narrow understandings of its subject matter. Variety of terms: areal linguistics, structural linguistics, characterology, language universals, translational grammar, comparative philology, contrastive linguistics, confrontational linguistics; differentiating the terms "comparison " and "confrontation"; comparative method implied comparison of cognate /related languages, confrontational method was derived to denote comparison of genetically non-related languages.

Roman Jacobson "Genetic method deals with relationship of languages, areal method deals with similarities while typological method deals with isomorphism "[1]. Isomorphism can unite various statuses of languages, both synchronically and diachronically or statuses of 2 different languages, areally close or distant; genetically related and non-related .

Quantitative limitation of the number of compared languages;

Linguistic diversity: As of early 2007, there are 6,912 known living human languages[2].

Taxonomy /Principles of classification of world languages.

Selected literature and useful sites

1. Абдуазизов А.А., Бушуй А.М., Бушуй Т.А., Салиева М.А., Сиддикова И.А. История лингвистической типологии,, Ташкент 2006

---

[1]   Якобсон Р.Типологические исследования и их вклад в сравнительно-историческое языкознание .- В сб. «Новое в лингвистике», М., 1963, вып II, с. 97

[2]   http://www.ethnologue.com/ "Ethnologue: Languages of the World, Fifteenth edition"] , accessed 28 June 2007, ISBN 1 55671 159 X.

2. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков Л., 1979

3. Буранов Дж. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков., М., 1983

4. Гак В.Г. Сравнительная типология французского и русского языков М., 1977

5. Успенский Б.А. Структурная типология языков М., 1965

6. Ярцева В.Н. Принципы типологического исследования родственных и неродственных языков М., 1967

7. Bazell C.E. Linguistic typology., L.1958

8. Fromkin Victoria & Rodman Robert, Introduction to Language 1988, http://www.amazon.com/Introduction-Language-Victoria-Fromkin/dp/015508481X

9. Lord R. Comparative Linguistics L., 1975

10. Robins R.H. General Linguistics L., 1975

11. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_family

12. http://www.libraries.psu.edu/mtss/fairuse/guidelines.html

13. http://4teachers.org/profd/assessment.shtm/#tracks

LECTURE #2

(2hours)

The History of Linguistic comparison

1. *The History of Linguistic comparison.*

2. *The Major factors fostering development of Linguistic typology.*

Questions to cover:

A. The major periods of development described in "The Essays on the History of Linguistics" by Amirova T.A., Rojdestvenskiy Yu.V., Olkhovikov B.A.

B. The differences /similarities between periodization of history of linguistics in

"The Essays on the History of Linguistics Amirova T.A., Rojdestvenskiy Yu.V., Olkhovikov B.A" and Dr. J. Buranov

   C. The major factors fostering development of Linguistic typology

   Keywords: Antique Grammar, Antique philosophy, Universal Grammar.

   1. The history of linguistic comparison

Absence of generally accepted criteria for timing the history of development of linguistics.

"The Essays on the History of Linguistics" by *Amirova T.A., Rojdestvenskiy Yu.V., Olkhovikov B.*A.[3] defined six periods for the history of development of linguistics. As all of them imply systemic comparison, this classification can be to a large extent applied to linguistic typology.

I.Theory of naming in Antique philosophy; II.The Antique Grammar traditions of West and East. III.The Universal Grammar (the first period of scientific linguistics); IV. Comparative linguistics. a) Comparative –Historical linguistics; b) Comparative Typological linguistics; c) theory of linguistics which forms philosophy of language and serves the basis of General linguistics; V. System linguistics: psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics; VI. Structural linguistics.

Dr. Buranov J[4]. identifies 4 periods in the history of typological studies:

1) Spontaneous or evolutionary.

2) The second period , the first scientific comparison of languages , General and Rational Grammar: Port- Royal Grammar by Arnauld A., Lancelot C[5]., (XVII c.); Divani-Lugat At-Turk by Mahmud Kashgariy[6]; 3) The Comparative Historical linguistics; 4) Establishing of Linguistic typology as a separate science.

2. **Major factors fostering development of Linguistic typology.**

---

[5]   Arnauld A., Lancelot C. General and Rational Grammar: Port-Royal Grammar. Mouton, The Hague, Paris, 1975

[6]   Кашгарий.М. Туркий сузлар девони 1-3.,Тошкент 1960, 1961, 1963, 1967

I. Typological imitation: the use of certain methods or models of one language while describing the system of another language. the first Latin grammar "De Lingua Latina" (117-27 BC) by Varron[7]. II. Appearance of scientific comparative works. Language comparison started with comparison of two languages. III. Development of comparative language studies of unknown languages or the ones with no letter, e.g. folks and tribes of Latin America, Asia, Africa, Australia, Oceania. IV.The influence of the translation and translation science.: a translator needs to deal with comparison of the style, grammatical structure, etc.. V. Influence of lexicography: appearance of dictionaries was bound with applied need to transform and comparison of languages and national cultures. VI. Practical and theoretical study and teaching of foreign languages.

Selected literature and useful sites

1. Абдуазизов А.А., Бушуй А.М., Бушуй Т.А., Салиева М.А., Сиддикова И.А. История лингвистической типологии,, Ташкент 2006

2. Амирова Т.А., Рожденственский, Ольховиков Б.А.   Очерки по истории лингвистики   М., 1975

3. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков Л., 1979

4. Буранов Дж. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков., М., 1983

5. Гак В.Г. Сравнительная типология французского и русского языков М., 1977

---

[7] Иванов В.В, Топоров В.Н. Санскрит. М., 1960, с. 125-127

LECTURE #3

(2 hours)

Major parameters identifying the branches of linguistic typology.

Questions to cover

I.   System/Structural identity

II.   Genetic identity

III.   Quantitative limitation/non-limitation

IV.   Areal limitation

V.   Etic/emic identity

VI.   Deep and Surface identity

VII.   One level approach to comparison

VIII. Cross-level approach to comparison

IX.   Content approach

X.   Formal approach

XI.   Limitation of etalon language

XII.   Completion of typological operations.

Keywords: *System/Structural identity,* Genetic identity, Quantitative limitation/non-limitation, Areal limitation, Etic/emic identity, Deep and Surface identity, One level approach to comparison, Cross-level approach to comparison.

I. *System/Structural identity* - identity of language types; structural/typological classification of languages: agglutinating, flexional, isolative and polysynthetic languages.

II. *The Genetic identity* - historically conditioned material identity of cross language elements.

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

IV. *Areal limitation/non-limitation* - expansion of a certain linguistic phenomenon which is geographically conditioned

V. *Etic / emic identity*. Etic identity - coincidence of material units of languages; emic identity – nearness of more abstract language units;

VI. *Deep and surface identity*.

Surface structure - all material units of a language.

Deep structure - a generalized language meaning lying in the basis of compared languages.

VII. *One level approach to comparison or level isolation* is effective when comparing closely related languages.

VIII. *Cross level approach* - used to identify cross level correspondences.

IX. *Content approach to comparison* - comparing languages on the base of content plan units;

X. *Formal approach to comparison-* comparison of language units of the expression plan: graphics, transcription, formal structure of syllabus, sentence, punctuation, alphabet, etc

XI. *Limitation of etalon language:a)* the object of study for typological theory: b) tool for comparing languages.

XII. *Completion of typological operations:* 2 stages: a) synthesis; b) correspondence.

Selected literature and useful sites

1. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков Л., 1979

2. Буранов Дж. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков., М., 1983

3. Гак В.Г. Сравнительная типология французского и русского языков М., 1977

4. Lord R. Comparative Linguistics L., 1975

5. Robins R.H. General Linguistics L., 1975

6. Боровков А.К. Агглютинация в тюркских языках. –Морфологическая типология и проблема классификации языков. М.,-Л., 1965

7. Поливанов Е.Д. Русская грамматика в сопоставлении с узбекским языком., Ташкент, 1934

8. Ярцева В.Н. Принципы типологического исследования родственных и неродственных языков М., 1967

9. Abduazizov A.A. English Phonetics. A theoretical course. Tashkent, 2002

10. Bazell C.E. Linguistic typology., L.1958

11. Fromkin Victoria & Rodman Robert, Introduction to Language 1988, http://www.amazon.com/Introduction-Language-Victoria-Fromkin/dp/015508481X

12. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_family

13. http://www.orexca.com/uzbek_language.shtm

14. http://www.libraries.psu.edu/mtss/fairuse/guidelines.html

15. http://4teachers.org/profd/assessment.shtm/#tracks

LECTURE #4

(4 hours)

Questions to cover:

1. Genetic/Genealogical Typology:

a. *Genetic diachronic*

b. *Genetic synchronic*

c. *distinctive features of Genetic Typology*

Keywords: genetic limitation of compared languages; system identity in closely related languages; closed list of compared languages; areal non-limitation; etic/emic identity of compared languages, deep and surface identity of compared languages; one level approach to comparison; limited etalon language; possibility of a complete typological operation.

Main content:

The Genetic/Genealogical typology: a branch of linguistic typology which studies the similarities and diversities of related languages; relation with Comparative – Historical linguistics; importance of Sanskritdiscovery; the concept of relative languages; *diachronic and synchronic approach to comparison of languages;* distinctive features:

  a) genetic limitation of compared languages;

  b) system identity in closely related languages;

  c) closed list of compared languages;

  d) areal non-limitation;

  e) etic/emic identity of compared languages;

  f) deep and surface identity of compared languages;

  g) one level approach to comparison;

  h) limited etalon language;

i) possibility of a complete typological operation.

The Genealogical classification of languages[8]: *the world's languages were grouped into families of languages that are believed to have common ancestors. Some of the major families: the Indo-European languages, the Afro-Asiatic languages, the Austronesian languages, and the Sino-Tibetan languages; 'Satem' and 'Centum' languages.*

The Areal Typology: the independent branches of linguistic typology, which compares language systems and studies the degree of expansion and proximity of language properties which are geographically conditioned.Objects of study: borrowings, bilingual features, dialects, centum/satem languages, compiling dialectal maps, substratum and super-stratum languages, neologisms, archaisms, hybrid languages, language contacts, etc.

The major parameters:

- Indifference to structural/system identity;

- Indifference to genetic identity;

- Areal limitation of compared languages;

- Possibility of etic-emic identity;

- Formal approach to comparison;

- Limited etalon language;

- Possibility of deep and surface identity;

- One level approach; etic/emic identity

- Possibility of complete typological operations

The Areal classification of languages.

Selected literature and useful sites

1. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков Л., 1979

---

[8]   http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_family

2. Буранов Дж. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков., М., 1983

3. Гак В.Г. Сравнительная типология французского и русского языков М., 1977

4. Lord R. Comparative Linguistics L., 1975

5. Robins R.H. General Linguistics L., 1975

6. Боровков А.К. Агглютинация в тюркских языках. –Морфологическая типология и проблема классификации языков. М.,-Л., 1965

7. Ярцева В.Н. Принципы типологического исследования родственных и неродственных языков   М., 1967

8. Bazell C.E. Linguistic typology., L.1958

9. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_family

10. http://4teachers.org/profd/assessment.shtm/#tracks

LECTURE #5

(2 hours)

Structural typology and its parts:

- *Linguistic Universals;*

- *Etalon Language;*

- *Typological Classification;*

- *Typological theory*

- *Typological classification of E.Sapir.*

 The content of the lecture:

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

Keywords: *Linguistic Universals; Etalon Language; Typological Classification; Typological theory*

Major parameters:

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

I. *Linguistic Universals:* a certain feature specific to all languages of the world or the language per se."Various principles of classifying linguistic universals:

absolute or full/relative, partial, phonetic, morphological, lexical and syntactic universals: deductive and inductive; synchronic and diachronic; universals of speech and universals of language.

II. *Etalon language:* an object language for Linguistic typology and it is also a means or *system of tools to compare languages: e.g.* any natural language (usually one's native tongue);a linguistic category,a postulate of General Linguistics(polysemy, semantic field, etc).

III.*Typological classification:* classification of languages according to their structural features or types IN language instead of the genealogical origin.

A. Isolating; B. Flexional (Fusional); C.Agglutinative: D.Incorporating or polysynthetic languages.

IV.*Typological theory* defines common linguistic notions used in linguistic typology.

Selected literature and useful sites

1. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков Л., 1979

2. Буранов Дж. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков., М., 1983

3. Гак В.Г. Сравнительная типология французского и русского языков М., 1977

4. Lord R. Comparative Linguistics L., 1975

5. Robins R.H. General Linguistics L., 1975

6. Боровков А.К. Агглютинация в тюркских языках. –Морфологическая типология и проблема классификации языков. М.,-Л., 1965

7. Гринберг Дж., Осгуд И., Дженкинс Дж. Меморандум о языковых универсалиях В сб. – Новое в лингвистике., М., 1970, вып. V

8. Рождественский Ю.В. Типология слова М., 2007

9. Успенский Б.А. Структурная типология языков М., 1965

10. Ярцева В.Н. Принципы типологического исследования родственных и неродственных языков М., 1967

11. Bazell C.E. Linguistic typology., L.1958

12. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_family

13. http://4teachers.org/profd/assessment.shtm/#tracks

LECTURE #6

(2 hours)

Comparative Typology and its major distinctive features.

Questions to cover:

- Comparative typology and its disctinctive features.

- Differences between the Structural and Comparative typology

- Linguistic typology and other brances of Linguistics;

  Content of the topic:

Comparative typology: an independent branch of general linguistic typology dealing with comparison of a limited number languages irrespectively of their genetic or structural identity.

Comparative typology cannot reveal linguistic universals; it operates with cross-level units of the languages; the principle of binarity; the tool of Comparative typology is the *Typological Category.*

Keywords: Comparative typology, Structural and Comparative typology, Linguistic typology.

Distinctive features:

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

Comparative typology and Lexicography.

Selected literature and useful sites

1. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков Л., 1979
2. Буранов Дж. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков., М., 1983
3. Гак В.Г. Сравнительная типология французского и русского языков М., 1977
4. Lord R. Comparative Linguistics L., 1975
5. Robins R.H. General Linguistics L., 1975
6. Боровков А.К. Агглютинация в тюркских языках. –Морфологическая типология и проблема классификации языков. М.,-Л., 1965
7. Гринберг Дж., Осгуд И., Дженкинс Дж. Меморандум о языковых универсалиях В сб. – Новое в лингвистике., М., 1970, вып. V
8. Рождественский Ю.В. Типология слова М., 2007
9. Успенский Б.А. Структурная типология языков М., 1965
10. Ярцева В.Н. Принципы типологического исследования родственных и неродственных языков М., 1967
11. Bazell C.E. Linguistic typology., L.1958
12. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_family
13. http://4teachers.org/profd/assessment.shtm/#tracks

LECTURE #7

(2 hours)

Comparative Typology of sentences in Modern English

- Notions of sentences and sentenceme (utterance, propozim(monotaxim, polytaxim), disoursime, binome, polinome) etc.

- Comparative typology of sentence types:

a) Simple sentence types;

b) Composite sentence types (compound, complex, semicomplex, semicompound);

- Similarities and dissimilarities of sentence types in the language comparing. Factors causing similarities and dissimilarities.

Keywwords: Formal typology, Semantic typology, Phonetic/Phonological typology; Morphological typology; Lexical typology;

Content of the topics:

The Formal typology: deals with units of expression plan;the goal - formal universals; the tasks: external or formal features of the language, common principles of script, e.g. graphic systems, alphabets, system of transcription signs, punctuation, formal structures of the syllable, composite words, word combinations, etc.

The Semantic typology: the branch of linguistic typology studying semantic structure of the language and related to the units of content plan. The goal - semantic universals related to the deep structure of the language; issues: different semantic fields, grouping words on the basis of semantic signs, criteria to define semantic categories; Semantic typology and Lexical typology.

The branches of linguistic typology as to the levels of linguistic hierarchy.

The Phonological typology: comparison of units of the phonologic level of language; tasks- allocation of phonologic differential signs, defining their universality, study of phonologic structure of languages, classification of languages on the basis of their phonologic features (e.g. tonic and atonic languages), defining phonemic structure of world languages, etc.major achievements.

The Morphological typology: compares the units of a morphological level; subtypes:

1) the morphological classification of languages;

2) particular questions of grammar: grammatical categories in various

languages, ways of their expression, morphological markers, synonymous relations of affixation morphemes and syntactic words (prepositions and postpositions), comparison of primary grammatical categories, etc.).

The Syntactic typology: comparison of syntactic level units - word-combination and the sentence. Syntactic typology and transformational syntax; major tasks: syntactic universals, study of syntax of world languages , types of syntactic links (attributive, predicative, etc.), definition of sentence types, basic syntactic categories, etc.

Selected literature and useful sites

1. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков Л., 1979

2. Буранов Дж. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков., М., 1983

3. Гак В.Г. Сравнительная типология французского и русского языков М., 1977

4. Lord R. Comparative Linguistics L., 1975

5. Robins R.H. General Linguistics L., 1975

6. Боровков А.К. Агглютинация в тюркских языках. –Морфологическая типология и проблема классификации языков. М.,-Л., 1965

7. Гринберг Дж., Осгуд И., Дженкинс Дж. Меморандум о языковых универсалиях В сб. – Новое в лингвистике., М., 1970, вып. V

8. Рождественский Ю.В. Типология слова М., 2007

9. Успенский Б.А. Структурная типология языков М., 1965

10. Ярцева В.Н. Принципы типологического исследования родственных и неродственных языков   М., 1967

11.Bazell C.E. Linguistic typology., L.1958

12.http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_family

13.http://4teachers.org/profd/assessment.shtm/#tracks

LECTURE #8
(2 hours)
Major Parameters of the Typological category

Questions to cover:

1. ***The Major Parameters of the Typological Category***

- *The cross-language character ;*

- *The cross-level character;*

- *The cross-class character;*

- *Cross-level synonymy and cross language correspondence*

Keywords: *The grammatical category; The Notional category, The Functional semantic category, Lexical-Grammatical Fields, The cross-language character ; The cross-level character; The cross-class character; Cross-level synonymy and cross language correspondence, The Lexical-Grammatical Fields*

Content of the topics:

The Grammatical category: is reflected in a morphological paradigm; the unity of the grammatical form and grammatical meaning. The members of one category are mutually exclusive; *Grammatical categories of the English language:* Aspect, Case, Degrees of Comparison, Mood, Number, Person, Tense, Voice.

The Notional categories: rely on certain logical backgrounds; connected with the names of Otto Jespersen and I.I.Meshchaninov; «not dependent on more or less casual facts of existing languages. These categories are universal as they apply to all

languages, though they are seldom expressed in these languages in a clear and unambiguous way...»[9]

O. Jespersen: three stages of the grammatical analysis: a) the form, b) the function and c) the notion; Relations between the notional and grammatical categories;further development of notional categories by academician A.V.Bondarko.

The Functional-Semantic category: is connected with cross-level description of the system of a certain language: has the content and the expression plans. The semantic content is identified with the meaning of morphological categories (such, as the verbal aspect, tense, person, and mood). «The expression plan is formed by language means related to different levels of language hierarchy and aspects of language: morphological, syntactic, word-formation, lexical, various combinations of means in the context» [10]

Functional –semantic categories of A.V. Bondarko are based on the *morphological categories.*

The Grammatical –Lexical Fields: **T**heoretical and applied issues of the FIELD theory/the principle of content approach to research: «from meaning to the form», or «from function to the form»; the grammatical-lexical fields in the work of E. V.Gulyga and E.I.Shendels. In their opinion, the concept of the grammatical-lexical field is connected to the process identifying different-level means of separate categorial concepts [11]

2. *The Major Parameters of the Typological Category*

The Typological category: the special meta-language of Comparative typology; the *cross-language* nature of the category; content-based character; The typological category is a unity of the typological form and typological meaning.

---

9   Есперсен О. Философия грамматики., М., 1958, p. 57-58.

10   Ibid, p.8-9

11 Гулыга Е.В., Шендельс Е. И. Грамматико-лексические поля в современном немецком языке.М., 1969, p. 5.

The typological meaning is an abstract generalized cross-language meaning which is used as a base for comparison of languages;*The typological form* is cross level and cross-class. The cross level means of the typological form can relate to each other as cross level synonyms in one language and cross language correspondents in compared languages. Typological forms: *explicit*,(expressed by special markers), or *implicit(e*xpressed by the stem of the word).

The typological category is opposed to the traditional grammatical category which is mono-class.

Selected literature and useful sites

1. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков Л., 1979

2. Буранов Дж. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков., М., 1983

3. Гак В.Г. Сравнительная типология французского и русского языков М., 1977

4. Lord R. Comparative Linguistics L., 1975

5. Robins R.H. General Linguistics L., 1975

6. Боровков А.К. Агглютинация в тюркских языках. –Морфологическая типология и проблема классификации языков. М.,-Л., 1965

7. Гринберг Дж., Осгуд И., Дженкинс Дж. Меморандум о языковых универсалиях В сб. – Новое в лингвистике., М., 1970, вып. V

8. Рождественский Ю.В. Типология слова М., 2007

9. Успенский Б.А. Структурная типология языков М., 1965

10. Ярцева В.Н. Принципы типологического исследования родственных и неродственных языков   М., 1967

11. Bazell C.E. Linguistic typology., L.1958

12. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_family

13. http://4teachers.org/profd/assessment.shtm/#tracks

LECTURE # 9

(2 hours)

1. Branches of Linguistic typology related to expression and content plans of the language:

Questions to cover

- Formal typology
- Semantic typology;
- Phonetic/Phonological typology;
- Morphological typology;
- Lexical typology;
- Syntactic typology.

Keywords: Formal typology, Semantic typology; Phonetic/Phonological typology; Morphological typology; Lexical typology; Syntactic typology

Content of the topics:

The Formal typology: deals with units of expression plan;the goal - formal universals; the tasks: external or formal features of the language, common principles of script, e.g. graphic systems, alphabets, system of transcription signs, punctuation, formal structures of the syllable, composite words, word combinations, etc.

The Semantic typology: the branch of linguistic typology studying semantic structure of the language and related to the units of content plan. The goal - semantic universals related to the deep structure of the language; issues: different semantic fields, grouping words on the basis of semantic signs, criteria to define semantic categories; Semantic typology and Lexical typology.

Selected literature and useful sites

14. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков Л., 1979

15. Буранов Дж. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков., М., 1983

16. Гак В.Г. Сравнительная типология французского и русского языков М., 1977

17. Lord R. Comparative Linguistics L., 1975

18. Robins R.H. General Linguistics L., 1975

19. Боровков А.К. Агглютинация в тюркских языках. –Морфологическая типология и проблема классификации языков. М.,-Л., 1965

20. Гринберг Дж., Осгуд И., Дженкинс Дж. Меморандум о языковых универсалиях В сб. – Новое в лингвистике., М., 1970, вып. V

21. Рождественский Ю.В. Типология слова М., 2007

22. Успенский Б.А. Структурная типология языков М., 1965

23. Ярцева В.Н. Принципы типологического исследования родственных и неродственных языков М., 1967

24. Bazell C.E. Linguistic typology., L.1958

25. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_family

26. http://4teachers.org/profd/assessment.shtm/#tracks

LECTURE # 10

(2 hours)

The problem of categorization in linguistics

Questions to cover:

I. The problem of categorization in linguistics:
- *The grammatical category;*
- *The Notional category*
- *The Functional semantic category.*
- *The Lexical-Grammatical Fields*

Keywords: Grammatical category, Notional category, Functional semantic category, Lexical-Grammatical Fields.

Content of the topics:

The Grammatical category: is reflected in a morphological paradigm; the unity of the grammatical form and grammatical meaning. The members of one category are mutually exclusive; *Grammatical categories of the English language:* Aspect, Case, Degrees of Comparison, Mood, Number, Person, Tense, Voice.

The Notional categories: rely on certain logical backgrounds; connected with the names of Otto Jespersen and I.I.Meshchaninov; «not dependent on more or less casual facts of existing languages. These categories are universal as they apply to all languages, though they are seldom expressed in these languages in a clear and unambiguous way... »[12]

O. Jespersen: three stages of the grammatical analysis: a) the form, b) the function and c) the notion; Relations between the notional and grammatical categories;further development of notional categories by academician A.V.Bondarko.

