

METHODOLOGICAL MANUAL

Contrastive analysis on the language levels

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PHONETICS &
PHONOLOGY



MORPHOLOGY



LEXIS



SYNTAX



STYLISTICS



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CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS ON THE LANGUAGE LEVELS

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Methodological manual “Contrastive Analysis on the Language Levels” is designed for MA students of 0110901 – Foreign Language and Literature (English language) specialty, within the module “Contrastive Linguistics”. The manual suggests theoretical overview and practical tasks on the subtopics of the general theme of the module – contrastive analysis on the language levels. The manual covers contrastive analysis on the phonetic and phonological, morphological, lexical, syntactic levels of the contrasted languages as well as contrastive studies in stylistics.

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Topic 1. Contrastive Analysis on the Phonetic and Phonological Levels

Theoretical Overview

The term “**phonetics**” originates from the Greek language, where “phone” means a sound/voice and “tika” means a science/box. Phonetics is defined as the science that studies the phonetic content and expressive area of language, or, in other words, the physical means of language (sounds, syllables, stress and intonation). [Abduazizov, 2010]. Thus, phonetics is the study of human speech sounds, focusing on their physical production, acoustic properties, and perception. It analyzes how the vocal organs (tongue, lips, larynx) create sounds, how these sounds propagate through the air, and how they are perceived by the ear and processed by the brain.

Among the linguists, who were initially involved into the study of phonetics, we might list Daniel Jones, Henry Sweet, Paul Passy, Alexander Melville Bell. Modern phonetics owes its development to R. Jakobson, A. Badouin de Courtenay, Ferdinand de Saussure and others [Бодуэн де Куртене, 1963, Соссюр, 1990].

The following **key branches of phonetics** might be distinguished:

- *Articulatory phonetics*: investigates how speech sounds are produced by the vocal organs, including the movement of the vocal tract, tongue, and lips.
- *Acoustic phonetics*: analyzes the physical, acoustic properties of speech sounds, such as frequency, duration, and intensity using tools like spectrograms.
- *Auditory phonetics*: focuses on the physiological process of hearing and how the brain and auditory nerve perceive sound waves [Cristal, 1991].

Phonology (phonemics/phonematics) is a branch of linguistics that studies how sounds are used in languages to convey meaning. Phonology also originates from the Greek language with “phone” meaning a sound, and “logos” – a science. It emerged in the end of XIX century in need of differentiating the functional (linguistic) sides of speech sounds from the

physiological-acoustic (physic) sides. Phonology studies the abstract, mental organization of speech sounds within a given language and across languages. It examines how sounds form patterns, systems, and rules that distinguish meanings, rather than simply the physical production of sounds (which is phonetics). While phonetics focuses on the physical articulation and acoustics of sounds, phonology focuses on how those sounds function within the speaker's mental grammar.

The **key aspects** of phonology include the following:

- *Phonemes and sound systems*: studying the smallest units of sound that distinguish meaning, known as *phonemes*.

- *Sound patterns and rules*: analyzing how sounds change and interact depending on context.

- *Allophones*: observing variations on a single phoneme that do not change the meaning of the word.

- *Prosody and structure*: studying the organization of sounds into larger units, such as syllables, stress, and intonation.

Contrastive analysis in phonetics and phonology includes comparing the sound systems of two or more languages finding differences and similarities in the physical, acoustic, articulatory production of sounds and their functional organization.

Contrastive phonetics accentuates on three main aspects: physical production (articulatory), transmission (acoustic), and perception (auditory) of sounds [El-Hossary, 2016].

There are several approaches to conducting contrastive phonetic analysis. Below are given three of them.

- *Stage 1*: The sounds of two or more languages in contrast are being thoroughly described. *Stage 2*: The sounds of two or more contrasted languages are compared with a shared articulatory basis, for instance, with International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA).

- *Stage 1*: The acoustic properties of speech sounds of two or more languages in contrast are analyzed. *Stage 2*: Sounds of two or more contrasted languages, which have much in common physically, are compared.

•*Stage 1*: The meaningful content being transmitted by auditory channels to the brain is investigated. *Stage 2*: The auditory features of the received “message” are analyzed.

Contrastive phonology focuses on the phonemes of two or more contrasted languages, as similar sounds of the languages in contrast might have different functional characteristics.