The Functional-Semantic category: is connected with cross-level description of the

system of a certain language: has the content and the expression plans. The semantic content is identified with the meaning of morphological categories (such, as the verbal aspect, tense, person, and mood). «The expression plan is formed by language means related to different levels of language hierarchy and aspects of language: morphological, syntactic, word-formation, lexical, various combinations of means in the context» [13]

Functional –semantic categories of A.V. Bondarko are based on the *morphological categories.*

The Grammatical –Lexical Fields: **T**heoretical and applied issues of the FIELD theory/the principle of content approach to research: «from meaning to the form», or «from function to the form»; the grammatical-lexical fields in the work of E. V.Gulyga and E.I.Shendels. In their opinion, the concept of the grammatical-lexical field is connected to the process identifying different-level means of separate categorial concepts [14]

Selected literature and useful sites

14. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков Л., 1979

15. Буранов Дж. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков., М., 1983

16. Гак В.Г. Сравнительная типология французского и русского языков М., 1977

17. Lord R. Comparative Linguistics L., 1975

18. Robins R.H. General Linguistics L., 1975

19. Боровков А.К. Агглютинация в тюркских языках. –Морфологическая типология и проблема классификации языков. М.,-Л., 1965

20. Гринберг Дж., Осгуд И., Дженкинс Дж. Меморандум о языковых универсалиях В сб. – Новое в лингвистике., М., 1970, вып. V

21. Рождественский Ю.В. Типология слова М., 2007

22. Успенский Б.А. Структурная типология языков М., 1965

23. Ярцева В.Н. Принципы типологического исследования родственных и неродственных языков М., 1967

24. Bazell C.E. Linguistic typology., L.1958

25. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_family

26. http://4teachers.org/profd/assessment.shtm/#tracks

Lecture # 11

Branches of Linguistic typology as to levels of language hierarchy

Questions to cover:

The branches of linguistic typology as to the levels of linguistic hierarchy.

The Phonological typology: comparison of units of the phonologic level of language; tasks- allocation of phonologic differential signs, defining their universality, study of phonologic structure of languages, classification of languages on the basis of their phonologic features (e.g. tonic and atonic languages), defining phonemic structure of world languages, etc. major achievements.

The Morphological typology: compares the units of a morphological level; subtypes:

3) the morphological classification of languages;

4) particular questions of grammar: grammatical categories in various

languages, ways of their expression, morphological markers, synonymous relations of affixation morphemes and syntactic words (prepositions and postpositions), comparison of primary grammatical categories, etc.).

The Syntactic typology: comparison of syntactic level units - word-combination and the sentence. Syntactic typology and transformational syntax; major tasks: syntactic universals, study of syntax of world languages , types of syntactic links (attributive, predicative, etc.), definition of sentence types, basic syntactic categories, etc.

Selected literature and useful sites

1. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков Л., 1979

2. Буранов Дж. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков., М., 1983

3. Гак В.Г. Сравнительная типология французского и русского языков М., 1977

4. Lord R. Comparative Linguistics L., 1975

5. Robins R.H. General Linguistics L., 1975

6. Боровков А.К. Агглютинация в тюркских языках. –Морфологическая типология и проблема классификации языков. М.,-Л., 1965

7. Гринберг Дж., Осгуд И., Дженкинс Дж. Меморандум о языковых универсалиях В сб. – Новое в лингвистике., М., 1970, вып. V
8. Рождественский Ю.В. Типология слова М., 2007

9. Успенский Б.А. Структурная типология языков М., 1965

10. Ярцева В.Н. Принципы типологического исследования родственных и неродственных языков   М., 1967

11. Bazell C.E. Linguistic typology., L.1958

12. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_family

13. http://4teachers.org/profd/assessment.shtm/#tracks

Lecture # 12

Methods of Comparative Typology

Questions to cover:

- Comparative Typology and Methods of Linguistic Analysis
- Comparison as a basic method of Linguistic Typology
- Other methods used in CT
- Language universals, uncials and recessiseves
- Dominating and determining features of languages
- Language type and type in language

The main method of typological studies is the comparative method. Comparative linguistics applies this method as well, but in that trend the elements compared are similar materially, which allows the scholar to establish their genetic affinity. Typology compares elements that are similar functionally.e.g. The English, Russian and Turkish languages have affixes which form nouns with the meaning "the doer of an action". These are the English affix -er, the Turkish one -ci, the Russian -тель. They consist of different phonemes and have no common origin, but they have the same function in the language. So they can be studied in comparative typology.Elements compared must have some common, similar **(isomorphic)**features in different languages.e.g. All case inflexions express relations between an object and other objects, phenomena or processes. At the same time the elements of each language have some special **(allomorphic)**characteristics peculiar for this language.e.g. Different languages have their own case systems with peculiar case meanings. Isomorphic characteristics serve as a basis for typological classification. They are called **typological constants.**One of typological constants is existence of the category of case. Using it, we can classify all languages into two groups: the ones having a system of declension and the ones lacking it. Difference between languages may lie not only in the fact of existence/non-existence of some element, but also in the place of the element within its microsystem.When two languages are compared one of them serves as a prototype. For language students

such a prototype is usually their native language. But the description of the English language by Russian-speaking students will differ considerably from the one made by French-speaking students. We can't get a really scientific, objective description in this way. A "neutral" language must be found, which can serve as a prototype for any language. Boris Andreevitch Uspenskiy suggested using isolating languages as prototypes because their structure is the simplest, and features isomorphic for all languages are explicit and distinct in them. But other scholars argue that the structure of isolating languages is not as simple as it seems, and some artificial prototype language must be constructed for the purposes of typological comparison.   Typological characteristics of a language revealed with the help of comparison of this language to a prototype language are correlated. They form a system. According to Georgiy Pavlovitch MeFnikov some elements and phenomena of this system occupy the leading position in it and the speaker subconsciously chooses such language means which are in harmony with the leading tendency. This leading grammatical tendency was given the name of determinant.   e.g. The Semitic languages (according to G.P. Mefnikov) have a tendency to grammaticalization. That's why verbal meaning is prevalent in word roots, consonants are used for expressing lexical meaning and vowels are used for expressing grammatical meanings. The Chinese language has a tendency to lexicalization. It doesn't express explicitly the information which is clear from the context (plurality is expressed only when not clear from the context).   Differences between languages can be quantified. A quantitative method was introduced by Joseph Greenberg. It is called the method of typological indices.   The most typical approach presupposes comparing languages "level by level", i.e. the phonological level of one language is compared to the phonological level of the other, then the morphological, the syntactical, the lexical levels are compared. However, similar functions can be performed by elements of different levels in different languages, e.g. I *don't* lend my books to anyone (phonology) Я не даю моих книг никому (vocabulary) I don't lend my

books to *anyone* (phonology) Я не даю моих книг кому попало, (vocabulary)   Вы знаете, где магазин, (phonology) You know where the shop is. (Syntax) Вы знаете, где магазин? (phonology) Do you know where the shop is?

Selected literature and useful sites

1. Абдуазизов А.А., Бушуй А.М., Бушуй Т.А., Салиева М.А., Сиддикова И.А. История лингвистической типологии,, Ташкент 2006

2. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков Л., 1979

3. Буранов Дж. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков., М., 1983

Lecture # 13

Comparative Typology of Morphological System

Questions to cover:

- Notion of morphology in Modern Linguistics

- Notions of morphology: Parts of speech in Modern English

- Structural and Semantical features of parts of speech
    Isomorphemic and Allomorphic features of parts of speech in modern English and Uzbek/Russian

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Semantically morphemes fall into two classes : the root morphemes and non-root (affixational) morphemes.

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

 e.g. verb - to write- ёзмо=

  noun -writer - ёзувчи

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

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

Inflexions (word-forming suffixes express different morphological categories.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

E.G.: бе-маза-гар-чи-лиг-и-нг-из-дан

бе-кор-чи-лик-дан-дир-да-а?

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Parts of speech.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Lecture # 14
Areal typology and its distinctive features
Questions to cover:

The Areal Typology: the independent branches of linguistic typology, which compares language systems and studies the degree of expansion and proximity of language properties which are geographically conditioned. Objects of study: borrowings, bi-lingual features, dialects, centum/satem languages, compiling dialectal maps, sub-

stratum and super-stratum languages, neologisms, archaisms, hybrid languages, language contacts, etc.

The major parameters:

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

 The Areal classification of languages.

Selected literature and useful sites

1. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков   Л., 1979
2. Буранов Дж. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков., М., 1983
3. Гак В.Г. Сравнительная типология французского и русского языков   М., 1977
4. Lord R. Comparative Linguistics L., 1975
5. Robins R.H. General Linguistics L., 1975
6. Боровков А.К. Агглютинация в тюркских языках. –Морфологическая типология и проблема классификации языков. М.,-Л., 1965
7. Ярцева В.Н. Принципы типологического исследования родственных и неродственных языков   М., 1967
8. Bazell C.E. Linguistic typology., L.1958
9. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_family
10. http://4teachers.org/profd/assessment.shtm/#tracks

Lecture # 15

Typological approach to language analysis

Questions to cover:

1/ basic notions of typology:

a) isomorphism and allomorphism

b) the notion of the model language

c) language universals

2/ methods of typological analysis

a) glottochronology

b) typological indexation

c) a descriptive comparative method

Linguistic typology as a separate discipline appeared early in the 70s of the XX century. It studies language types, similarities and differences in their structure. This discipline was developed on the basis of historical comparative linguistics. Now typology deals with all types of languages irrespective of their affinity. If only two languages are compared it is called comparative typology. Comparative typology gives a systemic description of juxtaposition of a foreign language and one's native language. It's especially important for teaching purposes. It helps to foresee and overcome difficulties in this process and to overcome negative influence of one's native language.

Isomorphism and allomorphism

the term isomorphism was introduced by a Polish linguist Kurilovich who borrowed it from mathematics. It means similarity, likeness or even identity of structure.

In typology we speak about isomorphism of some language units or even systems if they have likeness in arrangement.

Isomorphism:

English – will/shall read

Russian – БУДУ читать

Allomorphism:

Eng – will/shall read

Rus – прочитаю

The model language

this notion was introduced in order to achieve more objective typological description. In order to define iso- and allomorphic features at least two languages must be compared. One of these languages is in the focus of attention, it is under analysis. The second language becomes a kind of instrument in this process. Usually one's native language is used for this purpose. But native languages are different in structure. Such comparison gives not objective results. For the purpose of comparison the notion of the model language was introduces. It is not a real, existing language. It exists as a scheme which includes a list of average characteristics of all languages known up to now. (see typological indexation) среднеарифметическая всех языков по всем показателям

A language universal

a language universal is some statement that reflects features of all languages or of most of them. And the aim of universals is to reveal tendencies in language development.

All languages have vowels and consonants but the correlation of them is different in all languages. (all languages use vowels and consonants – absolute universal)

75% of languages use 3 tenses – statistic universal.

Statistic universals characterize not all languages but groups of them, e.g. most European languages have case paradigms of nouns (from 2 up to 8 case forms) but in the same time there are some exceptions – Bulgarian, French, Spanish do not have case.

Besides language universals are divided into extralinguistic and linguistic. The first type is used not only in linguistics because such universals describe relations outside language system. They can be used in logic or in semiotics.

e.g. a minimal utterance is expressed in the sentence (notion utterance – beyond

language) linguistic universals describe the language structure and correspondingly they are divided according to language levels – phonological, lexical, grammatical. They can also be synchronic and diachronic. Synchronic universals show language at one definite period of its development. Diachronic universals show development of a language. E.g. [k] > [ʧ]

Eng: OE ceosan > ME chesan > NE choose

Latin: centrum > cento (Italian)

Rus: пеку – печешь, крепкий – крепче

Lecture # 16
TYPOLOGY OF MEANING

Questions to cover:

1. Paradigmatic aspect
2. Syntagmatic aspect

a) Paradigmatic aspect

if we combine meaning of equivalent words in 2 languages we can find 4 types of relations:

Relations are divided into inclusion and crossing.

Crossing is connected with the existence of some specific meaning in each of the words. (голос (voice, vote) and voice (speaking, залог)).

Открывать – open, find out, discover

Party – вечеринка, политическая партия.

There are 2 reasons for the existence of such lacunas:

a) the absence of the denoted phenomena (колхоз, eleven plus examination)

b) purely linguistic factors because each language reflects reality in its own way.

Sometimes words seem to have equivalents but they have quite a different meaning. Languages differ in semantic structures of the words. Some languages prefer more general meaning (English) and some prefer more concrete meanings (Russian). The idea of motion.

b) Syntagmatic aspect

Very often when the word is polysemantic its real meaning becomes clear only in the context. According to Amosova there are 3 types of contexts:

1. Purely lexical when the meaning is actualized due to its combination with the neighboring word.

2. Syntactical context when the meaning of the word depends on the syntactic construction it is used in. syntactical context also includes cases of transitive use of verbs (In English only)

3. Lexico-syntactical context when both lexical combustibility and syntactical structures are important. E.g. "the sun sets", "he is setting potatoes", "a peasant woman is setting her hens".

Conclusion: all these contexts should be taken into consideration because they make the system of lexical units and their semantic potential more expressive.

Lecture # 17

Comparative Typology of grammatical category of the verb

Questions to Cover:

- The problem of Total number of grammatical categories of the verb in the language compared
- Similarities and dissimilarities of the grammatical categories of the verb in the languages

Verb is a universally used part of speech but its morphological features differ in different languages. In Russian the verb has gender, but in English it is not used and at the same time in English perfect forms make up the category of time-correlation. Besides, differences exist in the system of verbals. In Russian there are 2 of them – participle and adverbial participle. In English both of them are expressed by the participle that has 2 variants (participle I and II). In English gerund is used which corresponds to Russian verbal noun. The rest verbal categories coincide – aspect, tense, voice, mood, person.

Aspect.

In English and Russian there are 2 aspect forms but the grammatical meaning is specific in each language. In Russian there exists an opposition of perfective and imperfective aspects where the meaning is connected with logical completeness of an action. In English the difference between continuous and indefinite aspects shows the manner of action – a mere fact or a process. In Russian the perfective aspect is expressed derivatively with prefixes and affixes. Besides stress can denote aspect relations. Lexical means are also important. In English the only marker of aspect is discontinuous morpheme.

Tense.

In English the system of tenses in enriched through its development. Development of tense in Russian and English shows radical differences. In Russian the modern paradigm became more limited in comparison with Old Russian, it has been reduced from 7 to 3 forms.

In English the paradigm became wider, because in ME Future was added to past and present.

VOICE

The category of voice shows relations between the subject and the object of the action. Most languages have active and passive meanings which are universal and it's possible to change the positions of the subject and the object. The rest voice meanings have some specificity.

MOOD

most modal means coincide in two languages (modal verbs, modal words, moods (should write, написал бы)).

The primary subdivision of mood is reality/irreality which also coincide. The basic difference is in the structure of irreali9ty. In Russian only one undifferentiated oblique mood is used. It is expressed by particle бы and the verb in the past which can also be linked with conjunction чтобы. The Russian form has no tense distinction, but in English tense distinctions are expressed by perfect forms. Besides particle бы in colloquial speech the imperative form can denote supposition (скажи он это). The English oblique mood includes at least 4 forms:

27.   subjunctive I (long live the king)

28.   subjunctive II (if he helped us)

29.   conditional mood (would+inf)

30.   suppositional mood (should+inf)

PERSON

in any language 3 forms of person are used and it is a kind of universal. It

corresponds to 3 basic roles of any communicative act:

1.the speaker

2.the addressee

3.non-participant of the action in synthetic languages singular and plural forms are marked by inflections. In analytical languages the system of forms is minimal.

Lecture 18

Comparative Typology and methods of teaching English

- Comparative typology and its links with methods of teaching English

- Comparative typological data of Modern English, Uzbek and Russian at the service of methods of teaching English

- Typical mistakes in using English by students (Uzbeks, Russians) and factors causing mistakes, dissimilarities and similarities

- Notions of language interference and ways of doing it away with

Comparative method" redirects here. For other kinds of comparative methods, see Comparative (disambiguation).

Linguistic map representing a tree model of the Romance languages based on the comparative method. Here the family tree has been rendered as a Venn diagram without overlapping subareas. The wave model allows overlapping regions.

In linguistics, the **comparative method** is a technique for studying the development of languages by performing a feature-by-feature comparison of two or more languages with common descent from a shared ancestor, in order to extrapolate back to infer the properties of that ancestor. The comparative method may be contrasted with the method of internal reconstruction, in which the internal development of a single language is inferred by the analysis of features within that language.[1] Ordinarily both methods are used together to reconstruct prehistoric phases of languages, to fill in gaps in the historical record of a language, to discover the development of phonological, morphological, and other linguistic systems, and to confirm or refute hypothesized relationships between languages.

The comparative method was developed over the 19th century. Key contributions were made by the Danish scholars Rasmus Rask and Karl Verner and the German scholar Jacob Grimm. The first

linguist to offer reconstructed forms from a proto-language was August Schleicher, in his *Compendium der vergleichenden Grammatik der indogermanischen Sprachen*, originally published in 1861.[2] Here is Schleicher's explanation of why he offered reconstructed forms:[3]

In the present work an attempt is made to set forth the inferred Indo-European original language side by side with its really existent derived languages. Besides the advantages offered by such a plan, in setting immediately before the eyes of the student the final results of the investigation in a more concrete form, and thereby rendering easier his insight into the nature of particular Indo-European languages, there is, I think, another of no less importance gained by it, namely that it shows the baselessness of the assumption that the non-Indian Indo-European languages were derived from Old-Indian (Sanskrit).

Lecture 19
Comparative Typology, translation and Lexicography
Questions to cover:

- Comparative typological data and translation
- Comparative typological data and Lexicography

Comparative typological data and text book compiling

Comparative typology and Lexicography

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

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

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

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

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

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

A lexicographical process can be divided into two stages.
1.The stage of analysis;
2.The stage of synthesis.

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

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

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

1.word-building affixes and

2.form-building affixes.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Linguistic typology has played a positive role in creating bilingual English-Turkic and Turkic-English dictionaries. These topics were of special interest for Formal typology which displayed the meaning of proper names. Arabic proper names were not found in, for example, Chinese language. But when a part of China was attacked and occupied by the Muslims the problem of assimilating the Arabic proper names became acute for China too.

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

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

1) Comparative typology and Lexicography analyze systems of two or more languages simultaneously;

2) Compared languages can be genetically related or not related;

3) Comparative typology and Lexicography.

Selected literature:

1. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков   Л., 1979

11. Буранов Дж. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков., М., 1983

12. Гак В.Г. Сравнительная типология французского и русского языков   М., 1977

13. Lord R. Comparative Linguistics L., 1975

14. Robins R.H. General Linguistics L., 1975

15. Боровков А.К. Агглютинация в тюркских языках. –Морфологическая типология и проблема классификации языков. М.,-Л., 1965

16. Ярцева В.Н. Принципы типологического исследования родственных и неродственных языков   М., 1967

17. Bazell C.E. Linguistic typology., L.1958

18. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_family

http://4teachers.org/profd/assessment.shtm/#tracks

Topics and content of seminars

Number of the Seminar	Topics and content of the seminars
1.	**2. Linguistic Typology as a subject:** • Types of scientific comparison; • Branches of General Typology*;* • Types of non-linguistic Typology; • Subject-matter of Linguistic Typology • Various approaches toward definition of Linguistic typology. **3. Exercises on types of scientific comparison**
2.	**1. The History of Linguistic comparison.** 2. The Major factors fostering development of Linguistic typology. 3. Discussing different classifications/ periodization of the history of Linguistic comparison and factors of its development
3.	1. **Major parameters identifying the branches of linguistic typology:** System/Structural identity; Genetic identity; Quantitative limitation/non-limitation; Areal identity/limitation; Deep and Surface identity; Etic/emic identity; One level approach to comparison; Cross-level approach to comparison; Content approach; Formal approach; Limitation of etalon language; Completion of typological operations. 2. **Exercises on identifying different branches of Linguistic**

	Typology using the above parameters	
4.	1. **Genetic/Genealogical typology:** • Genetic diachronic typology; • Genetic synchronic typology; • distinctive features of Genetic typology . **2.Areal Typology** • distinctive features of Areal typology; 2. **Exercises on defining types of subjects studied in the frames of Genetic and Areal Typology**	
5.	1. **Structural typology and its parts:** - Linguistic Universals; - Etalon Language; - Typological Classification; - Typological theory; -Typological classification of Edward Sapir. 2. **Exercises on different types of typological classifications of languages.** 3. **30- minute Mid-term test**	
6.	1. **Comparative typology and its major distinctive features:** • Quantitative limitation of compared languages; • Deep and Surface identity; • Indifference to Genetic identity; • Content approach to comparison; 2. **Exercises on distinctive features of Comparative Typology**	

7.	1. **Branches of Linguistic typology related to expression and content plans of the language:** • Formal typology • Semantic typology; 2. **Branches of Linguistic typology as to levels of language hierarchy**: • Phonetic/Phonological typology; • Morphological typology; • Lexical typology; • Syntactic typology. **2. Exercises on distinctive features of the above branches of Linguistic typology**
8.	**1.The problem of categorization in linguistics:** • The grammatical category; • The Notional category • The Functional semantic category. • The Lexical-Grammatical Fields 2. **Major Parameters of the Typological category** • The cross-language character; • The cross-level character; • The cross-class character; • Cross-level synonymy and cross language correspondence 4. **Exercises on major parameters of the typological category.**
9. *For self-study*	**1. The Typological Category of Plurality in English and Uzbek/Russian languages** • The cross level means of expression: morphological, lexical,

	syntactic; • The cross-class means of expression in the systems of the noun, verb, adjective, pronoun, numeral, functional parts of speech.
10.	**Final test on the Course in Comparative typology of the English and Turkic languages**

TEACHING STRATEGIES FOR SMALL GROUP DISCUSSIONS

A). Split the students into 2-3 small groups and ask them to discuss the following questions. Each group appoints a team leader(s) and presents the results of the group discussion. Make sure the presenters rotate from seminar to seminar. The small group also prepares up to 3 key questions to the audience to check their comprehension of the presentation.

B) Please prepare the tasks for the small groups in advance on a sheet of paper.

C) The assignment for the small groups should be given long enough in advance and the tasks should be distributed among the groups very carefully.

D) Please split the time related to overview of the theoretical part of the seminar as 1/3 of the lesson (approx. 20-30 minutes; 10- 15 minutes - for small group discussions and 30 minutes for small group presentations.

E) It is feasible to appoint a time keeper while the small groups discussions process.

F) Motivate your students to use visual aids strategies in the way of tables, diagrams, etc. You might want to add additional points to the general score of a small group for visual aids.

G) Another interactive strategy to motivate the students might be the use of role plays. For semi-final, final or self-study lesson an interactive role play competition like "Smarts and Jollies" might be an option.

H).To assess the knowledge and practical skills of applying the gained knowledge to concrete language data you might want to use individual scoring for students covering the theoretical questions; for group work participation all members of a small group might get similar rating score; the team leader(s)/presenter(s) of the small group might get up to 5 additional points to the average group rating.

I). Ideally all the students will be assessed during each seminar plus some of the students might have an extra score during the same seminar in case s/he covers a theoretical question in a proper way.

SEMINAR #1

I. "Linguistic Typology as a subject"

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

II. Small groups discussions

SEMINAR #1. Small group discussions.

Small group #1

1. As a researcher you deal with comparative analysis of the phonological systems of the English and Uzbek languages, in particular comparison of vowels.   What kind of scientific comparison do you deal with? Why? Please give grounds and provide examples.

 2) One of the main issues while identifying branches of Linguistic typology is the quantitative limitation of   compared languages. Please debate that the maximum number of languages is the best option to compare languages. Provide grounds why.

SEMINAR #1. Small group #2

1. As a researcher you deal with comparative analysis of the phonological systems of English and Uzbek languages, in particular comparison of consonants.
What kind of scientific comparison do you deal with? Why? Please give grounds and provide examples.

2) One of the main issues while identifying branches of Linguistic Typology is the quantitative limitation of   compared languages. Please debate that comparison should be limited by a group of genetically related languages only; provide the grounds why.

SEMINAR #1. Small group #3

1.As a researcher you deal with comparative analysis of English and Uzbek languages, in particular comparison of parts of speech. What kind of scientific comparison do you deal with? Why? Please give grounds and provide examples.