There are 4 *main steps* in the analysis of the sound systems of the languages in contrast [Al-Jarf, 2011]:

- compiling a phonetic inventory of two or more contrasted languages;
- equating phonemes between the analyzed languages;
- indicating the phonemic variants (allophones);
- specifying the restrictions on the distribution of phonemes and allophones in each language in contrast.

For more specifications, the given steps are analyzed more thoroughly:

First, the linguistic analysis of the sound system of the contrasted languages should be carried out, which includes describing of the two analyzed sound systems (segmental phonemes, stress, intonation and juncture or transition) – phonemes, their variants and distribution should be considered. *Second*, each phoneme in the contrasted languages should be compared (the place of articulation, the manner of articulation, phoneme variants, distribution patterns correlating with syllables, morphemes, words, position of stress). *Third*, the revealed contrasts should be listed and described.

Stage 1: Equating the phonological categories between the analyzed languages, using the IPA chart for the vowels and for the consonants. *Stage 2*: The consonants should be classified according to the place and the manner of articulation, the voicing. The vowels can be classified according to the tongue position, lip rounding, nasality, length. *Stage 3*: Indicating the allophones of the languages in contrast. *Stage 4*: Specifying the distributional restrictions on the allophones and the phonemes of the contrasted languages. The environment for the occurrence of the phonemes with phonetically similar allophones might vary.

Practical Tasks

Task 1. Choose two languages in contrast (f.eg. English and Uzbek/Russian) and compare their articulatory, acoustic, and perceptual aspects. Indicate similarities and differences. Justify your answer with examples.

	L1	L2	Similarities	Differences
<i>Articulation</i>				
<i>Acoustics</i>				
<i>Perception</i>				

Task 2. Consider the distribution of [r] and [l] in the following Korean words in contrast with the formally similar words in English.

Kor. rubi (ruby) and *Eng.* ruby

Kor. ratio (radio) and *Eng.* ratio

Kor. mul (water) and *Eng.* mule

Kor. pal (arm) and *Eng.* pal

Kor. sŏul (Seoul) and *Eng.* Seoul

Kor. saram (person) and *Eng.* saran

a) Write the phonetic environments for [r] and [l] in these contrasted words

[r]

[l]

b. Do [r] and [l] occur in any minimal pairs in both languages in contrast? Do they have a contrastive distribution?

c. Do [r] and [l] have a complementary distribution in both languages in contrast?

d. Are [r] and [l] allophones of one or two phonemes in English and Korean?

e. List similar and different characteristics of [r] and [l] in the contrasted languages.

Task 3. Watch the video “Overcoming Phonetic Interference” by Prof. John C. Wells at the University College London Summer Course <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NSnELuVrnkQ>

a. What is Phonetic interference? What might be the points of interference while speaking English for Uzbek/Russian learners?

b. Identify the possible points of Phonetic interference in consonant articulation for Uzbek/Russian learners in the following words:

today, start, professor, indication, translation, frustration, first, pepper, patrol

Task 4. Analyze the following words in Italian language:

tinta	‘dye’	tingo	‘I dye’
tɛnda	‘tent’	tɛŋgo	‘I keep’
dansa	‘dance’	funɡo	‘mushroom’
nero	‘black’	byaŋka	‘white’
dʒɛnte	‘people’	aŋka	‘also’
sapone	‘soap’	faŋgo	‘mud’

a. Find the minimal pairs in this Italian data. What phonemes do these minimal pairs demonstrate?

b. Write the phonetic environments for [n] and [ɲ] in these Italian words. Compare them with [n] and [ɲ] used in English language in the following words:

tint	sting
tent	waiting
dance	finger
neuron	bingo
gentle	angle
spoon	fang

Task 5. a. Compare the number of vowels and consonants in English and your second acquired foreign language. Compare the gained numbers.

b. Compare the number of phonemes and possible allophones in these two languages. Which language has more phonemic variants? How does the phonetic environment influence?

c. List and describe the similarities and the differences of two languages in contrast based on your analysis.