2) One of the main issues while identifying branches of Linguistic Typology is the quantitative limitation of compared languages. Please debate that the number of compared languages should be as minimal as two languages. Provide grounds why.

Supplementary material for SEMINAR #1.

The Linguistic typology.

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

Basic types of scientific comparison.

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

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

At the early stages of development of typology as a science the major role belonged to substantial comparison which is considered primary. Yuri Rojdenstvenskiy[15] wrote that in General linguistics the relations between language systems base on substantial features. The languages were considered cognate because the linguists found principal similarity in their substance: sound and content."

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

Branches of General typology.

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

Non- linguistic typology.

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

---

[15] Рождественский Ю.В. Типология слова., М., 1969, с.42-45

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

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

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

The two sciences – Linguistic typology and Literary criticism

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

The subject-matter of Linguistic Typology.

Linguistic typology is a branch of general linguistics. There is no unanimity in defining the subject matter of linguistic typology. There are broad and narrow understandings of its subject matter. James Ellis[16] includes theory of translation, dialectology and borrowings to the bulk of Linguistic typology. These branches do have relations to Linguistic typology but also constitute the subject- matter of other special fields of knowledge.

---

[16] Towards a General Comparative Linguistics, London, 1966,

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

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

 Roman Jacobson contributed to the definition of subject-matter of Linguistic typology stating that "Genetic method deals with relationship of languages, areal method deals with similarities while typological method deals with isomorphism "[17].

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

Definition of the subject- matter of Linguistic Typology.

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

1963, вып II, c. 97

findings and conclusions made on the results of such analysis can be applied to the entire majority of languages (in cases of linguistic universals).

Linguistic typology shows special interest to the so-called exotic or non-studied languages, e.g. languages of ethnicities of South-East Asia, Africa, Oceanside or American Indian tribes. Still the study materials of well-known, expanded and well- studied languages may to the similar extent become the subject matter of a typological study.
Linguistic typology not only systemizes, generalizes and classifies the facts of language isomorphism and allomorphism but also explains them.

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

As we talk of the different standpoints in defining Linguistic typology as a science we distinguish two major approaches:
   a) Linguistic typology is an independent science covering all types of comparison of language systems. In this sense Linguistic typology fully coincides with Comparative Linguistics;
   b) Linguistic typology is a part of Comparative Linguistics. It is opposed to traditional Comparative Historical Linguistics , charachterology and areal linguistics. In that sense it coincides with Structural typology.

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

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

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

The basis of Linguistic Typology is constituted by Structural Typology[18] which has the following parts: 1) Typological Classification; 2) Linguistic Universals; 3) Etalon Language; 4) Typological Theory

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

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

1) genetic/genealogical or historic comparison/reconstruction of common archi /pra-forms of genetically related languages;

2) typological comparison of systems and sub-systems of languages : a) related; b) non-related ; c) structurally similar; d) structurally non-similar. Special attention should be paid to closely and distantly related languages;

3) Areal Linguistics : comparison of neighboring languages;

4)   Dominant classification by Melnikov defining language types based on dominant features[19].

Linguistic diversity

As of early 2007, there are 6,912 known living human languages[20].

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

Taxonomy /Principles of classification of world languages.

The classification of natural languages can be performed on the basis of different underlying principles (different closeness notions, respecting different properties and relations between languages). Important directions of present classifications are:
* paying attention to the historical evolution of languages which results in a genetic classification of languages based on genetic relatedness of languages;

* paying attention to the internal structure of languages (grammar) results in a typological classification of languages which is based on similarity of one or more components of the language's grammar across languages;

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

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

---

[20] http://www.ethnologue.com/ "Ethnologue: Languages of the World, Fifteenth edition"] , accessed 28 June 2007, ISBN 1 55671 159 X.

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

The systems of vowel phonemes in English and Uzbek.

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

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

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

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

In modern English we distinguish 21 vowel phonemes:

10 monophthongs [e, i, u, æ α:, c, c:, ᴧ,]ə, ə:]

9 diphthongs [ei, ai, au, æ i, əi,]

2 diphthongized vowels {i:, u:}[21]

In modern Uzbek we find 6 vowel letters and corresponding vowel phonemes [a, o, o" (ў), y, e(э) i(и)]

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

---

[21] Abduazizov A.A. English Phonetics. A Theoretical Course., Tashkent 2002

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

central [ə ɘ], front [i:, i, e, æ,] and back [a, u, æ, u, ɑ:, æ:] vowels.

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

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

3. according to vowel length the vowels may be divided into short; [i, ə u, æ, ←,] and long [i: ə u: æ: ɑ:] vowels. (In this case it belongs only to the English vowels as far as in Uzbek the length of the vowel is of no importance).

4. according to the position of lips vowels may be; rounded (or labialized)

[u:, u:,ʌ ,] and un-rounded (non-labialized) [e, ə ɘ æ] vowels.

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

The Systems of Consonant phonemes in the English and Uzbek languages

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

The consonants should be classified on the following principles;

1. The manner of production

2. The active organs employed in the production

3. The place of production

The last division is very important as in accordance with it the parricidal difference in the formation of consonants in English and of consonants in Uzbek may be clearly shown. The system of English consonants consists of 24 consonants. They are: [**p, t, k, b, d, g, mf n, 1, n, f, v, s, z, w, j**, ð, ǝ s, з, ts, w, j] and the problematic phoneme [ju].

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

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

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

Parts of Speech in the English and Uzbek languages.

The word is known as the smallest naming unit of the language. According to Leonard Bloomfield[22], *the word* is a minimum free form. Close observation and comparison of words clearly shows that a great number of words have a composite nature and are made up of smaller units, each possessing sound-form and meaning. In other words, the term *"word"* denotes the basic unit of a given language resulting from the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a grammatical employment is a word and is therefore simultaneously a semantic, grammatical and phonological unit.

The words of every language fall into classes which are called parts of speech. The problem of parts of speech is one of the most controversial problems of modern linguistics. The theoretical side of this problem is the subject matter of the theoretical grammar therefore we

---

[22] Блумфилд Л., Язык. М., 1968

should base our comparison of system of parts of speech on the generally acknowledged opinions of grammarians.

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

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

SEMINAR #2

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

SEMINAR #2 . Small group #1.

Debate on the difference/similarities between the history of Linguistics as a science and the history of linguistic comparison. What are major periods of

development described in "The Essays on the History of Linguistics" by Amirova T.A., Rojdestvenskiy Yu.V., Olkhovikov B.A[23]?

SEMINAR #2 . Small group #2.

Provide differences /similarities between periodization of history of linguistics in "The Essays on the History of Linguistics Amirova T.A., Rojdestvenskiy Yu.V., Olkhovikov B.A" and Dr. J. Buranov[24].

SEMINAR #2 . Small group #3.

Dwell on the major factors fostering development of Linguistic typology. Provide grounds why these factors influenced positively to shape Linguistic typology as an independent scientific discipline.

Supplementary material for SEMINAR #2.

Stages of Development of Linguistic typology

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

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

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

The history of linguistic comparison

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

In "the Essays on the History of Linguistics" by *Amirova T.A., Rojdestvenskiy Yu.V., Olkhovikov B*.A.[25] six periods are defined for the history of development of linguistics as a science. As all of them imply systemic comparison, this classification can be to a large extent applied to linguistic typology.

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

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

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

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

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

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

.

Dr. Buranov J[26]. identifies 4 periods in the history of typological studies:

1) Spontaneous or evolutionary. It begins with the emergence of the first linguistic works. That period was over not long before the Renaissance. In Ancient Greece the language was studied in the frames of philosophy. The major issue that was in the focus of discussion was correlation of substances to their names. Still already in the works of Protagoras and Aristotle there are statements related to distinguishing words, word combinations, linguistic categories like gender, case, number, definition of the sentence, classification of words into names and actions /parts of speech. These works served the basis for distinguishing linguistics into an independent science. E.g. many scholars, while compiling grammars of separate languages used the models of the languages with already described grammatical structures. (The principle of analogy). For example, while compiling first English grammars the models of Latin were widely used. The first grammars for the European languages was based on the Latin Grammars.[27].

2) The second period is characterized as a period of establishing the first scientific comparison of languages and this period is related to the General and Rational Grammar: Port- Royal Grammar by Arnauld A., Lancelot C[28]., (XVII c.) in Indo-European languages. Port-Royal Grammar can be considered one of the most precious contributions into development of Linguistic typology. It was developed by 2 French monks in the small abbey Port-Royal in the suburbs of Paris (published in 1660). It is the synthesis of linguistic and philosophic ideas of that time. The languages (French, Latin, Greek and ancient Jewish/ Ides) with different genealogic origin and typological structure were compared basing on the criteria and principles elaborated by Arnauld A. and Lancelot C. Comparative study of Turkic language has its own history. Divan-Lugat At-Turk by Mahmud Kashgariy[29] is considered the most solid work on linguistic comparison of Turkic languages. Mahmud Kashgariy analyzed

---

[27] The first English grammars: R. Lowth " Short Introduction to English Grammar , London, 1762), J. Priestly, "Rudiments of English Grammar", 1761, G. Campbell , "Philosophy of Rhetoric", 1766, as well as the first American grammar N. Webster, Plain and Comprehensive Grammar, 1784

[28] Arnauld A., Lancelot C. General and Rational Grammar: Port-Royal Grammar. Mouton, The Hague, Paris, 1975

[29] Кашгарий.М. Туркий сузлар девони 1-3.,Тошкент 1960, 1961, 1963, 1967

phonetic, grammatical and lexical units of a group of Turkic languages and defined the level of their genetic relation to each other. Further development of comparative study can be traced in appearance of glossaries and dictionaries, e.g. Turkic Mongol Persian dictionary compiled in Egypt (1245) , Latin- Persian Kypchak dictionary (Kumanikus Code, XII c.), and other works. One of the most prominent work is the poem of Alisher Navoi ""Muhokamatul al-Lugatain (Debate of two languages) written in 1499[30]. Navoi compares lexical, grammatical and word building specificities of 2 genetically non-related languages: old Uzbek and Persian. Navoi reveals a number of language specificities of Uzbek which did not have direct correspondences in Persian. , e.g. suffixes of reflexivity, reciprocity, causation, modality, comparativeness, etc.

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

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

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

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

---

[30] Навоий Алишер. Мухокаматул-лугатайн., Асарлар, Тошкент, 1960, т.14

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

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

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

Lexicography has also got considerable development. At that time the first national grammars were compiled basing on the grammar of the Russian language, e.g. the first Uzbek Grammar by Evgeniy Polivanov [31] used the system of Russian grammar for description: system of parts of speech , cases, numbers, , etc.

Major factors fostering development of Linguistic typology

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

I.   The first factor is typological imitation. It is the use of certain methods or models of one language while describing the system of another language. For example the first Latin grammar "De Lingua Latina" (117-27 BC) by Varron[32] was compiled with the use of the ancient Greek language grammars compiled by Greek philosophers. Varron distinguished six cases (5 in Latin), article and seven parts of speech. The first English Grammars were later compiled on the model of "De Lingua Latina" where Latin served a meta or etalon language .

Also while studying certain categories of one language scholars very often use the models of more researched languages, e.g. the ancient Indian models of compound

---

[32] Иванов В.В, Топоров В.Н. Санскрит. М., 1960, с. 125-127

words are used to describe many European languages (dvandva, tatpurusu, dvigu, etc.).

II.The second factor is the appearance of scientific comparative works. Language comparison started with comparison of two languages. Later there appeared multi language comparisons based on substantial similarity i.e. mainly genetically related languages or groups of languages were compared. The nest stage was comparison of genetically non-related languages. Structural similarity is related to identity of structure and types languages in the principles of their organization. Some languages have both genetic and structural identity. Usually these are genetically related languages. Currently the most elaborated part of linguistic comparison is grammatical typology. Its component – morphological typology is based on the study of morphemic structure typical for a certain languages.

A more systemic comparison starts with the Port Royal Grammar where French, Latin, Greek and ancient Jewish/ Ides languages were analyzed. The latter did not have material identity with the rest three languages. The Port Royal Grammar was extremely popular and gave an impetus for rapid development of comparative studies.

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

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

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

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

SEMINAR #3

1. Major parameters identifying the branches of Linguistic typology:

- System/Structural identity;

- Genetic identity;

- Quantitative limitation/non-limitation;

- Areal limitation;

- Etic/emic identity

- Deep and Surface identity

- One level approach to comparison;

- Cross-level approach to comparison;

- Content approach;

- Formal approach;

- Limitation of etalon language;

-Completion of typological operations.

3. Exercises on the analysis of major parameters for identifying different branches

of Linguistic typology.

SEMINAR #3. Small Group #1

1. *Discuss with the group and provide examples for system/structural identity/non-identity. Compare the English and Uzbek (Russian) languages using the categorial notion of **age**.*

   *Discuss with the group and provide examples for genetic identity/non-identity in the group of Turkic and/or Indo-European languages using the category of **numerals (or family relationship**).*

SEMINAR #3.Small Group #2

1. *Discuss with the group and provide examples for Etic/Emic and Deep and Surface identity /non-identity for the group of Turkic languages (Uzbek, Kazakh, Kyrgyz, etc).*

2. *Discuss with the group and provide examples for One level and Cross-level approaches to comparison. Use the categorial notion of **gender** and compare Russian, Uzbek and English languages*

SEMINAR #3. Small Group

1. *Discuss with the group and provide examples for Content and Formal approaches*

*to comparison of languages. Compare English and Uzbek/Russian languages using: a) the system of **alphabets; and b) the notion of color** in compared languages.*

2. *Discuss with the group and provide examples for a complete typological operation where the meta/etalon language of comparison is the category of number in Turkic languages (Uzbek, Kazakh, Kyrgyz, etc.)*

Supplementary Material for SEMINAR #3

Major Parameters Identifying the Branches of Linguistic typology

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

    I.   System/Structural identity

    II.   Genetic identity

    III.   Quantitative limitation/non-limitation

    IV.   Areal limitation

    V.   Etic/emic identity

    VI.   Deep and Surface identity

    VII.   One level approach to comparison

    VIII. Cross-level approach to comparison

    IX.   Content approach

    X.   Formal approach

    XI.   Limitation of etalon language

    XII.   Completion of typological operations.

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

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

 b) *The type IN language* is related to the structural features typical for a certain language. E.g. the degree of synthetism/analytism of grammatical forms, presence of phonetic changes (fusion (печь –пеку), agglutination (болаларнинг), inclusion/exclusion of grammatical morphemes (5 pens, бешта бола, etc).

II. *The Genetic identity* means historically conditioned material identity of cross language elements characterized by both etic and emic identity (mother (Eng). Muter (Germ); ona (uzb.) – ene (Azer); бир, икки, уч, турт – the numerals are the same for the group of Turkic languages.

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

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

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

    s

-(e)s   z - -en (oxen)

    iz

Uzb –им (ювиндим) - Russian – ся (умылся) emic identity is observed between these languages in expressing reflexivity.

VI. *Deep and surface identity*.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Languages	Indicators	Examples
Uzbek	-рок	кизилрок, узунрок
Kazakh	-рак-рек-ырак-iрек	кызылырак саырак, корирек
Kyrgyz	-Раак-ырак	чонуараак, жакшыраак
Turkmen	-Рак-рек	гызылырак гогрек
Uygur	-Рак –рек	кирирак, кимматрек
Karakalpak	-Рак-рек-ырак-ирек	халлырак, петиуссызырак,

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

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

DEEP STRUCTURE

A)Minimal   *B)Typological*   *C) Maximal*

(one language)   (a group of languages)   (several

                                                    groups of languages with common structure)

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

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

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

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

XI. *Limitation of etalon language*. Etalon language is the object of study for typological theory. It represents all languages of the world in one language[33] For applied purposes scholars distinguish 2 types of etalon language: (1)maximum and (2)minimum) ; (1) is used to identify linguistic universals; (2) has a very applied character : any grammatical or lexical category, linguistic phenomenon, certain features of a language might serve etalon or instrument for comparison. E.g. Latin was used for compiling first English and French Grammars. Some scholars prefer to use the term *meta language*

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

SEMINAR #3. Supplementary material for small groups.

---

[33] Рождественский Ю.В. Типология слова .М., 2007

1. *Examples on system/structural identity/non-identity while comparing the English and Uzbek (Russian) languages using the categorial notion of **age**.*

The Morphological level :

English	Uzbek

Thirties   ўттиз**лар**да (га)

(she was in her thirties)   У ўттизларда эди   (Ўттизларга

борган..)

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

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

Узб	*Каз*	*Кирг*	*Англ.*
Икки	еқи	эки	one
Уч	ўш	ўш	two
Тўрт	торт	торт	three
Олти	алты	алты	six
Етти	жеті	жети	seven
Саккиз	сегіз	сегиз	eight
Тўккиз	тоғыз	тоғуз	nine
Ўн	он	он	ten

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

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

Uzbek	Karakalp	English
Қизлар	қызлер	girls
Йигитлар	жигитлер	boys

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

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

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

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

Russian	*English*	*Uzbek*
Секретарь	he secretary	қотиб
Секретарша	she secretary	қотиба
Коза	she goat	хунажин эчки

Козел   he goat   урғочи эчки

5. Examples on Content and Formal approach to comparison of English and
Uzbek/Russian languages using: a) the system of alphabets; b) the notion of color in
compared languages.

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

E.g.

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

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

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

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

Russian	*English*	*Uzbek*
алый	scarlet	қирмиз
голубой	blue	хаво ранг
зеленый	green	яшил,кўк
светло-зеленый	bright green	оч яшил
ярко-красный	deep red	қип кизил

Only in Uzbek the morphological way (*repetition*) of formation of the notion of
color is used, in particular, repetition: kip-kizil, kum-kuk, yap-yashil, etc.

6. *Examples on the complete typological operation* where the meta/etalon language of comparison is the category of number in Turkic languages (Uzbek, Kazakh, Kyrgyz, etc.)[34]

SEMINAR #4

1. ***Genetic/Genealogical Typology:***
a. ***Genetic diachronic***
b. ***Genetic synchronic***
c. ***distinctive features of Genetic Typology***
2. *Areal Typology*
Subject –matter and distinctive features of Areal Typology
3. *Exercises in defining types of themes studied in the frames of Genetic and Areal Typology*

SEMINAR #4. Small group discussions.

Notes for the teacher:
While preparing for this seminar the students need to structure their comparative analyses around genetic and areal similarities/differences around different levels of linguistic hierarchy(in case of various versions of the English language) and around the phonetic/phonological diversities(in case of dialects) .

SEMINAR #4. Small group #1

---

[34] Дж.Буранов. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков. М., 1983, с. 191 -243.

Prove that Uzbek and Kazakh (Kyrgyz, Karakalpak) are genetically related languages. Provide examples.

SEMINAR #4. Small group #2

Provide differences/similarities of different dialects of the Uzbek language.

SEMINAR #4. Small group #3

Prove that English and German (French, Spanish) are genetically related languages. Provide examples.

SEMINAR #4. Small group #4

Provide major differences of the British and American English.

SEMINAR #4. Small group #5

Provide examples of interaction of sub-stratum and super-stratum languages. (influence of Russian to Uzbek language (during the soviet period) or English and Latin (during the Roman conquest /the Middle English period).

SEMINAR #4. Small group #6

Dwell on Genealogical classification of languages. Provide examples on different genetic groups or families of related languages. Prove why they are genetically related.

Supplementary material for SEMINAR #4
The Genetic/Genealogical typology

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

Its origin was stipulated by the discovery of Sanskrit, the ancient classical language of India. The discovery of Sanskrit disclosed the possibility of a comparative study of languages. The concept of relative languages was confirmed by the existence in India of a sisterhood of familiar European languages:

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

Dvau-two, Trayah – three

As ti - he is, etc.

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

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

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

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

Genetic typology has the following distinctive features:

a) genetic limitation of compared languages;

b) system identity in closely related languages;

c) closed list of compared languages;

d) areal non-limitation;

e) etic/emic identity of compared languages;

f) deep and surface identity of compared languages;

g) one level approach to comparison;

h) limited etalon language;

i) possibility of a complete typological operation.

The Genealogical classification of languages[35]

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

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

We find that languages are related to each other both in the material they possess (words etc.) as -well as in the method by which they express themselves (syntax). It seems that the languages of one group are all traceable to a 'common ancestor', and that each has varied according to the environment in which it found itself. Thus the

---

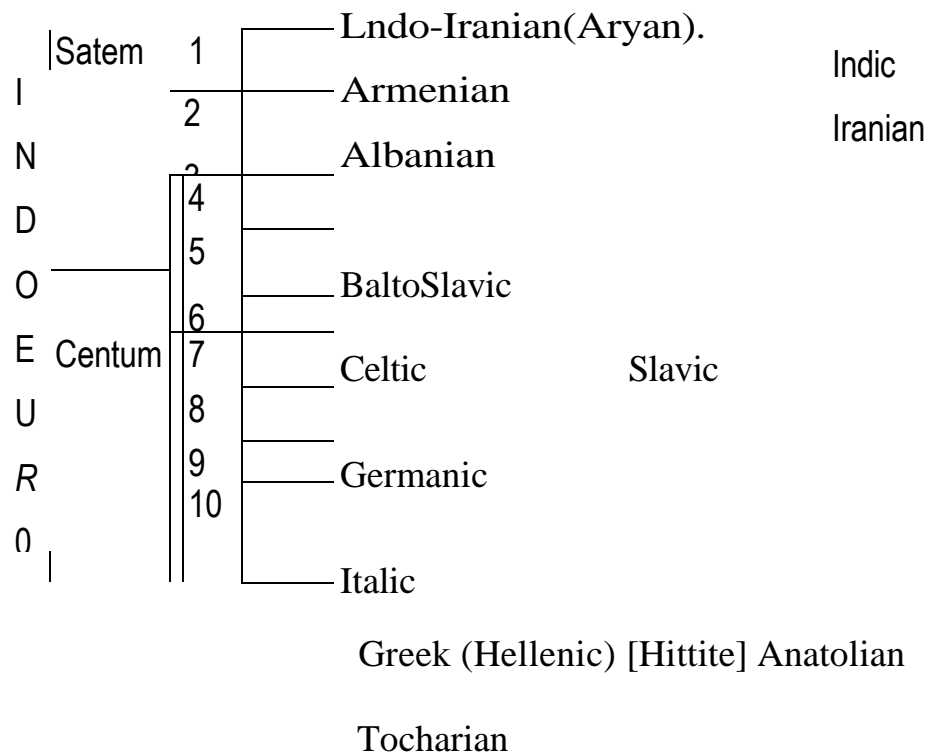35 http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_family

obvious similarity what .are known as the Aryan languages of India points to such a common ancestry   Similarly English, German, Dutch and Danish are traceable to another such common ancestor and so also French, Italian and Spanish to a third common ancestor. Going one step further back, we can trace each three ancestors to a type which was, in turn, the ancestor of all these three and that ancestor is known as 'Indo-European family . This classification is clearly explained by the term 'Genealogical classification of languages."

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

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

 SATEM GROUP' Indo -Iranian, formerly also called Aryan or Indo-Aryan, is the name of this sub-group which was carried to the area of India and Iran. It consists of two sub-groups -Indic and Iranian of which the former is: more important, for materials in Iranian date from a considerably later period and are less abundant.

```
 |Satem    1 ┌──── Lndo-Iranian(Aryan).                    Indic
I           ┌┴──── Armenian
N          2│                                              Iranian
            │───── Albanian
D          ┌4┤
O          │5│─────
E  Centum  │ │───── BaltoSlavic
U          │6│
R          │7│───── Celtic              Slavic
 |         │8│
0          │9│───── Germanic
           10│
             └───── Italic
```

Greek (Hellenic) [Hittite] Anatolian

Tocharian

The essential Indic material is contained in the Rigveda, a collection of hymns which is as large as Jihad and Odyssey combined. As Rigveda and other vedas were considered sacred, they were memorized and transmitted orally for many generations. The language of vedas became obsolete and difficult to interpret Their devotees prepared commentaries. Among these were grammarins which informed later generation of priests how to interpret hymns, even how to pronounce them. The result of such linguistic analysis was a standardized language, so completely described and regulated [Sanskrata] that it underwent few further changes. This Sanskrata is known to us as Sanskrit which is dated several centimes before 400 BC with its greatest grammarian Panini. Because of its religious associations, Sanskrit is in daily use today

Besides Sanskrit there existed spoken languages called Prakrata, Prakrits Moreover, the classical works of Indian literature were composed in Sanskrit such as "Ram ay an a* and "Mahabharata"   We have three stages of "Indic-vedic Sanskrit*, the language of approximately 1200-800 BC; the classical Sanskrit, succeeding it and standardized approximately 400 BC and the Prakrits. Vedic and classical Sanskrit are often referred to as Old Indic, and the Prakrits as Middle Indic which may date about

400 BC to 1000 AD   The Middle Indic dialect on which we have most information is Pali; the language in which Buddhist canon is preserved. At the end of the Middle Indic period we have materials known as Apbhramsas meaning 'off-branching' From Apbhramsas developed the modern Indic dialects. Most widely spoken of these is Hindi. Others are Urdu, Bengali, Gujarati, Marathi, Punjabi, Sinhalese in Ceylon and Romany, the language of Gypsies.

 1.   IRANIAN: Iranian materials are as old Iranian before 300 BC. and handed down to us in two dialects - Avestan and Old Persian. The Avesta is the sacred book of Zoroastrian religion. Its oldest poems Gaoas are dated approximately 600 BC and are as archaic in language as those of Rigveda through much more troubled, in transmission and accordingly very difficult to interpret. Old Persian is preserved in the inscription of Darius (521 -4 S 6 BC) and Xerxes (486-465 BC). The inscriptions of greatest importance is a long triangular text in Old Persian, Akkadian and Elamite which was chiseled on a stone cliff at Behistan, Iran.

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

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

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

Modem Armenian exists in two branches: the Eastern, spoken in the USSR and Iran, and the Western spoken in Turkey.

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

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

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

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

CENTUM GROUP' Centum splits into two main groups: Brythonic and Goidelic, the former represented by (a) Walsh (b) Cornish (no longer spoken) (c) Bacton and the latter by (a) Irish (b) Gaelic and (e) Marx.

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

Then we have Italian m this group. It. includes Latin, Umbrian and Oscan. The modem Romance languages - French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese and Romanian - are derived from the Lingua Romantica of the Roman soldiery

Though there are few speakers of Greek or Hellenic today, it divides itself into - Altic, Ionic, Done and Aeolic. Modem Greek is equally rich in dialect

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

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

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

Centum and Satem Languages[36]

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

The discovery of sound laws in the 1860's helped to establish the foundation of comparative Indo-European linguistics. It is upon such regularly occurring sound laws that allowed comparisons to be made; exceptions to the laws needed to be explained.

---

[36] Deborah Anderson, Department of Linguistics, University of California, Berkeley, 2007

http://linguistics.berkeley.edu/~rscook/pdf/RSCook-Vita.pdf,

Today the study of IE linguistics draws on work done in phonetics, dialectology, typology, and other fields but the basis of comparison still rests on the set of correspondences between the languages.

An important Indo-European isogloss

By examining the words for *"hundred"* from various Indo-European languages an important pattern can be observed:

Lang. Family	Language	Word for 'hundred'

____

Lang. Family	Language	Word for 'hundred'
Indo-Iranian	Sanskrit	satam [acute on s and last a]
	Avestan	satem [e is upside down]
Baltic	Lithuanian	simtas [hacek on first s, squiggly line above m]
Slavic	Old Church Slavic	suto [short mark above u]
Italic	Latin	centum
Greek	Greek	hekaton [acute on o]
Celtic	Old Irish	cet [long mark over the e]
	Welsh	cant
Germanic	English	hund-red

(Note: original k-sound becomes a sound represented here by an h via a regular process in Germanic)

Lang. Family	Language	Word for 'hundred'
Tocharian	Tocharian	kant [umlaut over a]

In Sanskrit, Avestan, Lithuanian, and Old Church Slavic the initial consonant appears as an s- (or sh-) sound (a sibilant), whereas Greek, Latin, Old Irish, Welsh, English, and Tocharian have a k- sound ("a" velar or a palato-velar). This correspondence, mirrored in

many other word sets, was identified as an important Indo-European isogloss (a boundary line that can be drawn based upon a particular linguistic feature): Indo-Iranian, Baltic, Slavic, Albanian, and Armenian have a sibilant for PIE "k" whereas Greek, Latin, Celtic, Germanic and Tocharian maintain the k- sound.   Those languages with the" s"- (sh-) sound are classified satem (after the 'hundred' word in Avestan),Those which have a "k"- sound are the centum languages (after the Latin word).

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

The satem/centum grouping holds fairly well for the outcomes of other dorsals (that is, all kinds of k-sounds) in Indo-European. The example above demonstrates the outcome for PIE *k' [k with an acute above it or k' can be used].   By looking at various correspondences, a table can be created showing the various outcomes in the different languages . The reconstructed Proto-Indo-European form is on the left, the outcomes which appear in cognate words to the right.

Series One: Velars / Palato-velars

S A T E M   C E N T U M

PIE	Skt	Av	OCS	Lith	Arm	Toch.	Hitt.	Greek	Latin	OIr	Gothic
*k'	s!	s	s	s/	s	k, s/	k	k	c	c	h, g
*g'	j	z	z	z/	c	k, s/	k	g	g	g	k
*g'h	h	z	z	z/	j, z	k, s/	k	kh	h, g	g	g

Genetic Classification of Languages by Joseph Greenberg[37]

The languages of Africa

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

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

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

Greenberg's work on African languages has been criticized by <u>Lyle Campbell</u> and Donald Ringe, who do not feel that his classification is justified by his data and request a reexamination of his macro-phyla by "reliable methods" (Ringe 1993:104). Even <u>Harold Fleming</u> and <u>Lionel Bender</u>, who are sympathetic to Greenberg's classification, acknowledge that at least some of his macrofamilies (particlularly Nilo-Saharan and Khoisan) are not fully accepted by the linguistic community and

may need to be split up (Campbell 1997). Neither Campbell nor Ringe is an African specialist. Their objection is methodological: if mass comparison is not a valid method, it cannot have successfully brought order out of the chaos of African languages.

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

The languages of New Guinea, Tasmania and the Andaman Islands

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

The languages of the Americas

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

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

The languages of Northern Eurasia

Later in his life, Greenberg proposed that nearly all of the language families of northern Eurasia belong to a single higher-order family, which he called Eurasiatic. The only exception was Yeniseian, which has been related to a wider Dené-Caucasian grouping also including Sino-Tibetan, and most recently to the Na-Dené languages of North America in a Dené-Yeniseian family by Edward Vajda.

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

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

The Areal Typology

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

The major parameters of Areal typology are the following:

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

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

The Areal classification of languages.

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

SEMINAR #4. SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL FOR SMALL GROUP DISCUSSIONS.

The Uzbek dialects

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

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

according to the use of the initial consonants. This classification was developed by the Russian scientist A.K. Borovkov[38].

The modern Uzbek literary language is based on the Tashkent-Fergana "0" dialect group. An old Uzbek literary language had emerged by the 13th century (by the 15th or 16th cc. according to some scholars); opinion is divided on its definition and designation. Uzbek phonology is marked by the absence of long vowels in word initial position. Secondary length results from the loss of consonant assimilated into vowels. Certain vowels may be lengthened for emphasis. The main dialects lack synharmonic vowel alternation and division of affixes into front and back. Uzbek grammatical structure, which in common with all Turkic languages is agglutinative. Uzbek was written in Arabic script until 1927 and in the Latin Alphabet from 1927 to 1940, when the Cyrillic alphabet was introduced. Since the mid-90's, Latin has again been adopted as the official alphabet.[39]

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

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

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

The Russian dialects

---

[38] Боровков А.К. Агглютинация в тюркских языках. –Морфологическая типология и проблема классификации языков. М.,-Л., 1965
[39] http://www.orexca.com/uzbek_language.shtm

Northern dialects are characterized by a number of words like, изба ('log hut'), квашня, озимь ('winter crop'), лаять ('to bark'), ухват, орать ('to plough'), жито ('rye'), беседки ('gathering'), шибко ('very much'), баской ('beautiful') and others.

Northern dialects   1. Arkhangelsk dialect   2. Olonets dialect   3. Novgorod dialect   4. Vyatka dialect   5. Vladimir dialect

Central dialects   6. Moscow dialect   7. Tver dialect

Southern dialects

8. Orel (Don) dialect   9. Ryazan dialect   10. Tula dialect   11. Smolensk dialect

Other dialects are: 12. Northern Russian dialect with Belorussian influences

13. Sloboda and Steppe dialects of Ukrainian language   14. Steppe dialect of Ukrainian with Russian influences

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

The northern Russian dialects and those spoken along the Volga River typically pronounce unstressed /o/ clearly (the phenomenon called okanye/оканье). East of Moscow, particularly in Ryazan Region, unstressed /e/ and /a/ following palatalized consonants and preceding a stressed syllable are not reduced to [э] (like in the Moscow dialect), being instead pronounced /a/ in such positions (e.g. несли is pronounced [нясли], not [несли]) - this is called yakanye/ яканье; many southern dialects have a palatalized final /г/ in 3rd person forms of verbs (this is unpalatalized in the standard dialect) and a fricative where the standard dialect has [г]. However, in certain areas south of Moscow, e.g. in and around Tula, /г/ is pronounced as in the

Moscow and northern dialects unless it precedes a voiceless plosive or a pause. In this position /г;/ is lenited and devoiced to the fricative [x], e.g. друг [drux] (in Moscow's dialect, only Бог [box], лёгкий (лехкий), мягкий [мяхкий] and some derivatives follow this rule). Some of these features (e.g. a debuccalized or lenited /г;/ and palatalized final /г/ in 3rd person forms of verbs) are also present in modern Ukrainian, indicating either a linguistic continuum and/or strong influence one way or the other.

The city of Veliky Novgorod has historically displayed a feature called chokanye/tsokanye (чоканье/цоканье), where /tS;/ and /ts/ were confused. So, цапля ("heron") has been recorded as 'чапля'. Also, the second palatalization of velars did not occur there, so the so-called ě² (from the Proto-Slavonic diphthong *ai) did not cause /k x/ to shift to /ts, dz, s/; therefore where Standard Russian has цепь ("chain"), the form кепь [kx] is attested in earlier texts.

Among the first to study Russian dialects was Lomonosov in the eighteenth century. In the nineteenth, Vladimir Dal compiled the first dictionary that included dialectal vocabulary. Detailed mapping of Russian dialects began at the turn of the twentieth century. In modern times, the monumental Dialectological Atlas of the Russian Language (Диалектологический атлас русского языка), was published in three folio volumes 1986-1989, after four decades of preparatory work.

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

Southern Russian dialects are the dialects of a group of Russian dialects. Such dialects are widespread around Tula, Ryazan, Oryol, Tambov and the greater parts of Kaluga, Voronezh, and Kursk Oblasts as well as partially in a southern part of the Penza and western part Saratov Don Voisko Oblasts.

Common differences from Standard Russian include a lenited pronunciation of /g/ as [г] .

Major differences of the British (BE) and American English (AE)[40].

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

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

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

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

Phonetic differences between BE and AE are quite numerous,

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

(л) instead of (o) hot dog

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

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

Morphological differences include, but are not limited to:

"Gotten" in AE instead of "got" in BE: "You never would have gotten anything like this in Paris"

"proved/proven", "sweat/sweated"

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

---

[40] Summary from Швейцер А.А. Литературный английский язык в США и Англии., М., 1971

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

Lexical differences are of various character: they maybe divergents when the words differ in their meaning while coincide in their form:

"faculty" –AE university teacher,

"dresser' AE –a toilet table , "kitchen board" in BE

"billion" – milliard AE; "billion in BE"

AE   BE

Can-opener – tin-opener;

Administration –government

Mail –post

Grocery –grocer's shop

WC, washing room - Lady's room, men's room

Check – bill

Luggage - baggage, etc.

SEMINAR #5

1. Structural typology and its parts:

- *Linguistic Universals;*

- *Etalon Language;*

- *Typological Classification;*

- *Typological classification of Edward Sapir.*

- *Typological theory*

2. *Exercises on different types of typological classifications of languages*

SEMINAR #5. *Small groups discussions*

SEMINAR #5. Small group #1

Dwell on Linguistic Universals. Provide examples.

What is the Etalon Language? Provide different definitions and types of the Etalon language

SEMINAR #5. Small group #3

Dwell on the Typological Classification. What is the difference between typological and genealogical classification of languages? Provide examples.

SEMINAR #5. Small group #4

Dwell on the Typological classification of Edward Sapir.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL FOR SEMINAR #5
The Structural typology

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

Some scholars consider Structural typology an independent branch of General Linguistics. It is connected with Comparative Linguistics and Theory of Linguistic Methods[41]

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

Major parameters of Structural typology are:

- Indifference to system identity;

- Indifference to genetic identity;

- Open list of compared languages/quantitative non-limitation

- Areal non-limitation;

- Possibility of deep and surface identity.

- Indifference to etic –emic identity

- Mostly one level approach to comparison;

- Relatively unlimited etalon language;

- Complete typological operation in case of linguistic universals

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

The notion of Linguistic Universals appeared in 1961 at the Congress of Linguists in New York where J. Greenburg, J. Jenkins and I. Osgood proposed a Memorandum on Language/Linguistic Universals[42]. They defined it as follows: "A Linguistic Universal is a certain feature specific to all languages of the world or the language per se."

The universals may be classified according to various principles. For example, according to the statistic principle there are unrestricted (absolute or full) universals opposed to restricted (relative, partial) universals (some scholars prefer the term

---

[41] Рождественский Ю.В. Типология слова. М., 2007
[42] Гринберг Дж., Осгуд И., Дженкинс Дж. Меморандум о языковых универсалиях В сб. – Новое в лингвистике., М., 1970, вып V

"tendency" instead of "universal"). According to language hierarchy there are phonetic, morphological, lexical and syntactic universals. deductive and inductive; synchronic and diachronic; universals of speech and universals of language. For example, universals related to the levels of language hierarchy:

UNIVERSAL TYPE   **UNIVERSAL PHENOMENON**

PHONETIC: all languages have vowels and consonants

MORPHOLOGICAL: a) in most languages words are structured into morphemes

b) morphemes function as full and auxiliary elements

LEXICAL: a) in all languages vocabulary is a system of semantic fields;

    b) in all languages there is polysemy, synonymy, antonymy

SYNTACTIC: in all languages there is a distribution of SUBJECT- VERB-OBJECT (SVO in the sentence

Examples of full universals:
 "If a language has discreet morphemes, there are either pre-fixation or suffixation or both of them". "If a language is exclusively suffixational, it is a language with post-fixes. If a language is exclusively prefixational, it is a language with prefixes ". There are different types of articulating and describing linguistic universals: descriptive and formal (with the help of special symbols).

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

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

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

At mediaeval times Latin was usually used to compare other languages (Grammar of Port Royal) but because Latin grammatical structure is rather complicated now it is often suggested to take an amorphous language as a meta language or turn either to a linguistic category or a postulate.

Below are some more examples of etalon languages:

a) specially created artificial language;

b) an existing language with well-developed system;

c) certain sign system;

d) certain linguistic method;

e) phonetic, morphological , syntactic or other models;

f) intermediary language;

g) Language of translation, etc.

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

III. **_Typological classification_** is …"opposed to genetic/genealogical classification and is bound to classifying languages according to their taxonomic /systemic features and defining structural types of languages" _. (V. Solntzev)_[43].

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

---

[43] Солнцев В.М. Язык как системно- структурное образование. М., 1978

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

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

According to the M*orphological classification* the languages are divided into:

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

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

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

1. Ta ch fàn le.- he eats food

2. Past Ta che le fàn - 'He ate the food.'.

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

Examples in Latin (Nom Sg=nominative singular, NomPl=nominative plural, AccSg=accusative singular, AccPl=accusative plural, 3Sg=third person singular, 3Pl=third person plural):

1. Custos fidelis consulem veterem ducit.

NomSg NomSg AccSg AccSg 3Sg

guard trusty consul old is leading

'The trusty guard is leading the old consul.'

2. Custodes fideles consules veteres ducunt.

NomPl/AccPl NomPl/AccPl NomPl/AccPl NomPl/AccPl 3Pl

'The trusty guards are leading the old consuls.'

'The old guards are leading the trusty consuls.'

'The trusty consuls are leading the old guards.'

'The old consuls are leading the trusty guards.'

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

Examples in Estonian [44]

1. Ta on kohvikus.

he is coffee–house–in

'He is in the coffee house.'

2. Lähme kohvikusse.

go–we coffee–house–into

'Let us go into the coffee house.'

3. Ma tulen uuest kohvikust.

I come new–from coffee–house–from

'I am coming out of the new coffee house.'

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

 Examples in Ayacucho[45]

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

1. riku–yki 'I see you.'

2. riku–yki–…ik 'I see you all.'

3. riku–yki–ku 'We see you.'

riku: 'see'

yki: first person singular actor and second person singular object

…ik: marks object as plural

ku: marks actor as plural

4. riku–wanki 'You see me.'

---

[44] Adapted from Oinas, F., *Basic Course in Estonian*, Indiana University, 1966:

[45] *Ayacucho Dictionary*, Mouton, 1969

5. riku–wanki–…ik 'You all see me.'

6. riku–wanki–ku 'We see you.'

wanki: second person singular actor and first person singular object

…ik: marks actor as plural

ku: marks object as plural

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

Typological and genealogical classifications complement each other. A special place in elaboration of the typological classification belongs to Edward Sapir. Establishing types is not a goal, but a means to find universals and measure the degree of proximity of languages under analysis and qualify the specific structure of each.

> *V.* **_Typological theory_** defines common linguistic notions used in linguistic typology. Typological theory is used to define language isomorphism (common features) and allomorphism (differentiating signs).

Linguistic Universals[46]

1. Wherever humans exist, language exists.

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

3. All languages change through time. 4. The relationship between the sounds and meanings of spoken languages and between the gestures (signs) and meanings of sign languages are for the most part arbitrary. 5. All human languages utilize a finite set of discrete sounds (or gestures) that are combined to form meaningful elements or words, which themselves form an infinite set of possible sentences.

---

[46] Fromkin Victoria & Rodman Robert, Introduction to Language 1988, http://www.amazon.com/Introduction-Language-Victoria-Fromkin/dp/015508481X

6. All grammars contain rules for the formation of words and sentences of a similar kind.

7. Every spoken language includes discrete sound segments like p, n, or a, which can be defined by a finite set of sound properties or features. Every spoken language has a class of vowels and a class of consonants.

8. Similar grammatical categories (for example, noun, verb) are found in all languages.

9. There are semantic universals, such as "male" or "female," "animate" or "human," found in every language in the world.

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

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

12. Syntactic universals reveal that every language has a way of forming sentences such as:

Linguistics is an interesting subject.

I know that linguistics is an interesting subject.

You know that I know that linguistics is an interesting subject.

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

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

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

Edward Sapir's Classification of Languages[47]

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

There is a fourth reason why the classification of languages has generally proved a fruitless undertaking. It is probably the most powerful deterrent of all to clear thinking. This is the evolutionary prejudice which instilled itself into the social sciences towards the middle of the last century and which is only now beginning to abate its tyrannical hold on our mind. Intermingled with this scientific prejudice and largely anticipating it was another, a more human one. The vast majority of linguistic theorists themselves spoke languages of a certain type, of which the most fully developed varieties were the Latin and Greek that they had learned in their childhood. It was not difficult for them to be persuaded that these familiar languages represented the "highest" development that speech had yet attained and that all other types were but steps on the way to this beloved "inflective" type. Whatever conformed to the pattern of Sanskrit and Greek and Latin and

German was accepted as expressive of the "highest," whatever departed from it was frowned upon as a shortcoming or was at best an interesting aberration.

Now any classification that starts with preconceived values or that works up to sentimental satisfactions is self-condemned as unscientific. A linguist that insists on talking about the Latin type of morphology as though it were necessarily the high-water mark of linguistic development is like the zoölogist that sees in the organic world a huge conspiracy to evolve the race-horse or the Jersey cow. Language in its fundamental forms is the symbolic expression of human intuitions. These may shape themselves in a hundred ways, regardless of the material advancement or backwardness of the people that handle the forms, of which, it need hardly be said, they are in the main unconscious. If, therefore, we wish to understand language in its true inwardness we must disabuse our minds of preferred "values" and accustom ourselves to look upon English and Hottentot with the same cool, yet interested, detachment.

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

with an exuberant display of "outer form," leaving the pure relations to be merely inferred from the context.

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

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

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

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

There is clearly a world of difference between a prefixing language like Cambodian, which limits itself, so far as its prefixes (and infixes) are concerned, to the expression of derivational concepts, and the Bantu languages, in which the prefixed elements have a far-reaching significance as symbols of syntactic relations. The classification has much greater value if it is taken to refer to the expression of relational concepts 9 alone. In this modified form we shall return to it as a subsidiary criterion. We shall find that the terms "isolating," "affixing," and "symbolic" have a real value. But instead of distinguishing between prefixing and suffixing languages, we shall find that it is of superior interest to make another distinction, one that is based on the relative firmness with which the affixed elements are united with the core of the word.

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

The three terms are purely quantitative—and relative, that is, a language may be "analytic" from one standpoint, "synthetic" from another. I believe the terms are more useful in defining certain drifts than as absolute counters. It is often illuminating to

point out that a language has been becoming more and more analytic in the course of its history or that it shows signs of having crystallized from a simple analytic base into a highly synthetic form.

We now to come to the difference between an "inflective" and an "agglutinative" language. As I have already remarked, the distinction is a useful, even a necessary, one, but it has been generally obscured by a number of irrelevancies and by the unavailing effort to make the terms cover all languages that are not, like Chinese, of a definitely isolating cast. The meaning that we had best assign to the term "inflective" can be gained by considering very briefly what are some of the basic features of Latin and Greek that have been looked upon as peculiar to the inflective languages. First of all, they are synthetic rather than analytic. This does not help us much. Relatively to many another language that resembles them in broad structural respects, Latin and Greek are not notably synthetic; on the other hand, their modern descendants, Italian and Modern Greek, while far more analytic 13 than they, have not departed so widely in structural outlines as to warrant their being put in a distinct major group. An inflective language, we must insist, may be analytic, synthetic, or polysynthetic.

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

camouflages," from an adjective jazzy proceeds with perfect ease the noun jazziness. It is different with height and depth.

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

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

What is true of fusion of equally true of the "symbolic" processes. 14 There are linguists that speak of alternations like drink and drank as though they represented the high-water mark of inflection, a kind of spiritualized essence of pure inflective form. In such Greek forms, nevertheless, as pepomph-a "I have sent," as contrasted with pemp-o "I send," with its trebly symbolic change of the radical element (reduplicating pe-, change of e to o, change of p to ph), it is rather the peculiar alternation of the first person singular -a of the perfect with the -o of the present that gives them their inflective cast. Nothing could be more erroneous than to imagine that symbolic

changes of the radical element, even for the expression of such abstract concepts as those of number and tense, is always associated with the syntactic peculiarities of an inflective language.

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

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

Where there is uncertainty about the juncture, where the affixed element cannot rightly claim to possess its full share of significance, the unity of the complete word is more strongly emphasized. The mind must rest on something. If it cannot linger on the

constituent elements, it hastens all the more eagerly to the acceptance of the word as a whole. A word like goodness illustrates "agglutination," books "regular fusion," depth "irregular fusion," geese "symbolic fusion" or "symbolism."

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

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

Instructive forms may be cited from Nootka. We shall return to our "fire in the house." The Nootka word inikw-ihl "fire in the house" is not as definitely formalized a word as its translation suggests. The radical element inikw- "fire" is really as much of a verbal as of a nominal term; it may be rendered now by "fire," now by "burn," according to the syntactic exigencies of the sentence. The derivational element -ihl "in the house" does not mitigate this vagueness or generality; inikw-ihl is still "fire in the house" or "burn in the house." It may be definitely nominalized or verbalized by the affixing of elements that are exclusively nominal or verbal in force. For example, inikw-ihl-'i, with its suffixed article, is a clear-cut nominal form: "the burning in the

house, the fire in the house"; inikw-ihl-ma, with its indicative suffix, is just as clearly verbal: "it burns in the house." How weak must be the degree of fusion between "fire in the house" and the nominalizing or verbalizing suffix is apparent from the fact that the formally indifferent inikwihl is not an abstraction gained by analysis but a full-fledged word, ready for use in the sentence. The nominalizing -'i and the indicative -ma are not fused form-affixes, they are simply additions of formal import. But we can continue to hold the verbal or nominal nature of inikwihl in abeyance long before we reach the -'i or -ma.