Topic 2. Contrastive Analysis on the Morphological Level

Theoretical Overview

The term “*morphology*” comes from the Greek words “*morphe*” meaning a form and “*logos*” meaning a science. Thus, morphology is a linguistic science, which studies the correlation between the meaning and the composition of a word that is constructed from the smaller units called *morphemes*. That is a “*morpheme*” is considered the smallest meaningful unit of language. A morpheme is a combination of one or several allomorphs, which significantly vary in shape depending on their environment. Morphology is closely connected with grammatical categories of words, word systems and parts of speech.

Morphology might be viewed as a two-layered structure: an outer layer, comprising inflectional forms, and an inner layer, which is word formation. When analyzing morphological systems, it is important to pay attention to the concept of *phonexia*, which is an identifier of a word form change. The inflection of nouns, pronouns, and adjectives is called *declension*; for verbs, this process is named *conjugation*; for adjectives, it is called *comparison* [Voloshina et al., 2024, p. 209].

The degree of morphology usage varies in languages according to their common morphological structures [Березин, 1969]. Due to this, languages having different typological characteristics are divided into two major groups: *analytic languages* and *synthetic languages*. An *analytic language* is a type of natural language that relies on strict word order and auxiliary words (prepositions, particles, subordinate verbs), rather than word endings (declension), to convey grammatical relationships. Key features include a low morpheme-to-word ratio and a tendency toward isolation, where individual words carry distinct meanings. *Synthetic*

languages are those that use inflections, affixes, or morphological markers to express grammatical relationships within words, rather than relying on strict word order or auxiliaries, resulting in a high morpheme-to-word ratio. They often combine multiple grammatical meanings (such as case, number, and tense) in a single word.

Based on the presence and absence of prefixes, infixes, suffixes, languages might be divided into those with and without affixes. Languages that do not have affixes and where each word typically consists of a single morpheme and words do not change form (no inflectional morphology) are called *isolating languages* (f.eg., Yoruba, Vietnamese, Mandarin Chinese, Thai). They use syntax, word order, and particles to convey grammatical relationships.

The languages, where a word represents a complete sentence, are called *polysynthetic* (f.eg., Inuit, Native American languages). These languages are a typological class of languages, in which words are composed of multiple morphemes, allowing a single, highly complex “sentence-word” to express concepts that in other languages require entire sentences. They are characterized by a high level of inflection and compounding, often combining subjects, objects, and verbs into a single whole.

Agglutinative languages are a type of synthetic language, in which complex words are formed by combining various, uninflected morphemes (word parts), where each unit typically represents a single grammatical meaning (f.eg., Turkish, Finnish, Hungarian, Korean, Japanese). This creates long, transparent words with clear boundaries between parts, making the grammar highly regular and predictable.

Inflectional (fusional) languages (f.eg., Latin, Russian, German, Spanish) are synthetic languages that modify word stems using affixes (prefixes or suffixes) or internal changes to express grammatical categories like case, gender, number, tense, and mood. A single affix in inflectional languages can convey multiple, inseparable grammatical roles.

Contrastive morphology is a branch of contrastive linguistics, which deals with finding differences and similarities between two or more

languages concerning the structure of words, inflexions, grouping words into parts of speech, establishing synonymous relations of affixal morphemes, syntactic words (prepositions / postpositions), etc. As well, it focuses on the differences in the ways of word formation in the languages in contrast (derivation, compounding, blending, clipping, conversion, etc.), grammatical categories, and possible difficulties that learners might experience based on the differences and similarities found.

Morphological contrastive analysis includes several steps:

- Step 1:* Morphology of each contrasted language is described and analyzed separately.

- Step 2:* Based on the got description the features of languages are compared on the basis of common criteria that is *tertium comparationis*. *Tertium comparationis* serves as a constant reference point against which linguistic differences are measured. As C. James has explained, for a valid contrast, the elements being compared must share some common attributes; otherwise, differences would lack meaningful significance. Thus, *tertium comparationis* is viewed as a “constant,” while the differences between languages are seen as “variables” [James, 1980, p. 169].

- Step 3:* The differences in affixes/inflections and ways of word formation are being analyzed.

- Step 4* (in case of practical application): The analysis is used for designing language materials, preparing curriculum and organizing teaching methodology by predicting possible learner errors.