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

To return to inflection. An inflective language like Latin or Greek uses the method of fusion, and this fusion has an inner psychological as well as an outer phonetic

meaning. But it is not enough that the fusion operate merely in the sphere of derivational concepts (group II), it must involve the syntactic relations, which may either be expressed in unalloyed form (group IV) or, as in Latin and Greek, as "concrete relational concepts" (group III).

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

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

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

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

It is well to recall that all languages must needs express radical concepts (group I) and relational ideas (group IV). Of the two other large groups of concepts—derivational

(group II) and mixed relational (group III)—both may be absent, both present, or only one present. This gives us at once a simple, incisive, and absolutely inclusive method of classifying all known languages. They are:

A. Such as express only concepts of groups I and IV; in other words, languages that keep the syntactic relations pure and that do not possess the power to modify the significance of their radical elements by means of affixes or internal changes. 19 We may call these Pure-relational non-deriving languages or, more tersely, Simple Pure-relational languages. These are the languages that cut most to the bone of linguistic expression.

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

C. Such as express concepts of groups I and III; 20 in other words, languages in which the syntactic relations are expressed in necessary connection with concepts that are not utterly devoid of concrete significance but that do not, apart from such mixture, possess the power to modify the significance of their radical elements by means of affixes or internal changes. 21 These are the Mixed-relational non-deriving languages or Simple Mixed-relational languages.

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

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

I. Pure-relational Languages

A. Simple

B. Complex

II. Mixed-relational Languages

C. Simple

D. Complex

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

This brings up the important general consideration that the method of handling one group of concepts need not in the least be identical with that used for another. Compound terms could be used to indicate this difference, if desired, the first element of the compound referring to the treatment of the concepts of group II, the second to that of the concepts of groups III and IV.

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

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

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

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

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

Fundamental Type	II	III	IV	Technique	Synthesis	Examples
A						
(Simple Pure-relational)	—	—	a	Isolating	Analytic	Chinese; Annamite
(d)	—	a, b	Isolating (weakly agglutinative)	Analytic	Ewe (Guinea Coast)	
(b)	—	a, b, c	Agglutinative (mildly agglutinative fusional)	Analytic	Modern Tibetan	
B						
(Complex Pure-relational)	b, (d)	—	a	Agglutinative-isolating	Analytic	Polynesian
b	—	a, (b)	Agglutinative-isolating	Polysynthetic	Haida	
c	—	a	Fusional-isolating	Analytic	Cambodian	
b	—	b	Agglutinative	Synthetic	Turkish	
b, d	(b)	b	Agglutinative (symbolic tinge)	Polysynthetic	Yana (N. California)	
c, d, (b)	—	a, b	Fusional-agglutinative (symbolic tinge)	Synthetic (mildly)	Classical Tibetan	

Fundamental Type	II	III	IV	Technique	Synthesis	Examples
	b	—	c	Agglutinative fusional	Synthetic (mildly polysynthetic)	Sioux
	c	—	c	Fusional	Synthetic	Salinan (S.W. California)
	d, c	(d)	d, c, a	Symbolic	Analytic	Shilluk (Upper Nile)

NOTE.—Parentheses indicate a weak development of the process in question.

Fundamental Type	II	III	IV	Technique	Synthesis	Examples
C (Simple Mixed- relational)	(b)	b	—	Agglutinative	Synthetic	Bantu
	(c)	c, (d), a		Fusional	Analytic (mildly synthetic)	French 22a
D (Complex Mixed- relational)	b, c, d	b	b	Agglutinative (symbolic tinge)	Polysynthetic	Nootka (Vancouver Island) 22b
	c, (d)	b	—	Fusional-agglutinative	Polysynthetic (mildly)	Chinook (lower Columbia R.)
	c, (d)	c, (d), (b)	—	Fusional	Polysynthetic	Algonkin
	c	c, d	a	Fusional	Analytic	English
	c, d	c, d	—	Fusional (symbolic tinge)	Synthetic	Latin, Greek, Sanskrit
	c, b, d	c, d	(a)	Fusional (strongly symbolic)	Synthetic	Takelma (S. W. Oregon)
	d, c	c, d	(a)	Symbolic-fusional	Synthetic	Semitic (Arabic, Hebrew)

I need hardly point out that these examples are far from exhausting the possibilities of linguistic structure. Nor that the fact that two languages are similarly classified does not necessarily mean that they present a great similarity on the surface. We are here concerned

with the most fundamental and generalized features of the spirit, the technique, and the degree of elaboration of a given language. Nevertheless, in numerous instances we may observe this highly suggestive and remarkable fact, that languages that fall into the same class have a way of paralleling each other in many details or in structural features not envisaged by the scheme of classification.

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

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

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

Languages are in constant process of change, but it is only reasonable to suppose that they tend to preserve longest what is most fundamental in their structure. Now if we take great groups of genetically related languages.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

SEMINAR #6.

A. Comparative Typology and its major distinctive features.

- *indifference to system identity of compared languages;*
- *indifference to genetic identity of compared languages;*
- *areal non-limitation of compared languages;*
- *maximum quantitative limitation of compared languages;*

- *indifference toward etic/emic identity;*
- *indifference toward deep and surface identity;*
- *content approach to comparison;*
- *cross-level approach to comparison;*
- *limited etalon language (the typological category);*
- *Possibility of a complete typological operation*

B. Exercises on distinctive features of Comparative typology and its relations to other branches of Linguistic typology

SEMINAR #6. Small group #1

1. Dwell on the attitude of Comparative typology toward system and genetic identity. Illustrate on comparison of English and Uzbek/Russian languages.

2. Elaborate on relations between Comparative typology and Characterology.

SEMINAR #6. Small group #2

1. Dwell on the principle of quantitative limitation of compared languages. Provide examples comparing English and Uzbek/Russian languages.

2. Elaborate on relations between Comparative typology and Stylistics.

SEMINAR #6. Small group #3

1.Dwell on the principle of content approach to comparison. Provide examples comparing English and Uzbek/Russian languages.

2.Elaborate on relations between Comparative typology and Lexicography.

SEMINAR #6. Small group #4

1. Provide examples of a complete typological operation comparing English and Uzbek/Russian languages.

2. Elaborate on relations of Comparative typology and Genetic typology.

SEMINAR #6. Small group #5

Dwell on the principle of cross-level approach to comparison. Provide examples comparing English and Uzbek/Russian languages.

Elaborate on relations between Comparative Typology and Structural Typology.

Supplementary material for SEMINAR #6

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

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

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

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

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

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

English – Uzbek

English – a group of Turkic languages, etc.

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

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

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

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

Discipline	Characterology	Typology
List of differential signs	Open	Closed
List of languages	Closed	Open

Comparative typology and Lexicography.

Comparative typology has a direct connection to lexicography as both of them study the comparison and revealing equivalency of language units.

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

Both Comparative typology and Lexicography study the systems of different related and non-related languages. One of those who first compiled an English vocabulary was a school teacher Kodry who began to gather and systemize words which were very difficult for his pupils during the process of the study. His dictionary was completed in 1604 and it is considered to be the first English dictionary.

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

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

A lexicographical process can be divided into two stages.

1. The stage of analysis;

2. The stage of synthesis.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Derivative words have not been studied in terms of their attitude to the case system.

For example: Suffix- en creates verbs with translate-causative meaning.

For example: deepen 1) углубление, делать глубже, становиться глубже.

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

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

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

Lexicographic analysis of proper names taken from the Arabic language is of a special interest while establishing degree of assimilation for proper names. Linguistic typology has played a positive role in creating bilingual English-Turkic and Turkic-English dictionaries. These topics were of special interest for Formal typology which displayed the meaning of proper names. Arabic proper names were not found in, for example, Chinese language. But when a part of China was attacked and occupied by the Muslims the problem of assimilating the Arabic proper names became acute for China too.

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

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

1) Comparative typology and Lexicography analyze systems of two or more languages simultaneously;
2) Compared languages can be genetically related or not related;
3) Comparative typology and Lexicography set an intersystem of comparison allowing for comparison of units belonging to different levels of hierarchy.

SEMINAR #7

I. Branches of Linguistic typology as to the expression and content plans of the language.

I.1. Formal typology

I.2. Semantic typology

II. The Branches of Linguistic Typology as to levels of language hierarchy.

II.1 Phonetic/Phonological Typology;

II.2. Morphological Typology;

II.3. Lexical Typology;

II.4. Syntactic Typology

III. Exercises on distinctive features of the above branches of Linguistic typology.

SEMINAR #7. Small group discussions.

SEMINAR #7. Small group #1

What is the difference between Phonetic and Phonological typology?
Units of which sub-level: etic or emic are in the focus of comparison in the above branches of typology?

How do Phonetic and Phonological typologies contribute to Structural typology?

SEMINAR #7. Small group #2

Semantic typology and Formal typology: differences and similarities in the object of study, tasks and units.

SEMINAR #7. Small group #3

Morphological typology and its tasks.
Strong and weak sides of the Morphological typology. Morphological typology and other branches if linguistic typology: Structural, Areal and Comparative.

SEMINAR #7. Small group #4

Relations between Lexical and Semantic typologies. Semantic typology and deep structure of the language. Role of Semantic typology in identifying linguistic universals. Provide examples of semantic universals.

Supplementary material for SEMINAR #7

The Formal typology.

Formal typology deals with the units of expression plan of the language which belong to various levels of hierarchy.

The ultimate goal of the Formal typology is identifying formal universals. The major tasks of Formal typology embrace but are not limited to the following: a) reveal external or formal features of the language; b) establish common principles of script, e.g. graphic systems, alphabets, system of transcription signs, punctuation; c) establish formal structures of the syllable, composite words, word combinations; d) establish formal structure of the sentence etc.

The formal aspect of the language has not been studied to the necessary level to establish a universal graphic system for all the languages of the world , still the Latin script is now considered to be the most globally used. But the languages adapt it to the specificities of their language in case they decide to utilize it. For example in 1998 the Uzbek language switched to the Latin script after the Cyrillic which was forcefully introduced in 1940 during the Soviet era. After a long debate some special signs were added to the Latin script to reflect the sounds specific for the Uzbek language. E.g. қ, ў, ғ.

Here we can also attribute the questions dealing with external structure of words and sentences in the languages of incorporate and polysynthetic type, studying the principles of shortening and abbreviation.

The world graphical system demands the typological study and needs for improvement. In the Formal typology there are a lot of unsolved questions related to written and oral languages (graphemes, graphology, graphemes, etc).

Formal typology can be studied from a stylistic point of view when figuring out stylistic peculiarities of graphical codes. Comparative analysis plays a great role in study of graphic system of different languages in the process of teaching of foreign languages.

Solving the problem of alphabet unification of different national languages, language groups, families, areals and the world language with consideration of the latest scientific and

technical achievements would reduce the expense of people's time on the study of different alphabets.

The scholars who studied the issues related to Formal typology are: Amirova T., Salomaa A., Arnold I., Scherba L, Uspenskaya A.

The Semantic typology.

Semantic typology is the branch of linguistic typology studying semantic structure of the language and related to the units of content plan. The ultimate goal of Semantic typology is identifying semantic universals which are directly related to the deep structure of the language. The other issues considered in the frames of Semantic typology are: identifying aims and problems of Semantic typology, defining different semantic fields for comparative analysis, grouping words on the basis of semantic signs, defining semantic fields in different languages, creating criteria to define semantic categories, elaboration of the principles of compiling semantic comparative dictionaries and many others.

Some scholars debate that there is no need to distinguish Semantic typology into a separate branch as similar issues are studied under the scope of Lexical typology. The major difference between the two seems to lie in the following: Semantic typology operates with the units of emic level and is indifferent to etic identity of compared languages.

The Semantic typology is indifferent toward etic/emic identity.

The following deep structures that are common to all the languages of the world can be considered as the absolute deep structures or semantic universals: age, color, location, quantity, quality, temporality, definiteness/indefiniteness, personality, reciprocity, etc. On the surface structure the means of expression may refer to various levels of hierarchy, while the content is common.

The scholars dealing with the issues of Semantic typology are Gorodetskiy B., Zevakina T., Budagov R., Slyusareva N., Ufimtzeva A., Martemyanov Yu.

The branches of linguistic typology as to the levels of linguistic hierarchy.

The Linguistic typology operates at all levels of language hierarchy without exception. In other words, it can compare units of phonological, morphological, lexical and syntactic levels. Allocation of those or other units of a certain level depends on various reasons. Firstly, from the character of comparison, i.e. Genetic typology operates mainly with atomic/one level approach and engages mostly with phonetic and morphological levels. The Comparative typology is engaged in revealing cross-level units of compared languages. Secondly, certain levels demand more isolated consideration. For example, the phonological level demands greater isolation. Differentiation of language levels in the process of comparison has certain sense, for without such a differentiation it is impossible to reveal linguistic universals.

The Phonological typology

In comparison with other levels the given level is more isolated and, at the same time, its sections are more developed from the typological point of view. Inside a phonological level actually phonologic and phonetic sublevels are identified.

The Phonological typology deals with comparison of units of the phonologic level of language. It engages in allocation of phonologic differential signs, defining their universality, study of phonologic structure of languages, classification of languages on the basis of their phonologic features (e.g. tonic and atonic languages), defining phonemic structure of world languages and many others. For a long time the Prague linguistic school was the center of Phonological typology. A certain

contribution to development of Phonological typology was made by N.S.Trubetskoy who is considered the founder of Typology of Phonological systems. R.Yakobson , G.Fant, M.Halle also worked in this area. Later other sides of Phonological typology were developed by such scientists as Ch. Hockett , K.Vegelin, T.Milevsky, P.Menzerat, V.Skalichka, A.Martine, M.I.Lekomtseva, T.J.Elizarenkova, Abduazizov A.A., G.P.Melnikov and others.

Major achievements of Phonological typology relate to: the allocated cases phonologic universals, N.S.Trubetskoy's differential signs, I.Kramskoy and P.Kovaleva's quantitative criteria, supra-segmental typological classification on tone and accent by A.Martine's, numerous researches on comparison of phonologic systems of various languages.

The Morphological typology

The circle of research in Morphological typology is very wide. It compares the units of a morphological level. Depending on the character of research the morphological typology can classify into two types:

1) The Morphological typology engaged in the morphological classification of languages;

2) The Morphological typology engaged in particular questions of grammar.

The first one is a continuation of traditional typological classification engaged in defining language types according to different principles and criteria.

The second type of Morphological typology deals with private/individual subjects of comparison: grammatical categories in various languages, defining ways of their expression, morphological markers, synonymous relations of affixation morphemes and syntactic words (prepositions and postpositions), comparison of primary grammatical categories/parts of speech (nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, adverbs, numerals and

others), comparison of grammatical categories of concrete lexical and grammatical categories of words (case, number, definiteness, transitivity - intransitivity, time, aspect, causation, mood, modality, etc.). Morphemes may serve major units of measurements in Morphological typology.

The Morphological typology compares the specified phenomena in the systems of both related and non-related languages. Comparison might include revealing morphological universals as well as a binary comparison of two languages. Morphological typology has accumulated a serious bulk of data both for Comparative typology and on separate concrete languages. Major scholars who dealt with the issues of Morphological typology are L.Elmslev, R.Yakobson, L.N.Zasorina,B.A.Uspenskiy, M.M.Guhman, P.L.Garvina and many others.

The Syntactic typology

The Syntactic typology engages in comparison of syntactic level units. The basic units for comparison are the word, word-combination and the sentence. Depending on the character of research the Syntactic typology may fall into several sections: comparison of units of a word-combination, the level of the sentence, as well as comparison of units of various levels with regards to their syntactic functioning. The Syntactic typology usually compares languages on the basis of transformational syntax.

Still there is no comprehensive list of topics related to the subject matter of Syntactic typology. Some of them are: definition of the subject-matter and volume of Syntactic typology, elaboration of basic criteria and a meta language, border lines between syntactic typology and other branches of Linguistic typology; defining syntactic universals, study of syntax of world languages (genetically or structurally related languages), definition of types of syntactic links (attributive, predicative, etc.), definition of

sentence types in languages, basic syntactic categories, classification of types of languages on the basis of their syntactic structure and many others.

I.I.Meshchaninov, C.E.Bazell, T.Milevsky, V.S.Hrakovskiy, J.V.Rojdestvenskiy contributed a lot to elaboration of different aspects of Syntactic typology.

SEMINAR #8.

I. The problem of categorization in linguistics:

   1. The grammatical category;

   2. The Notional category

   3. The Functional semantic category.

   4. The Lexical-Grammatical Fields

II. Major Parameters of the Typological category

   5. The cross-language character ;

   6. The cross-level character;

   7. The cross-class character;

   8. Cross-level synonymy and cross language correspondence

   3. /Small group discussions

SEMINAR #8. Small group discussions

SEMINAR #8. Small group #1

Provide examples for the cross-language, cross-level and cross-class character of the typological category. Elaborate on **the category of case**

in English and Uzbek/Russian languages

SEMINAR #8. Small group #2

Provide examples for the cross-language, cross-level and cross-class character of the typological category. Elaborate on *the category of personality* in English and Uzbek/Russian languages.

SEMINAR #8. Small group #3

Provide examples for the cross-language, cross-level and cross-class character of the typological category. Elaborate on *the category of gender* in English and Uzbek/Russian languages.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL FOR SEMINAR #8.

The Grammatical category.

The grammatical category is a semantic distinction which is reflected in a morphological paradigm. Grammatical categories can have one or more exponents. For instance, the feature [number] has the exponents [singular] and [plural]. The members of one category are mutually exclusive; a noun cannot be marked for singular and plural at the same time, nor can a verb be marked for present and past at the same time. Exponents of grammatical categories are often expressed in the same position or 'slot' (prefix, suffix, enclitic, etc.). Some examples of this are the Latin cases, which are all suffixal: rosa, rosae, rosae, rosam, rosa. ("rose", in nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, ablative)

For example, in English, the grammatical number of a noun such as bird in:
The bird is singing.
The bird-s are singing.

is either singular or plural, which is expressed overtly by the absence or presence of the suffix -s. Furthermore, the grammatical number is reflected in verb agreement, where the singular number triggers "Is", and the plural number "are".

Grammatical categories of the English language: Aspect, Case, Degrees of Comparison, Mood, Number, Person, Tense, Voice.

The Notional categories.

Study of the notional categories is related to the necessity within comparative typological operations to rely on certain logical backgrounds.

The term « notional categories» emerged due to the typological heterogeneity of external means of expression of the separate notions lying in their basis. The given term is closely connected with the names of Otto Jespersen and I.I.Meshchaninov. According to O. Jespersen the notional categories are outer language general categories, «not dependent on more or less casual facts of existing languages. These categories are universal as they apply to all languages, though they are seldom expressed in these languages in a clear and

unambiguous way... The task of a grammarian is to understand in every particular case the ratio existing between the notional and syntactic categories»[48]

Thus, the notional categories of O. Jespersen are common to all languages, however in some languages they coincide with syntactic categories and are represented with the help of special grammatical means. And in systems of other languages the notional categories can remain under expressed. For example, the category of biological sex correlates to the notional category, while the grammatical gender correlates with a syntactic category.

The scheme of their opposition may be presented as follows:

Grammar	*Reality*
Gender	*Biological sex*
(Syntactic)	*(notional)*
1) masculine gender	1) male sex
2) a feminine gender } words	2) female sex } being
3) a neutral gender	3) sexless objects

O. Jespersen distinguishes three stages of the grammatical analysis: a) the form, b) the function and c) the notion.

A.Form	B. Function	C. Notion
- ed (handed)	preterite	past tense
- t (fixed)	impossibility in present tense (if I knew -	d (showed)

если бы *мы* знали; I wish we knew Я *желал бы,*   чтобы *мы* знали).

Future tense (It is time you went to bed.

Пора вам идти спать).

According to Jespersen's «grammatical categories represent at the best symptoms or the

---

[48] Есперсен О. Философия грамматики., М., 1958, p. 57-58.

shades rejected by notional categories»[49]

I.I. Meshchaninov in his works also specified that one or another notion can be differently represented in various languages. In some languages it can be displayed with the help of deffenite grammatical formal means and thus transform into a grammatical concept. In other languages it can lack special formal signs. These general categories Meschaninov named as notional categories « Everything which is perceived as a single unit, as a uniform category, acquires its formal distinctive indicators. And if the latter, i.e. distinctive formal indicators, come out in the way of grammatical categories, then the semantic notions lying in the base of the grammatical categories can be named as the notional categories » [50]

According to I.I.Meshchaninov, the concept can become a notional category if it forms a certain system of a language means. He treats the notional categories from the logical point of view which becomes clear from the following quotation « The subject and the predicate (logical) are the notional categories. When displayed in the syntactic structure of the sentence they become grammatical concepts of the subject and the predicate. Division into the male and female genders remains in Russian as the notional distinction. These conceptual categories in Russian are in lexicon, in corresponding semantics of words, but the morphological display of the category of gender does not reflect the notional category of male and female sexes (compare: the table – is a masculine gender, compare: женщина пришла и ночь пришла) »[51]

As is seen from the examples above the notional categories and grammatical categories are different. Relations between the notional and grammatical categories can be different: a), they can coincide; b) the notional category remains, while the grammatical concept falls away; c)

---

[49] ibid, p. 60

[50]Мещанинов И.И. Члены предложения и части речи, М.-Л., 1945, , p. 195.

[51] ibid , p. 195].

the notional category can be expressed in the field of lexical semantics not acquiring grammatical forms and not becoming «the grammatically expressed concept»; td) the grammatical form continues to allocate corresponding grammatical notions while the related notions are lost.

In general, the concept of the notional categories could be better used for the purposes of comparative typology, than the existing grammatical categories. However, neither I.I. Meshchaninov, nor O. Jespersen gave an all-embracing explanation of this category; and did not provide sufficient analysis of any actual language material with the full application of the notional categories for learning purposes of the systems of various languages of the world.

Later the concept of the notional categories was developed in the works of A.V.Bondarko. He distinguished two aspects of notional categories: cognitive-language aspect and cognitive-speech aspect. The cognitive-language aspect of the notional categories is understood as «existing in the given language and in the consciousness of its speakers, in the ways, types, models of transformations of notional categories into language semantic functions...»[52]. These two aspects of notional categories are interrelated.

The Functional-Semantic category

The concept of the functional-semantic category is connected with cross-level description of the system of a certain language. While distinguishing these categories A.V.Bondarko starts with «a partial commonness of semantic functions of language elements (existence of the semantic invariant despite the diversity of variants)» [53][

The functional-semantic category has the content and the expression plans. The semantic content is identified with the meaning of morphological categories (such, as the verbal

---

[52]Бондарко А.В. Грамматическое значение и смысл. Л., 1978, , p. 84-85.
[53] Ibid, p.8

aspect, tense, person, and mood). «The expression plan is formed by language means related to different levels of language hierarchy and aspects of language: morphological, syntactic, word-formation, lexical, various combinations of means in the context» [54]

What is important is that the functional –semantic categories A.V. Bondarko bases on the _morphological categories_ which are looked at as a starting point.

Units of other levels are defined as means, cooperating with morphological units on the basis of partial semantic coincidence . On this basis A.V.Bondarko identifies a number of the functional-semantic categories such as temporality, modality, personality, aspect, and others. The above categories are expressed by cross-level units of the language. morphological, lexical and syntactic.

The functional-semantic categories can be successfully applied in comparative typological research " the Concept of functional-semantic categories can be applied in comparative studies as it represents a reliable basis for cross-language comparisons.

The functional-semantic categories are developed on the strong logic basis, and theoretical positions developed by A.V.Bondarko and can serve a specific meta language while describing not only a system of one concrete language, but they can also be applied in typological researches.

The functional-semantic categories constitute certain fields and in many senses they coincide with the concept of grammatical-lexical fields existing in linguistics.

The Grammatical –Lexical Fields.

---

[54] Ibid, p.8-9

General-theoretical and applied issues of the FIELD theory were considered by many linguists. The field approach is connected with a principle of content approach to research:. «from meaning to the form», or «from function to the form», i.e. «From meanings to the means of their expression». The given question was considered by L. V.Shcherba , I.I.Meshchaninov, F. Bruno and others.

A detailed scientific description of the grammatical-lexical fields was made in the special work E. V.Gulyga and E.I.Shendels. In their opinion, the concept of the grammatical-lexical field is connected to the process identifying different-level means of separate categorial concepts [55]

The Grammatical-lexical field is category, uniting lexis and grammar while expressing this or that categorial concept. The grammatical and lexical units constitute a common system. E. V.Gulyga and E.I.Shendels identify several grammatical-lexical fields: the filed of plurality, the field of tense, the modality field, the comparison, the animaty/inanimaty field and demonstrational field. Each of these fields I s characterized by a number of signs[56].

The field approach offered by E. V.Gulyga and E.I.Shendels can be useful for the typological inventory of systems of compared languages separately.

The Major Parameters of the Typological Category
The Typological category.

The Comparative typology operates with the special meta-language to compare the languages. The typological categories serve such a meta language and are common to the systems of compared languages thus constituting the *cross-language* nature of the category. Typological categories are content-based and represented as special units of some common content or categorical meaning in the systems of compared languages which have correlated

---

[55] Гулыга Е.В., Шендельс Е. И. Грамматико-лексические поля в современном немецком языке.М., 1969, p. 5.
[56] ibid, p. 9-10

means of expression. The typological category is a unity of the typological form and typological meaning.

The typological meaning is an abstract generalized cross-language meaning which is used as a base for comparison of languages. Examples of the typological meaning: quantity, quality, temporality, personality, location, relativity, relationship, color, age, mutuality, diminution, causation, etc.

The typological form is cross level and cross-class. The cross level means of the typological form can relate to each other as cross level synonyms in one language and cross language correspondents in compared languages. Typological forms may be *explicit*, i.e. they might be expressed by special markers, or *implicit*, i.e expressed by the stem of the word.

The typological form may be represented in the following way.
On the morphological level it is represented by synthetic forms (affixes, inner flexion, etc) and analytical form (auxiliary word, functional parts of speech, etc). On the lexical level it can be represented by root morphemes, derivational affixes , compound and composite words. On syntactic level the typological form can be represented by combinations of words or by the sentence.

The cross-level character of the typological category is displayed through participation of units belonging to different levels of language hierarchy in the expression of a certain typological category. Inventory of cross-level means of expression is needed to describe systems of each compared language separately.

The typological category can be expressed on a number of levels simultaneously. Still one of the levels might be considered as dominant. For example , if a language has explicit morphological means of expressing a certain typological meaning, this level is taken as

dominant, e.g. the category of number in English is expressed by the morpheme –(e)S, or in Uzbek – by the morpheme – lar.

The dominant levels in compared languages may or may not coincide thus conditioning the level of genetic and/or typological closeness of compared languages. In the process of categorization the most abstract means of expression are considered dominant while the others are looked at as peripheral.

For example the typological category of voice in Uzbek is expressed by the abstract morphological means in almost all cases.

Passive voice:

Uzbek:

-ил : очилмок, ювилмок,

In English the typological category of voice is expressed by various typological forms with different extent of abstraction:

a) Fully abstract: be+V (en) = to be written

b) Partially abstract: get, become, remain + V (ed) = to become educated

Reflexive voice:

Uzbek: -ин, -ан: ювинмок, таранмок

English:

Semi-abstract: V + oneself: She washed herself

Lexical: self-accusation: She dressed.

The cross-class character of the typological category is displayed through participation of words belonging to various lexical-grammatical classes of words(or parts of speech) in expressing of a certain typological category. Both notional and functional parts of speech are involved into inventory.

In this sense the typological category is opposed to the traditional grammatical category which is mono-class. For example, the category of number in the traditional grammatical category is described separately in the systems of different parts of speech. E.g. , in English it is looked at in the systems of the noun, the verb, the pronoun.

Each language possesses various resources to express different categorial meanings. If a certain categorial meaning can be expressed simultaneously through several lexical – grammatical classes, they are considered as cross-level synonyms.

For example, the typological category of status:

1) The child is sleeping – Бола ухлаяпти: 2) The child is asllep –Бола уйкуда: 3) A sleepy (sleeping) child – Уйкудаги бола: уйкусураб турган бола

The typological categories can be represented differently in compared languages. For example , in English the typological category of plurality is more represented in the systems of the noun and the verb while the other parts of speech like the adjective stay isolated.

Thus the typological category has the following distinctive features: it is cross-language, cross level and cross class; it has the possibility of cross level synonymy and cross language correspondence.
It is characterized by special markers of the categorical opposition which can be in various relations to each other: central and peripheral ; explicit and implicit; allomorphic and isomorphic; mutually inclusive and exclusive.

The Typological category of personality

The category of personality should be dealt in close connection with the category of number (plurality) in English and Russian languages because in the languages of Indo-European

family these categories are usually expressed by one and the same morpheme simultaneously.

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

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

The category of personality in verbs is represented by the 1st, 2nd, 3rd person and it expresses the relations between the speaker, the person or people spoken to and other person or people spoken about. However this system doesn't hold good for the modern English verb for two reasons:

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

2) there is no distinction of numbers in the 1st and 2nd persons. Thus the form «live» in these persons may refer to both one and more than one subjects. Thus the opposition of all other persons expresses relations of the 3rd with any person of both numbers.

The marked member of the opposition differs greatly from that of unmarked one in the form and in the meaning, It should be kept in mind that in the Subjunctive mood that form «live» denotes any person of both numbers.

The ending 's' indicated simultaneously four meanings which is feature of the synthetic language – the Modern English.

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

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

I	Am	Was
He	Is	Was
She	Is	Was
It	Is	Was
You	Are	Were
They	Are	Were

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

The system of expressing personality on the morphological level in the Uzbek verbs is as follows

Indic mood	Person	Singular	Plural
Past	I	Bordim	bordik
	II	Bording	Bordinrizlar
	III	Bordi	Bordilar, borishdi
Present	I	boraman	Boramiz
	II	Boras an	Borasiz(lar)
	III	Boradi	Boradilar
Future	I	Boraman bormoqchiman	Boramiz bormoqchimiz
	II	Borasan bormpqchisan	Boramiz bormoqchimiz
	III	Boradi bormoqchi	Boradilar borishmoqchi
Imperative mood	I	Boray	Boraylik
	II	Borgin	Boringlar, boringiz
	III	Borishsin	Boringizlar

In Uzbek we have no the so called modal verbs and impersonal verbs which would be similar to English or Russian (дождит, смеркается, темнеет, похолодало). The functions of the modal verbs are performed in Uzbek by means of the adverbs such as зарур, керак, даркор, лозим etc. As to the impersonal verbs in Uzbek we use the so called impersonal verbs which are combined only with one of the nouns denoting the names of natural phenomena, such as кор, ёмгир, дул, etc. e.g.: Ёмгир ёгади, чакмок чакди.

The morphological level units have explicit markers of personality , i.e. special affixes with the grammatical meaning of personality.

The category of personality can be also found on other level of hierarchy: lexical and syntactic.

The meaning of personality can be expresses implicitly by the lexical meaning of some lexical-grammatical classes of words.

The first to be mentioned here in English is the use of the personal pronouns 'we, you, they' in patterns where they are synonymous with the formal generic 'one' which denotes anyone who occurs in a definite situation. Semantically it corresponds to the Uzbek generic words as 'одам, киши, инсон. e.g.:

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

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

Бундай холатда нима килишингни билмайсан киши.

Инсон зоти борки яратгани унутиб фарзанди томон интилади.

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

The pronoun 'we' is commonly used in proverbs, e.g.:

We shall see what we shall see.

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

Kuduq qurimaguncha (ariqdan oqqan) suvni qadrini bilmaymiz

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

Nima eksang, shuni o'rasan.

Zar qadrini zargar biladi.

Bilib turib, bilmaslikka olamiz.

Lexical and syntactic means of expressing typological category of personality are closely related to the category of agency .

The typological category of case

The system of grammatical forms indicating the syntactic relations of nouns (or pronouns) is usually treated as the category of case, in other words, case is a grammatical form which takes part in the formation of the paradigm of nouns (or pronouns). Grammarians seem to be divided in their opinions as to the case system of the English nouns. The most common view is that they have only two cases: the Common case (subject) and the Possessive case.

The Common case is characterized by a zero morpheme (suffix) e.g. child, boy, student, etc . and the Possessive case is formed by the indexing is and its phonetic variants as [s] and [z].

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

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

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

Meaning and functions of the other Uzbek cases may be denoted in English either by means of prepositions or by a word order. For instance the meaning and function of the Uzbek тушум келишиги is expressed in Uzbek by means of the case ending – ши which denotes the object acted upon and it may be expressed in English by means of word order which is very strict in comparison to Russian or Uzbek (e.g. курдим кузингни колдим балога, кайга борайин энди давога? – Видел я твои очи черные (и заболел), куда мне теперь идти на лечение?) Some English grammarians O. Curme, M. Doutschbein recognize the word order in English as the Dative case.

Dealing with this case one has to keep in mind the structure of the sentence i.e. the word order in the sentences of the compared languages – SOV in Uzbek: e.g. мен укамни курдим and SVO in English: I saw my brother».
The Uzbek урин пайт келишиги denotes the place of the thing or a person in the space and it can be rendered in English by means of prepositions at, in, an, by, over, above, among, between, behind etc. (e.g.У:китоб жавонда. The book is in the bookcase.) It should be kept in mind that most of the English preposition may contain (more) additional meaning denoting the place of the thing or a person. (cu in – мчи-behind-орқасида, between-орасида, under-остида, etc).

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

Чиқиш келишиги of the Uzbek nouns denotes the starting point of the action denoted by the verb. It can be rendered in English by means of preposition from, out

of, from under, etc. e.g.:У(қиз) Лондондан келди. She came from London.У(йигит) сумкасидан қулқопларини олди. He took his gloves out of his bag.

The List of Selected literature and useful sites

1. Абдуазизов А.А., Бушуй А.М., Бушуй Т.А., Салиева М.А., Сиддикова И.А. История лингвистической типологии., Ташкент 2006

2. Амирова Т.А., Рождественский, Ольховиков Б.А.   Очерки по истории лингвистики М., 1975

3. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков   Л., 1979

4. Бархударов Л.С.   Уровни языковой иерархии и перевод. Тетради переводчика, М., 1969

5. Блумфилд Л., Язык. М., 1968

6. Бондарко А.В. Грамматическое значение и смысл. Л., 1978

7. Боровков А.К. Агглютинация в тюркских языках. –Морфологическая типология   и проблема классификации языков. М.,-Л., 1965

8. Буранов Дж. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков., М., 1983

9. Гак В.Г. Сравнительная типология французского и русского языков   М., 1977

10. Гринберг Дж. Квантитативный подход к морфологической типологии М., 2007

11. Гулыга Е.В., Шендельс Е.И. Грамматико-лексическое поле в современном немецком языке. М., 1969

12. Иванов В.В. Типология и сравнительно-историческое языкознание ВЯ, М., 1958 №5

13. Кацнельсон С.Д   Типология языка и речевое мышление Л., 1972

14. Колшанский Г.В. Проблемы универсалий языка. М., 1972

15. Мещанинов И.И. Члены предложения и части речи, М.-Л., 1945, , р. 195

16. Поливанов Е.Д. Русская грамматика в сопоставлении с узбекским языком., Ташкент, 1934

17. Гринберг Дж., Осгуд И., Дженкинс Дж. Меморандум о языковых универсалиях В сб. – Новое в лингвистике., М., 1970, вып. V

18. Рождественский Ю.В. Типология слова М., 2007

19. Успенский Б.А. Структурная типология языков М., 1965

20. Швейцер А.А. Литературный английский язык в США и Англии., М., 1971

21. Ярцева В.Н. Принципы типологического исследования родственных и неродственных языков   М., 1967

22. Abduazizov A.A. English Phonetics. A theoretical course. Tashkent, 2002

23. Anderson Deborah , Department of Linguistics, University of California, Berkeley, 2007 http://linguistics.berkeley.edu/~rscook/pdf/RSCook-Vita.pdf

24. Bazell C.E. Linguistic typology., L.1958

25. Chomsky N. Deep Structure, Surface Structure and Semantic Interpretation Tokyo, 1970

26. Fromkin Victoria & Rodman Robert, Introduction to Language 1988,
http://www.amazon.com/Introduction-Language-Victoria-Fromkin/dp/015508481X

27. Greenberg J The Nature and Uses of Linguistic typologies "International Journal of American Linguistics", vol.23, #2, 1957

28. Harris Z. Methods in Structural Linguistics   University of Chicago Press, 1951

29. Lord R. Comparative Linguistics L., 1975

30. Robins R.H. General Linguistics L., 1975

31. Genetic Linguistics, Oxford University press, 2005 http://books.google.com/books

32. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_family

33. http://www.orexca.com/uzbek_language.shtm

34. http://www.ed.gov/technology/erate_findings.html

35. http://www.libraries.psu.edu/mtss/fairuse/guidelines.html

36. http://4teachers.org/profd/assessment.shtm/#tracks

Seminar 9

1. Branches of Linguistic typology related to expression and content plans of the language:

2. Branches of Linguistic typology as to levels of language hierarchy

SEMINAR #9. Small group discussions

SEMINAR # 9. Small group #1

Provide examples for the cross-language, cross-level and cross-class character of the typological category. Elaborate on *the category of case* in English and Uzbek/Russian languages

SEMINAR #9. Small group #2

Provide examples for the cross-language, cross-level and cross-class character of the typological category. Elaborate on *the category of personality* in English and Uzbek/Russian languages.

SEMINAR #9. Small group #3

Provide examples for the cross-language, cross-level and cross-class character of the typological category. Elaborate on *the category of gender* in English and Uzbek/Russian languages.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL FOR SEMINAR #9.

1. Branches of Linguistic typology related to expression and content plans of the language:

2. Branches of Linguistic typology as to levels of language hierarchy

Questions to cover

- Formal typology
- Semantic typology;
- Phonetic/Phonological typology;
- Morphological typology;

- Lexical typology;
- Syntactic typology.

Keywords: Formal typology, Semantic typology; Phonetic/Phonological typology; Morphological typology; Lexical typology; Syntactic typology

Content of the topics:

The Formal typology: deals with units of expression plan;the goal - formal universals; the tasks: external or formal features of the language, common principles of script, e.g. graphic systems, alphabets, system of transcription signs, punctuation, formal structures of the syllable, composite words, word combinations, etc.

The Semantic typology: the branch of linguistic typology studying semantic structure of the language and related to the units of content plan. The goal - semantic universals related to the deep structure of the language; issues: different semantic fields, grouping words on the basis of semantic signs, criteria to define semantic categories; Semantic typology and Lexical typology.

The branches of linguistic typology as to the levels of linguistic hierarchy.

The Phonological typology: comparison of units of the phonologic level of language; tasks- allocation of phonologic differential signs, defining their universality, study of phonologic structure of languages, classification of languages on the basis of their phonologic features (e.g. tonic and atonic languages), defining phonemic structure of world languages, etc.major achievements.

The Morphological typology: compares the units of a morphological level; subtypes:

5) the morphological classification of languages;

6) particular questions of grammar: grammatical categories in various languages, ways of their expression, morphological markers, synonymous relations of affixation morphemes and syntactic words (prepositions and postpositions), comparison of primary grammatical categories, etc.).

The Syntactic typology: comparison of syntactic level units - word-combination and the sentence. Syntactic typology and transformational syntax; major tasks: syntactic universals, study of syntax of world languages , types of syntactic links (attributive, predicative, etc.), definition of sentence types, basic syntactic categories, etc.

Selected literature and useful sites

31. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков Л., 1979

32. Буранов Дж. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков., М., 1983

33. Гак В.Г. Сравнительная типология французского и русского языков М., 1977

34. Lord R. Comparative Linguistics L., 1975

35. Robins R.H. General Linguistics L., 1975

36. Боровков А.К. Агглютинация в тюркских языках. –Морфологическая типология и проблема классификации языков. М.,-Л., 1965

37. Гринберг Дж., Осгуд И., Дженкинс Дж. Меморандум о языковых универсалиях В сб. – Новое в лингвистике., М., 1970, вып. V

38. Рождественский Ю.В. Типология слова М., 2007

39. Успенский Б.А. Структурная типология языков М., 1965

40. Ярцева В.Н. Принципы типологического исследования родственных и неродственных языков   М., 1967

41. Bazell C.E. Linguistic typology., L.1958

42. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_family

43. http://4teachers.org/profd/assessment.shtm/#tracks

Seminar # 10

(2 hours)

The problem of categorization in linguistics
SEMINAR #10 Small group discussions

SEMINAR # 10. Small group #1

Provide examples for the cross-language, cross-level and cross-class character of the typological category. Elaborate on ***the category of case*** in English and Uzbek/Russian languages

SEMINAR #10 Small group #2

Provide examples for the cross-language, cross-level and cross-class character of the typological category. Elaborate on ***the category of plurality*** in English and Uzbek/Russian languages.

SEMINAR # 10. Small group #3

Provide examples for the cross-language, cross-level and cross-class character of the typological category. Elaborate on ***the category of gender*** in English and Uzbek/Russian languages.

I. The problem of categorization in linguistics:

- *The grammatical category;*
- *The Notional category*
- *The Functional semantic category.*
- *The Lexical-Grammatical Fields*

Keywords: Grammatical category, Notional category, Functional semantic category, Lexical-Grammatical Fields.

Content of the topics:

The Grammatical category: is reflected in a morphological paradigm; the unity of the grammatical form and grammatical meaning. The members of one category are mutually exclusive; *Grammatical categories of the English language:* Aspect, Case, Degrees of Comparison, Mood, Number, Person, Tense, Voice.

The Notional categories: rely on certain logical backgrounds; connected with the names of Otto Jespersen and I.I.Meshchaninov; «not dependent on more or less casual facts of existing languages. These categories are universal as they apply to all languages, though they are seldom expressed in these languages in a clear and unambiguous way... »[57]

O. Jespersen: three stages of the grammatical analysis: a) the form, b) the function and c) the notion; Relations between the notional and grammatical categories;further

development of notional categories by academician A.V.Bondarko.

The Functional-Semantic category: is connected with cross-level description of the system of a certain language: has the content and the expression plans. The semantic content is identified with the meaning of morphological categories (such, as the verbal aspect, tense, person, and mood). «The expression plan is formed by language means related to different levels of language hierarchy and aspects of language: morphological, syntactic, word-formation, lexical, various combinations of means in the context» [58]

Functional –semantic categories of A.V. Bondarko are based on the *morphological categories.*

The Grammatical –Lexical Fields: **T**heoretical and applied issues of the FIELD theory/the principle of content approach to research: «from meaning to the form», or «from function to the form»; the grammatical-lexical fields in the work of E. V.Gulyga and E.I.Shendels. In their opinion, the concept of the grammatical-lexical field is connected to the process identifying different-level means of separate categorial concepts [59]

Selected literature and useful sites

14. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков Л., 1979

15. Буранов Дж. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков., М., 1983

16. Гак В.Г. Сравнительная типология французского и русского языков М., 1977

17. Lord R. Comparative Linguistics L., 1975

18. Robins R.H. General Linguistics L., 1975

19. Боровков А.К. Агглютинация в тюркских языках. –Морфологическая типология и проблема классификации языков. М.,-Л., 1965

20. Гринберг Дж., Осгуд И., Дженкинс Дж. Меморандум о языковых универсалиях В сб. – Новое в лингвистике., М., 1970, вып. V

21. Рождественский Ю.В. Типология слова М., 2007

22. Успенский Б.А. Структурная типология языков М., 1965

23. Ярцева В.Н. Принципы типологического исследования родственных и неродственных языков М., 1967

24. Bazell C.E. Linguistic typology., L.1958

25. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_family

26. http://4teachers.org/profd/assessment.shtm/#tracks

Seminar # 11

The Major Parameters of the Typological Category

Questions to cover:

- *The cross-language character ;*
- *The cross-level character;*
- *The cross-class character;*
- *Cross-level synonymy and cross language correspondence*

The Major Parameters of the Typological Category

The Typological category: the special meta-language of Comparative typology; the *cross-language* nature of the category; content-based character; The typological category is a unity of the typological form and typological meaning.

The typological meaning is an abstract generalized cross-language meaning which is used as a base for comparison of languages;*The typological form* is cross level and cross-class. The cross level means of the typological form can relate to each other as cross level synonyms in one language and cross language correspondents in

compared languages. Typological forms: *explicit*,(expressed by special markers), or *implicit(e*xpressed by the stem of the word).

The typological category is opposed to the traditional grammatical category which is mono-class.

The typological form is cross level and cross-class. The cross level means of the typological form can relate to each other as cross level synonyms in one language and cross language correspondents in compared languages. Typological forms may be *explicit*, i.e. they might be expressed by special markers, or *implicit,* i.e expressed by the stem of the word.

The typological form may be represented in the following way.

On the morphological level it is represented by synthetic forms (affixes, inner flexion, etc) and analytical form (auxiliary word, functional parts of speech, etc). On the lexical level it can be represented by root morphemes, derivational affixes , compound and composite words. On syntactic level the typological form can be represented by combinations of words or by the sentence.

The cross-level character of the typological category is displayed through participation of units belonging to different levels of language hierarchy in the expression of a certain typological category. Inventory of cross-level means of expression is needed to describe systems of each compared language separately.

The typological category can be expressed on a number of levels simultaneously. Still one of the levels might be considered as dominant. For example , if a language has explicit morphological means of expressing a certain typological meaning, this level is taken as dominant, e.g. the category of number in English is expressed by the morpheme –(e)S, or in Uzbek – by the morpheme – lar.

The dominant levels in compared languages may or may not coincide thus conditioning the level of genetic and/or typological closeness of compared languages. In the process of categorization the most abstract means of expression are considered dominant while the others are looked at as peripheral.

For example the typological category of voice in Uzbek is expressed by the abstract morphological means in almost all cases.

Passive voice:

Uzbek:

-ил : очилмок, ювилмок,

In English the typological category of voice is expressed by various typological forms with different extent of abstraction:

c) Fully abstract: be+V (en) = to be written

d) Partially abstract: get, become, remain + V (ed) = to become educated

Reflexive voice:

Uzbek: -ин, -ан: ювинмок, таранмок

English:

Semi-abstract: V + oneself: She washed herself

Lexical: self-accusation: She dressed.

The cross-class character of the typological category is displayed through participation of words belonging to various lexical-grammatical classes of words(or parts of speech) in expressing of a certain typological category. Both notional and functional parts of speech are involved into inventory.In this sense the typological category is opposed to the traditional grammatical category which is mono-class. For example, the category of number in the traditional grammatical category is described separately in the systems of different parts of speech. E.g. , in English it is looked at in the systems of the noun, the verb, the pronoun.

Each language possesses various resources to express different categorial meanings. If a certain categorial meaning can be expressed simultaneously through several lexical –grammatical classes, they are considered as cross-level synonyms.

For example, the typological category of status:

2) The child is sleeping – Бола ухлаяпти: 2) The child is asllep –Бола уйкуда: 3) A sleepy (sleeping) child – Уйкудаги бола: уйкусураб турган бола

The typological categories can be represented differently in compared languages. For example , in English the typological category of plurality is more represented in the systems of the noun and the verb while the other parts of speech like the adjective stay isolated.

Thus the typological category has the following distinctive features: it is cross-language, cross level and cross class; it has the possibility of cross level synonymy and cross language correspondence.

It is characterized by special markers of the categorical opposition which can be in various relations to each other: central and peripheral ; explicit and implicit; allomorphic and isomorphic; mutually inclusive and exclusive.