Practical Tasks

Task 1. Grammatical categories can be of two types: primary grammatical categories, which describe parts of speech; secondary grammatical categories, which describe categories within each part of speech separately: tense, aspect, voice, degrees of comparison, number, case, etc.

List the primary and their secondary grammatical categories in English. Compare them with subsequent (if there are) categories in Russian/Uzbek. Identify similarities and differences.

English		Russian		Uzbek	
primary	secondary	primary	secondary	primary	secondary

Task 2. Compare word-formation suffixes (*noun-formation*) in English and Russian/Uzbek. What formal and functional similarities do they have? What are the differences?

Example: The English and Russian languages have affixes which form nouns with the meaning “the doer of an action”. These are the English affix -er and the Russian -тель. They consist of different phonemes and have no common origin, but they have the same function in the language.

English		Russian/Uzbek	
similarities	differences	similarities	differences

Task 3. Analyze the sentences in English and Vietnamese. One is a Flectional language and another one – Isolating. Indicate the morphological difference in expressing grammatical categories (tense, plural, case) in the following examples. Explain how English uses suffixes to show plural form and past tense, while Vietnamese uses separate words or no change.

English: The **cats walked** slowly.

Vietnamese: Con mèo **đi** chậm. (Literal: Classifier cat walk slow)

Task 4. Analyze in the following examples how Flectional (English) and Agglutinative (Swahili, Uzbek) languages add grammatical information to a root. Break down “alimpenda” (Swahili) and “tekshirilmagan” (Uzbek) into its component morphemes comparing the types of affixes and their position in both agglutinative languages. Compare the complexity to English.

English: **Unfriendliness** (prefix + root + suffix + suffix)

Swahili: **Alimpenda** (“He loved him” → \a\- {he} + -\l\- {past} + -\i\- {him} + -penda {love})

Uzbek: **Tekshirilmagan** (“Not having been checked” → tekshir- {check} + -\il\ {been} (passive) + -\ma\ {negation} + -\gan\ {past perfect})

Task 5. Analyze the following examples in English (Flectional) and Indonesian (Agglutinative) languages. Examine the use of reduplication for emphasis or pluralization. Contrast the use of affixation (English) with reduplication (Indonesian) to indicate plural and intensity.

English: “Those houses are very, very big.”

Indonesian: “Rumah-rumah itu besar-besar.”

Task 6. a) Analyze the usage of definite articles in the following examples. Identify the grammatical characteristics of the articles in the languages in contrast. Indicate how gender and number might be demonstrated through article usage.

English: **The** boy, **the** girl, **the** house, **the** books.

Spanish: El chico, la chica, la casa, los libros.

German: Der Junge, die Frau, das Haus, die Bücher.

b) Identify how German definite articles might change in different cases (nominative, accusative, dative, genitive).

Topic 3. Contrastive Analysis on the Lexical Level

Theoretical Overview

The term “lexicology” originates from Greek with “lexikos” meaning “pertaining to words,” which comes from “lexis” (“word,” “speech,” or “saying”) and “logia”, meaning “study of,” “reasoning,” or “subject-matter” and means “the science of words”. Thus, generally lexicology is the branch of linguistics that deals with the vocabulary, the structure, and the meaning of words in a language. It studies word formation, etymology, usage, and the relationships between words (such as synonymy/antonymy, polysemy, etc.). Lexicology analyzes individual words, phrasal verbs, word combinations and fixed expressions.

In major, there is a clear distinction between two branches of lexicology: *general* and *specialized*. Although both branches study vocabulary, they differ in their scope and focus. *General lexicology* encompasses the study of vocabulary as a whole, regardless of the unique characteristics of a particular language. On the other hand, *specialized lexicology* focuses on identifying individual elements and features inherent to the vocabulary of a particular language [Fabian, 2023, p. 5].

There are several branches of lexicology, which deal with language comparison and contrasting, such as ***lexical typology*** and ***contrastive lexicology***. Precisely, ***lexical typology*** investigates the units of lexical levels. It studies “interlingual paradigms of words, interlingual invariance of meanings expressed by words and phrases” [Rasulova, 2019, p. 144]. Some linguists combine lexical and semantic typologies; however, lexical typology deals with lexical units, while semantic typology concerns every level of language hierarchy.