Seminar # 12
Methods of Comparative Typology
Questions to cover:

The main method of typological studies is the comparative method. Comparative linguistics applies this method as well, but in that trend the elements compared are similar materially, which allows the scholar to establish their genetic affinity. Typology compares elements that are similar functionally.   e.g. The English, Russian and Turkish languages have affixes which form nouns with the meaning "the doer of an action". These are the English affix -er, the Turkish one -ci, the Russian -тель. They consist of different phonemes and have no common origin, but they have the same function in the language. So they can be studied in comparative typology.   Elements compared must have some common, similar **(isomorphic)**features in different languages.   e.g. All case inflexions express relations between an object and other objects, phenomena or processes. At the same time the elements of each language have some special **(allomorphic)**characteristics peculiar for this language.   e.g. Different languages have their own case systems

with peculiar case meanings. Isomorphic characteristics serve as a basis for typological classification. They are called **typological constants.**One of typological constants is existence of the category of case. Using it, we can classify all languages into two groups: the ones having a system of declension and the ones lacking it. Difference between languages may lie not only in the fact of existence/non-existence of some element, but also in the place of the element within its microsystem.   When two languages are compared one of them serves as a prototype. For language students such a prototype is usually their native language. But the description of the English language by Russian-speaking students will differ considerably from the one made by French-speaking students. We can't get a really scientific, objective description in this way. A "neutral" language must be found, which can serve as a prototype for any language. Boris Andreevitch Uspenskiy suggested using isolating languages as prototypes because their structure is the simplest, and features isomorphic for all languages are explicit and distinct in them. But other scholars argue that the structure of isolating languages is not as simple as it seems, and some artificial prototype language must be constructed for the purposes of typological comparison.   Typological characteristics of a language revealed with the help of comparison of this language to a prototype language are correlated. They form a system. According to Georgiy Pavlovitch MeFnikov some elements and phenomena of this system occupy the leading position in it and the speaker subconsciously chooses such language means which are in harmony with the leading tendency. This leading grammatical tendency was given the name of determinant.   e.g. The Semitic languages (according to G.P. Mefnikov) have a tendency to grammaticalization. That's why verbal meaning is prevalent in word roots, consonants are used for expressing lexical meaning and vowels are used for expressing grammatical meanings. The Chinese language has a tendency to lexicalization. It doesn't express explicitly the information which is clear from the context (plurality is expressed only when not clear from the context).   Differences between languages can be quantified. A quantitative method was introduced by Joseph Greenberg. It is called the method

of typological indices. The most typical approach presupposes comparing languages "level by level", i.e. the phonological level of one language is compared to the phonological level of the other, then the morphological, the syntactical, the lexical levels are compared. However, similar functions can be performed by elements of different levels in different languages, e.g. I *don't* lend my books to anyone (phonology) Я не даю моих книг никому (vocabulary) I don't lend my books to *anyone* (phonology) Я не даю моих книг кому попало, (vocabulary) Вы знаете, где магазин, (phonology) You know where the shop is. (Syntax) Вы знаете, где магазин? (phonology) Do you know where the shop is?

Selected literature and useful sites

4. Абдуазизов А.А., Бушуй А.М., Бушуй Т.А., Салиева М.А., Сиддикова И.А. История лингвистической типологии,, Ташкент 2006

5. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков Л., 1979

6. Буранов Дж. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков., М., 1983

Seminar # 13
Comparative Typology of Morphological System
Questions to cover:

- Notion of morphology in Modern Linguistics
- Notions of morphology: Parts of speech in Modern English
- Structural and Semantical features of parts of speech
  Isomorphemic and Allomorphic features of parts of speech in modern English and Uzbek/Russian

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

structure of words. As a part of the grammatical theory morphology faces two segmental units of the language: the **morpheme** and the **word.**

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

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

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

The morphemes can be divided into root (free) morphemes and affixal (bound) morphemes (affixes). A form is said to be free

if tit may stand alone without changing its meaning; if not it is a bound form, as it always bound to something else.

E.g: In the words *sportive, elegant* morphemes *sport, elegant* may occur alone as utterances, but the forms -*ive,*

-*ant, eleg-* cannot be used alone without the root morphemes.

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

Semantically morphemes fall into two classes : the root morphemes and non-root (affixational) morphemes.

The root morphemes is the lexical nucleus of the word and it they usually express mainly the lexical meaning, i.e. 'material' part of the meaning of the word, while the affixal morphemes can express both lexical and grammatical meanings, thus they can be characterised as lexical affixes (**-er)** and grammatical suffixes (**-s**) in **'writ-er-s'.** The lexical suffixes are usually used mainly in word

building process to form new words (e.g. help-less, black-ness, teach-er, speak-er; нажот-сиз, =ора-лик, ы=ит-ув-чи, сыз-лов-чи), whereas grammatical suffixes serve to express the grammatical meaning of the word by changing its form (paradigm) {e.g. speaker-**s,** *(plurality)* John'-**s,** *(case ending denoting possession)*, come-**s** (*person, number, tense, aspect, mood, voice*)3rd person singular, present simple, indicative mood, active voice)}. Thus we can say that the grammatical significance of afixal (derivational) morphemes is always combined with their lexical meaning.

e.g. verb - to write- ёзмо=

noun -writer - ёзувчи

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

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

Inflexions (word-forming suffixes express different morphological categories.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

E.G.: бе-маза-гар-чи-лиг-и-нг-из-дан

бе-кор-чи-лик-дан-дир-да-а?

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Parts of speech.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

The following parts of speech are to be treated as *structural words* : **articles, particles (**only, solely, exclusively, mainly**), prepositions and conjunctions**. Articles and prepositions are of

individual character of English differentiating it from Uzbek as the functions of these parts of speech in Uzbek are performed by other elements of the language.

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

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

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

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

Seminar # 14
Areal typology and its distinctive features
Questions to cover:

The Areal Typology: the independent branches of linguistic typology, which compares language systems and studies the degree of expansion and proximity of language properties which are geographically conditioned. Objects of study: borrowings, bi-lingual features, dialects, centum/satem languages, compiling dialectal maps, sub-stratum and super-stratum languages, neologisms, archaisms, hybrid languages, language contacts, etc.

The major parameters:

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

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

   The Areal classification of languages.

Selected literature and useful sites

1. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков   Л., 1979
19. Буранов Дж. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков., М., 1983
20. Гак В.Г. Сравнительная типология французского и русского языков   М., 1977
21. Lord R. Comparative Linguistics L., 1975
22. Robins R.H. General Linguistics L., 1975
23. Боровков А.К. Агглютинация в тюркских языках. –Морфологическая типология и проблема классификации языков. М.,-Л., 1965
24. Ярцева В.Н. Принципы типологического исследования родственных и неродственных языков   М., 1967
25. Bazell C.E. Linguistic typology., L.1958
26. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_family
27. http://4teachers.org/profd/assessment.shtm/#tracks

Seminar # 15

Typological approach to language analysis

Questions to cover:

1/ basic notions of typology:

a) isomorphism and allomorphism

b) the notion of the model language

c) language universals

2/ methods of typological analysis

a) glottochronology

b) typological indexation

c) a descriptive comparative method

Linguistic typology as a separate discipline appeared early in the 70s of the XX century. It studies language types, similarities and differences in their structure. This

discipline was developed on the basis of historical comparative linguistics. Now typology deals with all types of languages irrespective of their affinity. If only two languages are compared it is called comparative typology. Comparative typology gives a systemic description of juxtaposition of a foreign language and one's native language. It's especially important for teaching purposes. It helps to foresee and overcome difficulties in this process and to overcome negative influence of one's native language.

Isomorphism and allomorphism

the term isomorphism was introduced by a Polish linguist Kurilovich who borrowed it from mathematics. It means similarity, likeness or even identity of structure.

In typology we speak about isomorphism of some language units or even systems if they have likeness in arrangement.

Isomorphism:

English – will/shall read

Russian – БУДУ читать

Allomorphism:

Eng – will/shall read

Rus – прочитаю

The model language

this notion was introduced in order to achieve more objective typological description. In order to define iso- and allomorphic features at least two languages must be compared. One of these languages is in the focus of attention, it is under analysis. The second language becomes a kind of instrument in this process. Usually one's native language is used for this purpose. But native languages are different in structure. Such comparison gives not objective results. For the purpose of comparison the notion of the model language was introduces. It is not a real, existing language. It exists as a scheme which includes a list of average characteristics of all languages known up to now. (see typological indexation) среднеарифметическая всех языков по всем показателям

A language universal

a language universal is some statement that reflects features of all languages or of most of them. And the aim of universals is to reveal tendencies in language development.

All languages have vowels and consonants but the correlation of them is different in all languages. (all languages use vowels and consonants – absolute universal)

75% of languages use 3 tenses – statistic universal.

Statistic universals characterize not all languages but groups of them, e.g. most European languages have case paradigms of nouns (from 2 up to 8 case forms) but in the same time there are some exceptions – Bulgarian, French, Spanish do not have case.

Besides language universals are divided into extralinguistic and linguistic. The first type is used not only in linguistics because such universals describe relations outside language system. They can be used in logic or in semiotics.

e.g. a minimal utterance is expressed in the sentence (notion utterance – beyond language) linguistic universals describe the language structure and correspondingly they are divided according to language levels – phonological, lexical, grammatical. They can also be synchronic and diachronic. Synchronic universals show language at one definite period of its development. Diachronic universals show development of a language. E.g. [k] > [ʧ]

Eng: OE ceosan > ME chesan > NE choose

Latin: centrum > cento (Italian)

Rus: пеку – печешь, крепкий – крепче

Seminar # 16

TYPOLOGY OF MEANING

Questions to cover:

1. Paradigmatic aspect
2. Syntagmatic aspect

a) Paradigmatic aspect

if we combine meaning of equivalent words in 2 languages we can find 4 types of relations:

Relations are divided into inclusion and crossing.

Crossing is connected with the existence of some specific meaning in each of the words. (голос (voice, vote) and voice (speaking, залог)).

Открывать – open, find out, discover

Party – вечеринка, политическая партия.

There are 2 reasons for the existence of such lacunas:

c) the absence of the denoted phenomena (колхоз, eleven plus examination)

d) purely linguistic factors because each language reflects reality in its own way.

Sometimes words seem to have equivalents but they have quite a different meaning. Languages differ in semantic structures of the words. Some languages prefer more general meaning (English) and some prefer more concrete meanings (Russian).

The idea of motion.

b) Syntagmatic aspect

Very often when the word is polysemantic its real meaning becomes clear only in the context. According to Amosova there are 3 types of contexts:

4. Purely lexical when the meaning is actualized due to its combination with the neighboring word.

5. Syntactical context when the meaning of the word depends on the syntactic construction it is used in. syntactical context also includes cases of transitive use of verbs (In English only)

6.Lexico-syntactical context when both lexical combustibility and syntactical structures are important. E.g. "the sun sets", "he is setting potatoes", "a peasant woman is setting her hens".

Conclusion: all these contexts should be taken into consideration because they make the system of lexical units and their semantic potential more expressive.

Seminar # 17

TYPOLOGY OF THE VERB IN RUSSIAN AND ENGLISH

Questions to Cover:

Verb is a universally used part of speech but its morphological features differ in different languages. In Russian the verb has gender, but in English it is not used and at the same time in English perfect forms make up the category of time-correlation. Besides, differences exist in the system of verbals. In Russian there are 2 of them – participle and adverbial participle. In English both of them are expressed by the participle that has 2 variants (participle I and II). In English gerund is used which corresponds to Russian verbal noun. The rest verbal categories coincide – aspect, tense, voice, mood, person.

Aspect.

In English and Russian there are 2 aspect forms but the grammatical meaning is specific in each language. In Russian there exists an opposition of perfective and imperfective aspects where the meaning is connected with logical completeness of an action. In English the difference between continuous and indefinite aspects shows the manner of action – a mere fact or a process. In Russian the perfective aspect is expressed derivatively with prefixes and affixes. Besides stress can denote aspect relations. Lexical means are also important. In English the only marker of aspect is discontinuous morpheme.

Tense.

In English the system of tenses in enriched through its development. Development of tense in Russian and English shows radical differences. In Russian the modern

paradigm became more limited in comparison with Old Russian, it has been reduced from 7 to 3 forms.

In English the paradigm became wider, because in ME Future was added to past and present.

VOICE

The category of voice shows relations between the subject and the object of the action. Most languages have active and passive meanings which are universal and it's possible to change the positions of the subject and the object. The rest voice meanings have some specificity.

MOOD

most modal means coincide in two languages (modal verbs, modal words, moods (should write, написал бы)).

The primary subdivision of mood is reality/irreality which also coincide. The basic difference is in the structure of irreali9ty. In Russian only one undifferentiated oblique mood is used. It is expressed by particle бы and the verb in the past which can also be linked with conjunction чтобы. The Russian form has no tense distinction, but in English tense distinctions are expressed by perfect forms. Besides particle бы in colloquial speech the imperative form can denote supposition (скажи он это). The English oblique mood includes at least 4 forms:

44. subjunctive I (long live the king)

45. subjunctive II (if he helped us)

46. conditional mood (would+inf)

47. suppositional mood (should+inf)

PERSON

in any language 3 forms of person are used and it is a kind of universal. It corresponds to 3 basic roles of any communicative act:

4.the speaker

5.the addressee

6.non-participant of the action in synthetic languages singular and plural forms are

marked by inflections. In analytical languages the system of forms is minimal.

Seminar # 18

Comparative Typology and methods of teaching English

- Comparative typology and its links with methods of teaching English
- Comparative typological data of Modern English, Uzbek and Russian at the service of methods of teaching English
- Typical mistakes in using English by students (Uzbeks, Russians) and factors causing mistakes, dissimilarities and similarities
  Notions of language interference and ways of doing it away with

Comparative method" redirects here. For other kinds of comparative methods, see Comparative (disambiguation).

Linguistic map representing a tree model of the Romance languages based on the comparative method. Here the family tree has been rendered as a Venn diagram without overlapping subareas. The wave model allows overlapping regions.

In linguistics, the **comparative method** is a technique for studying the development of languages by performing a feature-by-feature comparison of two or more languages with common descent from a shared ancestor, in order to extrapolate back to infer the properties of that ancestor. The comparative method may be contrasted with the method of internal reconstruction, in which the internal development of a single language is inferred by the analysis of features within that language.[1] Ordinarily both methods are used together to reconstruct prehistoric phases of languages, to fill in gaps in the historical record of a language, to discover the development of phonological, morphological, and other linguistic systems, and to confirm or refute hypothesized relationships between languages.

The comparative method was developed over the 19th century. Key contributions were made by the Danish scholars Rasmus Rask and Karl Verner and the German scholar Jacob Grimm. The first linguist to offer reconstructed forms from a proto-language was August Schleicher, in his *Compendium der vergleichenden Grammatik der indogermanischen Sprachen*, originally published in 1861.[2] Here is Schleicher's explanation of why he offered reconstructed forms:[3]

In the present work an attempt is made to set forth the inferred Indo-European original language side by side with its really existent derived languages. Besides the advantages offered by such a plan, in setting immediately before the eyes of the student the final results of the investigation in a more concrete form, and thereby rendering easier his insight into the nature of particular Indo-European languages, there is, I think, another of no less importance gained by it, namely that it shows the baselessness of the assumption that the non-Indian Indo-European languages were

derived from Old-Indian (Sanskrit).

Seminar # 19
Comparative Typology, translation and Lexicography
Questions to cover:

- Comparative typological data and translation
- Comparative typological data and Lexicography

Comparative typological data and text book compiling

Comparative typology and Lexicography

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

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

Both Comparative typology and Lexicography study the systems of related and non-related languages. One of those who first compiled an English vocabulary was a school teacher Kodry who began to gather and systemize words which were very difficult for his pupils during the process of study. His dictionary was completed in 1604 and it is considered to be the first English dictionary.

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

The work over compiling bilingual dictionaries is also about comparison of the languages. In bilingual dictionaries phonetic, morphological, lexical, semantic, syntactical, orthographical characteristics of the words are usually provided. Before describing the above characteristics it is necessary to learn the characteristics of the

dictionary. In Comparative typology the results of comparison obtained in Phonological, Phonetic, Morphological, Lexical and Syntactic typologies can be summarized. Thus without a typological comparison a dictionary can not provide a necessary reference.

A lexicographical process can be divided into two stages.

3. The stage of analysis;

4. The stage of synthesis.

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

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

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

3. word-building affixes and

4. form-building affixes.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Linguistic typology has played a positive role in creating bilingual English-Turkic and Turkic-English dictionaries. These topics were of special interest for Formal typology which displayed the meaning of proper names. Arabic proper names were not found in, for example, Chinese language. But when a part of China was attacked and occupied by the Muslims the problem of assimilating the Arabic proper names became acute for China too.

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

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

4) Comparative typology and Lexicography analyze systems of two or more languages simultaneously;

5) Compared languages can be genetically related or not related;

6) Comparative typology and Lexicography.

Selected literature:

1. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков   Л., 1979

28. Буранов Дж. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков., М., 1983

29. Гак В.Г. Сравнительная типология французского и русского языков   М., 1977

30. Lord R. Comparative Linguistics L., 1975

31. Robins R.H. General Linguistics L., 1975

32. Боровков А.К. Агглютинация в тюркских языках. –Морфологическая типология и проблема классификации языков. М.,-Л., 1965

33. Ярцева В.Н. Принципы типологического исследования родственных и неродственных языков   М., 1967

34. Bazell C.E. Linguistic typology., L.1958

35. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_family

http://4teachers.org/profd/assessment.shtm/#tracks

SEMINAR #11 Small group discussions

SEMINAR # 11. Small group #1

Provide examples for the cross-language, cross-level and cross-class

character of the typological category. Elaborate on *the category of case*

in English and Uzbek/Russian languages

SEMINAR #11 Small group #2

Provide examples for the cross-language, cross-level and cross-class character of the typological category. Elaborate on *the category of plurality* in English and Uzbek/Russian languages.

SEMINAR # 11. Small group #3

Provide examples for the cross-language, cross-level and cross-class character of the typological category. Elaborate on *the category of gender* in English and Uzbek/Russian languages.

Seminar 12
METHODS OF COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGICAL ANALYSIS

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

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

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

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

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

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

Families of languages in the world today.

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

The Indo-European Family

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

The Uralic Family

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

The Altaic Family

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

The Sino-Tibetan Family

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

The Malayo-Polynesian Family

A family consisting of over 1000 languages spread throughout the Indian and Pacific

Oceans as well South East Asia. Languages include Malay, Indonesian, Maori and Hawaiian.

The Afro-Asiatic Family

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

The Caucasian Family

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

The Dravidian Family

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

Austro-Asiatic Family

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

Niger-Congo Family

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

The main method of typological studies is the comparative method. Comparative linguistics applies this method as well, but in that trend the elements compared are similar materially, which allows the scholar to establish their genetic affinity. Typology compares elements that are similar functionally. e.g. The English, Russian and Turkish languages have affixes which form nouns with the meaning "the doer of an action". These are the English affix -er, the Turkish one -ci, the Russian -тель. They consist of different phonemes and have no common origin, but they have the same function in the language. So they can be studied in comparative typology. Elements compared must have some common, similar **(isomorphic)**features in different languages. e.g. All case inflexions express relations between an object and other objects, phenomena or processes. At the same time the elements of each language have some special **(allomorphic)**characteristics peculiar for

this language.   e.g. Different languages have their own case systems with peculiar case meanings. Isomorphic characteristics serve as a basis for typological classification. They are called **typological constants.**One of typological constants is existence of the category of case. Using it, we can classify all languages into two groups: the ones having a system of declension and the ones lacking it. Difference between languages may lie not only in the fact of existence/non-existence of some element, but also in the place of the element within its microsystem.   When two languages are compared one of them serves as a prototype. For language students such a prototype is usually their native language. But the description of the English language by Russian-speaking students will differ considerably from the one made by French-speaking students. We can't get a really scientific, objective description in this way. A "neutral" language must be found, which can serve as a prototype for any language. Boris Andreevitch Uspenskiy suggested using isolating languages as prototypes because their structure is the simplest, and features isomorphic for all languages are explicit and distinct in them. But other scholars argue that the structure of isolating languages is not as simple as it seems, and some artificial prototype language must be constructed for the purposes of typological comparison.   Typological characteristics of a language revealed with the help of comparison of this language to a prototype language are correlated. They form a system. According to Georgiy Pavlovitch MeFnikov some elements and phenomena of this system occupy the leading position in it and the speaker subconsciously chooses such language means which are in harmony with the leading tendency. This leading grammatical tendency was given the name of determinant.   e.g. The Semitic languages (according to G.P. Mefnikov) have a tendency to grammaticalization. That's why verbal meaning is prevalent in word roots, consonants are used for expressing lexical meaning and vowels are used for expressing grammatical meanings. The Chinese language has a tendency to lexicalization. It doesn't express explicitly the information which is clear from the context (plurality is expressed only when not clear from the context).   Differences between languages can be quantified. A quantitative method was introduced by Joseph Greenberg. It is called the method of typological indices.   The most typical approach presupposes comparing languages "level by level", i.e. the phonological level of one language is compared to the phonological

level of the other, then the morphological, the syntactical, the lexical levels are compared. However, similar functions can be performed by elements of different levels in different languages, e.g. I *don't* lend my books to anyone (phonology) Я не даю моих книг никому (vocabulary) I don't lend my books to *anyone* (phonology) Я не даю моих книг кому попало, (vocabulary)   Вы знаете, где магазин, (phonology) You know where the shop is. (Syntax) Вы знаете, где магазин? (phonology) Do you know where the shop is?

Assessment specification

ЖОРИЙ БАҲОЛАШ (ЖБ)-55 балл

№	Назорат шакли	Назорат сони	Назорат учун балл	Йиғилган балл
1	Оғзаки сўров	11	2.27б. X 11	25
2	Реферат	4	2 б. X 4	8
3	Такдимот (презентация)	1	7 б. X 1	7
	Жами	16		40 балл

ОРАЛИҚ БАҲОЛАШ (ОБ)-30 балл

№	Назорат шакли	Назорат сони	Назорат учун балл	Йиғилган балл
1	тест	2	15 б. X 2	30
	Жами	2		30 балл

ЯКУНИЙ БАҲОЛАШ (ЯБ)-15 балл

№	Назорат шакли	Назорат сони	Назорат учун балл	Йиғилган балл
1	Тест	1 та	30 б	30
	Жами	1		30 балл

0-54 балл – «қониқарсиз»
55-74 балл – «қониқарли»
71-85 балл – «яхши»
86-100 балл – «аъло»

FINAL TEST ON COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY

Name _____ **group** _____ **date** _____

Variant I

1) Linguistic typology is about:
- a) Borrowings
- b) Comparison and classification of languages ;
- c) Sub-stratum and super- stratum languages;
- d) Stylistic devices

2) Cross – level approach:
- a) Is used in Formal Typology;
- b) Is used in Genealogical Typology;
- c) Is used in ComparativeTypology;
- d) Is the same as formal approach to comparison

3) Genetic Typology developed from ……
- a) Comparative Historical Linguistics *
- b) Genetic Typology
- c) Linguistic typology
- d) Areal Typology

4) A classification where languages are divided into groups according to their typical structural features
- a) Semantic classification
- b) Genealogical classification
- c) Typological classification
- d) phono-morphological classification

5) Division of typology with respect to the levels of language hierarchy...
- a)formal, phonological, semantic, morphological
- b) structural, areal, lexical, genetic, phonetic
- c) phonetic, phonological, morphological, syntactic, formal
- d) phonetic, phonological, morphological, syntactic, lexical

6) What language has non-developed morphology?
- a) Persian   b) Latin   c) Chinese   d) Vietnamese

7) Synchronic development means the development of some linguistic phenomena from...

3. the point of view of modern period

4. typologicalclassification

5. the historical point of viewnon-functioning feature

8) Category of plurality can be expressed in Modern English by...

27.   morphological means of expression, syntactic means

28.   phono-morphological means, lexical means

c)all answers are right

9) What approach deals with the cross system of any concrete language?

a)Internal   b)External

c) Pandronical   d) Non-substantial

10) Traditional grammatical categories consist of....

a) grammaticalcategorization

b) grammaticalform and grammatical meaning

c) analysis and synthesis

11)What is term of "category"?

a) comparison of language system from linguistic point of view

b) philosophical term meaning the sum of form and meaning

c)all answers are right

12) Which languages have highly developed morphology?

a) English, Bulgarian

b)Arabic, Chinese

c)Russian, Arabic

13)Which languages have less developed morphology?

a) Armenian, Persian

b) Chinese, Arabic

c) Bulgarian, Russian

14)What language has non-developed morphology?

a) Persian

b) Latin

c) Chinese

15)Which languages have only the forms of plurality and singularity?

a) English, Russian

b) Uzbek, English

c) Kazakh, Uzbek .

d) All answers are right

16)What is the base of linguistic study?

a) categories

b) differentiation

c) analysis

d) interpretation

17)Identification or non-identification of structural types of compared languages:

a) geneticcloseness

b) systemcloseness

c)quantitativecloseness

d) limitationofetalonlanguages

18)A semantic approach towards typological description is...

   a) contentapproach
   b) formalapproach
   c) cross-levelapproach
   d) one-levelapproach

19) Which categories are established by Danish scholar O. Jespersen and Russian linguist 1.1.Meshchaninov?

  a)lexicalcategories   b)typological categories

  c)grammatical categories   d) notionalcategories

20) Classification of the main essential features of languages, the most important characteristics and regularities are..........?
a) the subject of comparative. typology.
b) the object of comparative. typology.
c) the addictiveness of comparative typology.
d) the reality of comparative typology.

21) What was the contribution of Roman Jacobson to the definition of subject-matter of Linguistic Typology?

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

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

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

   d) Roman Jacobson contributed to the development of Areal Typology, dealing with specific connotation details

22) What does the general definition of Linguistic typology imply?
a) It implies that it unites various types of comparison of language systems. Genetic, Areal and Typological comparisons built into 5 aspects of general comparison process.
b) It implies that it unites various types of comparison of language systems. Genetic, Areal and Typological comparisons built into 3 aspects of general comparison process.
c) It implies that it unites various types of comparison of language systems. Genetic, Areal and Typological comparisons built into 4 aspects of general comparison process.
d) It implies that it unites various types of comparison of language systems. Areal and Typological comparisons built into 3 aspects of general comparison process.

23) What are the main principles classifying words into parts of speech?
   a) form, meaning, function
   b) function, meaning, form
   c) form, function, meaning
   d) none of them

24) What is the word according to Leonard Bloomfield?

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

25) What does General Typology bind as a method of scientific cognition?
a) it binds non-linguistic and linguistic typologies
b) only linguistic typologies
c) both verbal and linguistic typologies
d) none of them

26) Classification of the main essential features of languages, the most important characteristics and regularities are……….?
a) the subject of comparative. typology.
b) the object of comparative. typology.
c) the addictiveness of comparative typology.
d) the reality of comparative typology.

27) Austro-Asiatic Family includes……..?

a) This family features the many languages of Africa south of the Sahara. The large number of languages includeSwahili, Shona, Xhosa and Zulu
b) A family based around the Caucas Mountains between the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea. Georgian and Chechen are the main languages. They are known for their large number of consonants
c) This family contains languages of northern Africa and the Middle East. The dominant languages are Arabic and Hebrew.
d) This family are a scattered group of languages in Asia. They are found from eastern India to Vietnam. Languages include Vietnamese and Khmer.

28) Niger-Congo Family includes……..?
a) This family features the many languages of Africa south of the Sahara. The large number of languages includeSwahili, Shona, Xhosa and Zulu.
b) This family are a scattered group of languages in Asia. They are found from eastern India to Vietnam. Languages include Vietnamese and Khmer.
c) A family based around the Caucas Mountains between the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea. Georgian and Chechen are the main languages. They are known for their large number of consonants.
d) A family spread from Europe (Turkish) through Centra Asia (Uzbek), Mongolia (Mongolian), to the Far East (Korean, Japanese). These languages have the interesting property of vowel harmony

29) What does Comparative Pedagogy deal with?
a) general and distinctive features, development trends and prospective of theory, applied instruction and upbringing methods, reveals their economic, social political and philosophic backgrounds.

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

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

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

30) Historical linguistics (also called diachronic linguistics) is the study of……..?
a) language change
b) language relationship
c) language interchange
d) language specification

31) Which science reconstructs the pre-history of languages and determines their relatedness?
a) comparative linguistics
b) lexicology
c) phraseology
d) sociology

32) Which languages are perfectly developed and have the richest literature?
a) English, Chinese
b) Japanese, Indonesian
c) Malay, Portuguese
d) Spanish,Romanian

33) What is the contribution of Port Royal Grammar into the development of Linguistic Typology?
a) a great contribution
b) there is no contribution
c) this is one of the most precious contributions
d) specific contribution

34) The Indo-European Family includes…….?
a) The most widely studied family of languages and the family with the largest number of speakers. Languages include English, Spanish, Portuguese, French, Italian, Russian, Greek, Hindi, Bengali; and the classical languages of Latin, Sanskrit, and Persian.
b) A family spread from Europe (Turkish) through Centra Asia (Uzbek), Mongolia (Mongolian), to the Far East (Korean, Japanese). These languages have the interesting property of vowel harmony.
c) An important Asian family of languages that includes the world's most spoken language, Mandarin. These languages are monosyllabic and tonal
d) This family contains languages of northern Africa and the Middle East. The dominant languages are Arabic and Hebrew.

35) What is typology as a method of scientific study?

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

36) What are the two types of scientific comparison?
   a) substantial, non-substantial
   b) real, unreal
   c) specific, non-specific
   d) natural, unnatural

37) How many approaches in language description are there in typology?
   a) l

   b) 2
   c) 3
   d) 4

38) Panchronically means
   a) the description, which deals with the cross-system of any concrete language
   b) cross-system of two language systems
   c) comparison of language systems concerning modern period
comparison of language systems though they are living or dead

39)How many types of typology are there in linguistics according to the levels of language hierarchy?
   a)6
   • 4
   • 5
   d) 3

40) How many types of typology are there in linguistics according to two plans of language?
   a) 2
   b)3
   c) 4
   d) 5

41) What does linguistic typology study?
   a) all kinds of language in comparison
   b) the periods of development of linguistics
   c) stative study of a certain period
   d) the systems of genetically related and non-related languages in comparison

42) What does <u>substantial comparison</u> mean?
   e) comparison of language systems concerning modem period
   f) comparison of some concrete things or objects
   g) comparison of systems and their elements
   h) comparison of cross-systems of languages

43)What does <u>non-substantial comparison</u> mean?
   48.   comparisonofobjects
   49.   comparisonoflanguagesystems

50. comparisonofcrosssystems
51. comparison of systems and their elements

44) The category of plurality expressed by morphological means of expression...

2. muchmilk
3. class-people
4. foot-feet
5. boy-boys

45)The category of plurality expressed by phono-morphological means of expression...

a) class-people
b) tooth-teeth
c) girl-girls

46)Semantic typology studies two types of meaning. Theyare...

j) lexicalmeaningandmorphologicalmeaning
k) lexicalmeaningandgrammaticalmeaning
l) morphological meaning and phonetic meaning -
m) grammaticalmeaningandmorphemicmeaning

47)Diachronic development means the development of some linguistic phenomena from....

- phono-morphologicalclassification
- non-functioningfeature
- modernviewpoint
- thehistoricalviewpoint

48) The category of plurality expressed by syntactic means....

a) goose-geese

b) flower-flowers

c) a lot of teachers

d) class-people

49) Comparative typology has a direct connection with...

a) translation
b) lexicography
c) stylistics
d) allanswersareright

50) Which typology studies the syntactic structure of different languages...

a) lexical
b) syntactic
c) grammatical

51) According to the subject of comparison linguistic typology consists of:

a) genetic typology, areal, comparative, and structural
b) genetic, comparative,'structural, and semantic typology
c) syntactic, genetic, comparative, semantictypology
d) phonetic, syntactic, comparative and genetic typology

52)What historical-comparative linguists worked on programs for Indo-European languages in th 20th century when genetic typology started to develop?

a) Arnold, Lancelot, FransBopp
b) BrothersGrimm, Schleicher, Rask
c)Buranov, Arakin, Barchudarov

53) Interlanguage...

a) is a parameter of a typological category which means that the studying notion is common: to the system of comparing languages
b) is a parameter of a typological category and means that the studying notion may be expressed in different levels of language hierarchy
c) is a parameter of a typological category and means that the studying notion may be expressed by means of different parts of speech

54) Indifference to system identity, areal non-limitation are the parameters of…

a) Structural typology
b) comparative typology
c) genetic typology
d) comparative typology

55) Agglutinative languages are…

a) words consist of a system and one or more clearly identifiable affixes
b) words consist of only of a root
c) words consist of stem and affixes which often mark several grammatical c)categories simultaneously

56) Phonetic level deals with…

a) all languages' vocabulary is a system of semantic fields.
b) all languages' vowel and consonants
c) most languages' word structure
d) distribution of word order in the sentence.

57) Indifference to system identity, indifference to genetic identity, indifference towards deep and surface identity are the features of..

a) Comparative typology
b) Structural typology
c) Genetic typology
d) Areal typology

58) The first period of scientific linguistics is….

a) the period of the Universal Grammar
b) the period of comparative Linguistics
c) the period of System Linguistics
d) the period of Structural Linguistics

59) Appearance of dictionaries was the influence of…

a) fifth factor
b) sixth factor
c) fourth factor
d) third factor

60) The first factor is…

a) typological imitation
b) development of comparative language studies
c) appearance of scientific comparative works
d) influence of Lexicography

FINAL TEST ON COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY

Name _____ group _____ date _____

Variant II

1. **Etalon Language:**
   a)Is specific for Structural typology;   b) Deals with genetic limitation of languages;
   c)Is the same with the typological category;   d)Is synonymous to meta-language

2. **The Areal Typology:**
   a) Deals with meta language;
   b) Prepares the basis for typological theory;
   c) Is indifferent to genetic identity of compared language;
   d) Is indifferent to system identity of compared language;

3. **Deep Structure of the language** :
   a)   Can be classified into minimum and maximum;
   b)   Is used in Formal Typology;
   c) Deals with formal units of languages;
   d) Deals with generalized meanings of the language**;**

4. **The classification of linguistic typology into phonological and morphological is according to the:**
   a) Levels of linguistic hierarchy;
   b) History of the language development;
   c) Plans of the language development;
   d) Object study

5. **The Structural typology:**
   a) deals with comparison of closely related languages;
   b) deals with comparison of closely related languages;
   c) utilized the cross – level approach to comparison;
   d) is different to genetic identity of compared languages**;**

6. **What is the subject-matter of Linguistic Typology?**
   a) Linguistic Typology is a branch of general linguistics. There is no unanimity in defining the   subject-matter of linguistic typology
   b) Linguistic Typology is a branch of general statistics. There is no unanimity in defining the subject-matter of linguistic typology

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

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

7.   Typological linguistics is a subfield of <u>linguistics</u> that studies and classifies languages according to their……..?

a) structural features

b) dynamic features

c) spontaneous features

d) linguistic features

8. The Sino-Tibetan Family includes…………?

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

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

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

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

9.   What does system linguistics work with?

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

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

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

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

10. What does structural linguistics deal with?

a) study of the language internal structure

b) study of the language deep structure

c) study of the language external structure

d) study of the content material

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

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

12. The names of famous linguists who study the language system in comparison nowadays:

36.   Rojdestvenskiy, B.A.Uspenskiy, V.G. Gak,

37.   Buranov J.B., G.P. Melnikov

38.   Arakin V.D., Jespersen O.,

d) Yusupov U.K., Buranov J.B., Rasulova M.I., Ashurova D.U

13. Linguistictypology .

16.　　deals with the cross system of any concrete language

17.　　means comparison of language systems though they are living or dead

18.　　is a science of linguistics which studies the language systems in comparison

14. Genetically closely related languages are:

　a) English, German, Italian
　b) Latin, French, Russian
　c) Uzbek, Kirgiz, Kazakh

15. The term "type in language" is used mostly with....

　　a) one language

　b) two languages

　c) groupofwords

　d) geneticallyrelatedlanguages

16.　Linguistictypology........

　a)is a science of linguistics which studies the language systems in comparison
　b)deals with the cross system of any concrete language
　c)means comparison of language system though they are living or dead
　d)deals with the cross system of any abstract language

17. Non-linguistic typology deals with………

　　A) all types of science, except linguistics.
　　b)all types of science
　　c) only linguistic science
　　d) pedagogy and psychology

18. Task of quantitative limitation is …………

　　a) identifying linguistic features
　　b) identifying linguistic universals
　　c) identifying linguistic limitations
　　d) identifying distinctive features

19. How many parte does have structural Typology:

　a) 7　　b) 9　　c) 4　　d) 8

20. What is the task of Areal?

　　a) comparison of neighboring languages.
　　b) comparison of related languages
　　c) comparison of structure of languages
　　d) comparison of universals

21. The task of genetic classification belongs………

　　a) to the field of modern comparative linguistics
　　b) to the field of general linguistics
　　c) to the field of structural comparative linguistics
　　d) to the field of historical Comparative linguistics.

22. How many periods are defined for the history of development of linguistic typology?

　　a) 6　　　　b) 2　　　　c) 5　　　　d) 3

23. What was developed in the 3 period of Linguistic typology?

　　a) comparison of related languages

b) Universal grammar

c) translation

d) comparative linguistics

24. Into how many stages period of Comparative Linguistics?

a) 1   b) 9   c) 3   d) 6

25. How many periods in the history of typological studies Dr.Buranov identified?

a) 4

b) 6

c) 3

d) 2

26. What work of which author is considered as most solid work on linguistic comparison of Turkic languages?

a) Kudatgubilig by Yusuf Hos Hojib

b) Divan-Lugat-At-Turk by MakhmudKashkariy.

c) Lisonut-Tair by AlisherNavai

d) Khamsa by AlisherNavai

27. Which work of A.Navai can be example for comparative linguistics?

a) Mukhomatul-al-Lugatain.

b) Kudatgubilig by Yusuf Hos Hojib

c) Lisonut-Tair by AlisherNavai

d) Divan-Lugat-At-Turk by MakhmudKashkariy.

28. What kind of type of classification is offered by brothers Schlegels

a) Genetic and areal classification

b) morphological and syntactic classification

c) Genealogical and typological classification

d) Genealogical and genetic classification

29. The main factors of festering development of Linguistic typology are ………….

a) 6   b) 7   c) 3   d) 1

30. What is typological imitation?

a) It is the use of all methods of models of one language while describing the system of another.

b) It is the use of certain methods of models of all languages while describing the system of another.

c) It is the use of certain methods of models of one language while describing the system of another.

d) It is the use of certain methods of models of two languages while describing the system of another.

31. What factor influenced for the comparison of genetically related languages and group of languages?
   a) The second factor
   b) The first factor
   c) The fourth factor
   d) The third factor

32. Translation influenced in which factor?
   a) The first factor
   b) the second factor
   c) The third factor
   d) The fourth factor

33. How many major criteria are there for identifying subject matter and branches of Linguistic typology?
   a) 12   b) 10   c) 13   d) 11

34. What is type of language…
   a) It is related to structure/ typological classification of languages.
   b) It is related to genetic classification of languages.
   c) It is related areal classification of languages.
   d) It is related to comparative classification of languages.

35. The most popular classification of language types includes …
   a) analytic, isolative and polysynthetic
   b) fusional, synthetic, agglutinating and polysynthetic
   c) agglutinating, flexional, isolative and polysynthetic
   d) agglutinating, flexional, tone and stress

36. Type in language ……….
   a) It is related to the structural features typical for a certain language.
   b) It is related to the genetic features typical for a certain language.
   c) It is related to the structural features typical for any language.
   d) It is related to the genetic features typical for any language.

37. Historically conditioned material identity of cross language elements characterized by both ethic and emic identity
   a) The genetic identity
   b) structural identity
   c) morphological identity
   d) areal identity

38. Identefying cross-level correspondences belongs to …………
   a) Cross-level approach

b) Ethic-emic approach

c) content approach

d) formal approach

39. How many types of etalon language distinguished?
   a) 2   b) 3   c) 4   d) 1

40. Typological operation may be…
   a) complete/ incomplete or limited/unlimited

   b) complete/ incomplete

   c) only limited

   d) incomplete and limited

41. Areal non-limitation and system identity in closely related languages are the districtive features of…
   a) Genetic typology   b) Structural typology

   c) Comparative typology   d) Areal typology

42. The Slavic languages spoken today are classified in …
   a) three groups: South, West and East Slavic

   b) two groups: South and North Slavic

   c) four groups: South, West, East and North Slavic

   d) three groups: South, West and North Slavic

43. East Slavic comprises…
   a) Great Russian, White Russian and Ukrainian

   b) Great Russian, Polish, Ukrainian

   c) Ukrainian, Bulgarian, White Russian

44. Modern Roman Languages are…
   a) French, English, Italian

   b) French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese

   c) Italian, Spanish, English, Greek

   d) Spanish, German, French

45. Limited etalon language, formal approach to comparison and areal limitation of compared languages are the parameters of…
   a) Areal typology

   b) structural typology

   c) genetic typology

   d) comparative typology

46. Uzbek belongs to…
   a) South Eastern group of Turkish languages

   b) North Eastern group of Turkish languages

   c) Eastern group of Turkish languages

d) South-Western group of Turkish languages

47. The aim of structural Typology is…
   a) identifying universal features of languages
   b) identifying language limitations
   c) identifying genetic relationship of languages
   d) identifying formal approach to comparison

48. Indifference to system identity, areal non-limitation are the parameters of…
   a) Structural typology
   b) comparative typology
   c) genetic typology
   d) comparative typology

49. What is Etalon Language?
   a) It is an object language
   b) It is a subject language
   c) It is a natural language
   d) It is a certain language

50. Agglutinative languages are…
   a) words consist of a system and one or more clearly identifiable affixes
   b) words consist of only of a root
   c) words consist of stem and affixes which often mark several grammatical categories simultaneously
   d) Words consist of long string of stem and affixes

51. Polysynthetic languages are…
   a) words consist of a system and one or more clearly identifiable affixes
   b) words consist of only of a root
   c) words consist of stem and affixes which often mark several grammatical categories simultaneously
   d) Words consist of long string of stem and affixes

52. Who was the first to study Russian dialects in the XVIII century?
   a) Lomonosov
   b) Polivanov
   c) Kononov
   d) Vladimir Dal

53. Some scholars consider Structural typology an independent branch of ….
   a) General linguistics
   b) Comparative linguistics
   c) Theory of linguistics

d) Special linguistics

54.The notion of Linguistic Universals appeared in….
a) 1961 at the Congress of Linguistics in New York
b) 1964 at the Congress of Linguistics in New York
c) 1961 at the Congress of Linguistics in London
d) 1968 at the Congress of Linguistics in London

55. Who defined the term of Linguistic Universals?
a) J.Greenberg
b) R.Jacobson
c) V.Trubetskoy
d) E.Sapir

56. Lexical level deals with …
a) all languages' vocabulary is a system of semantic fields.
b) all languages' vowel and consonants
c) most languages' word structure
d) distribution of word order in the sentence.

57. Syntactic level deals with….
a) all languages' vocabulary is a system of semantic fields.
b) all languages' vowel and consonants
c) most languages' word structure
d) distribution of word order in the sentence.

58. Phonetic level deals with…
a) All languages' vocabulary is a system of semantic fields.
b) All languages' vowel and consonants
c) Most languages' word structure
d) Distribution of word order in the sentence.

59. Indifference to system identity, indifference to genetic identity, indifference towards deep and surface identity are the features of..
a) Comparative typology
b) Structural typology
c) Genetic typology
d) Areal typology

60. How many stages can lexicographical process be divided?
a) Analysis and synthesis
b) Comparison and synthesis
c) Analysis and analysis
d) There is no stage

PRESENTATIONS

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

QuickTime™ and a
decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

GLOSSARY

тушунча ва иборалар:

General Typology	*Typology* as a method of scientific study is characteristic to many fields of scientific knowledge because the taxonomic description, classification and systemic comparison of various objects are universal methods of cognition and apply to both non-linguistic and linguistic sciences.
Taxonomy	*Taxonomy* is a science studying theory of classification and systemizing.
Substantial lingustic comparison	Substantial comparison deals with comparison of real objects materializing substances , e.g. sounds , digits, numbers, etc.
Non-Substantial comparison	Non-substantial comparison deals with comparison of systems and their elements (phonemes, morphemes).
Quantitative limitation	Limitation of the number of compared languages. It may be minimal and maximal. Minimal means the open list of languages. Maximal quantitative limitation means that the number of compared languages may be two.
Linguistic typology	Linguistic typology is an independent branch of Linguistics dealing with systemic description, classification and comparison of languages irrespectively of their genetic origin or structural type.

Общая типология	Типология - как метод научного исследования характерна для многих областей научного знания, поскольку таксономическое описание, классификация и системное сравнение различных объектов являются универсальными методами познания и применяются как к неязыковым, так и к лингвистическим наукам
Таксономия	Таксономия - это наука, изучающая теорию классификации и систематизации
Существенное лингвистическое	Существенное сравнение касается сравнения реальных объектов, материализующих вещества, например. Звуки, цифры, цифры и т.

сравнение	Д.
Несущественное сравнение	Не существенное сравнение касается сравнения систем и их элементов (например, фонем, морфем).

Optional themes for self-study research papers

Number of theme	Title of theme	Number of assignments to the theme
1.	Branches of linguistic typology as to levels of language hierarchy :	2
2.	Morphological Typology	1
3.	Phonological Typology	1
4.	Syntactic Typology	1
5.	Major problems of classifying Typology into branches	1
6.	Classification of Languages by Edward Sapir	1
7.	Classification of languages by J. Greenburg	1
8.	Theory of deep structure	1
9.	Modern definitions of the subject matter of linguistic typology	1

10.	Types of linguistic comparison	1
11.	Types of Etalon language	1
12.	Linguistic Universals and their types	1
13.	Structural Typology and its parts	1
14.	Formal Typology	1
15.	Semantic Typology	1
16.	Notional categories of O. Jespersen and	1
17.	I.Meschaninov	1
18.	Genetic typology: diachronic and synchronic	
	Relations of Linguistic Typology to other branches of	2
19.	linguistics	1
20.	Parameters of the Typological Category	
21.	Functional-Semantic category of A. Bondarko	1
22.	History of development of linguistic comparison	1
23.	Typological Category of Plurality	1
24.	Lexical means of Typological Category of Plurality	1
25.	Syntactic means of Typological Category of Plurality	1
26.	Typological Category of Gender in English and	1
27.	Uzbek	
	Typological Category of Quality in English and Uzbek	1
28.	Typological Category of Diminution in English and	
	Uzbek	1
29	Major Parameters of classifying Linguistic Typology	1
30	into branches	1
	Lexical Typology and its distinctive features	
	The Typological category of singularity in English and	
	Uzbek	

Selected literature.

1.	Дж Буранов	Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков	М., 1983
2.	Ю.В. Рожденственский	Типология слова	М., 2007
3.	Успенский Б.А.	Структурная типология языков	М., 1965
4.	Greenberg L.H.	The Nature and Uses of Linguistic typologies	"Int. Journ of Am Linguistics", vol. 23, # 2, 1957

5.	Bazell C.E.	Linguistic Typology	L.,1958
6.	Аракин В.Д.	Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков	Л., 1979
7.	Амирова Т.А., Рождественски й, Ольховиков Б.А.	Очерки по истории лингвистики	М., 1975
8.	Бархударов Л.С.	Уровни языковой иерархии и перевод.	Тетради переводчика, М.,1969
9.	Бондарко А.В	Грамматическое значение и смысл	Л.,1978
10.	Гак В.Г.	Сравнительная типология французского и русского языков	М., 1977
11.	Гулыга Е.В., Шендельс Е.И.	Грамматико-лексическое поле в современном немецком языке	М.,1969
12.	Иванов В.В.	Типология и сравнительно-историческое языкознание	ВЯ, М., 1958 №5
13.	Кацнельсон С.Д	Типология языка и речевое мышление.	Л., 1972
14.	Колшанский Г.В.	Проблемы универсалий языка	М., 1972
15.	Chomsky N.	Deep Structure, Surface Structure and Semantic Interpretation	Tokyo, 1970

16.	Harris Z.	Methods in Structural Linguistics	University of Chicago Press, 1951

Асосий адабиётлар:

1. Буранов Дж.Б. Сравнительная типология английского и тюрских языков. М.: Высшая школа, 1983.-266с.

<div align="center">

Кушимча адабиётлар:

</div>

1. The Grammatical Structures of English, Uzbek and Russian. J.Buranov, U. Yusupov, M. Iriskulov, A. Sodiqov. T.: Ukituvchi, 1986.-307p.
2. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков. М.: 2002
3. Юсупов У. Инглиз ва узбек тилларининг чогиштирма лингвистикаси. Тошкент, Академнашр, 2013