On its turn, ***contrastive lexicology*** is the independent subbranch of lexicology having its own subject that is lexical and phraseological similarities and differences between two or more languages in contrast. Contrastive lexicology systematically compares the lexicons of two or more languages to identify structural, semantic, and functional similarities (isomorphisms) and differences (allomorphisms) between them. It analyzes how meanings are expressed, how words are formed, and how they combine, providing key insights for translation, foreign language teaching, and bilingual dictionary creation.

Contrastive lexicology differs in its structure from the traditional lexicology. It does not study such spheres as the meaning structure of a word, homonymy and polysemy, the ways of vocabulary enrichment and lexicon development. As well, it does not deal with the problems of diachrony, lexicon evolution as contrastive lexicology is based on purely synchronic linguistic investigation. In fact, contrastive lexicology is a branch of linguistics that studies the types of lexical and phraseological correspondences in two or more languages in contrast and identifies national semantic specifics in these correspondences [Стернин, 2007, с. 33-34].

As well, contrastive lexicology studies the morphological and semantic aspects of lexical units or lexemes at the interlingual level. It compares and contrasts various processes of lexicalization that is the realization of form and meaning at the word level, without neglecting the syntactic environment that determines the distribution of such realizations. Realizations at the form level constitute the object of study of what is called lexical morphology, while realizations at the meaning level constitute the object of study of what is called lexical semantics [Harouni, 2004, p. 74].

Central to the field of study of contrastive lexicology is the notion of an *interlingual correspondence*. Interlingual correspondences are the units of different languages that have similarities in their seme composition: these are semantically similar units of two languages, which might be given as each other's correspondences independently of the fact

whether they are used for the mutual translation or might be used for partial translating in particular contexts [Стернин, 2007, с. 34].

Concerning the *methodological aspect* of the contrastive lexicology, it applies comparative approach to analyze lexical units, linking their semantic, formal, and stylistic characteristics across languages.

Lexical contrastive analysis focuses on comparing the vocabulary systems of two languages. It examines how lexical items in one language are represented in another by analyzing semantic fields and semantic properties to determine the organization and categorization of the lexicon.

The primary goal of lexical contrastive analysis is to study and identify differences and correspondences in the meanings, designations, lexical-semantic groups, and lexical-semantic fields of compared languages. Through careful research and systematic comparison, scholars can identify common semantic categories, discover patterns of semantic variation, and shed light on the cultural, conceptual, and cognitive factors that shape the lexical-semantic systems of different languages. Conducting a comprehensive contrastive analysis involves a multifaceted approach. It encompasses the study of individual lexical units, their meanings, and how they are organized and classified within lexical-semantic groups. Furthermore, contrastive lexicologists examine the interrelations between lexical units and explore how they form coherent and interconnected lexical-semantic fields within a language. By pursuing contrastive lexicology, researchers gain valuable insights into how languages conceptualize and classify the world around them. This comparative approach enables researchers to identify lexical gaps, semantic differences, and translation problems that arise when comparing the vocabulary of one language with another. Furthermore, contrastive lexicology contributes to cross-linguistic research, aiding in the development of language teaching methods, machine translation systems, and intercultural communication strategies [Fabian, 2023, p. 7].

Furthermore, contrastive lexicology focuses on the analysis and comparison of linguistic lexicons and individual lexical units, studying their structural, semantic, and functional features. This analysis is guided

by the taxonomic principle that examines the relationships between lexical units of the compared languages. These relationships include:

- paradigmatic relationships, which include similarities and differences in meaning between words and groups of words;
- syntagmatic relationships, which refer to the contextual or linear relationships of words;
- epigrammatic relationships, which encompass relationships within a word or between its formal characteristics [Demenchuk, p. 12].

Thus, the ***focus areas*** of the contrastive lexicology include the following:

- *Lexical meaning and semantics*: comparing how different languages conceptualize the same reality (f.eg., whether a word in L1 requires a whole phrase in L2).
- *Word formation*: identifying the dominant tendencies in word construction (f.eg., derivation, shortening, compounding, etc.) and comparing them.
- *Collocation and function*: analyzing the combinations of words with each other (collocations) and their use in context.
- *Equivalence types*: dealing with equivalence types between the language units that is establishing the degree of similarity, ranging from full equivalence to partial equivalence, or zero equivalence (no direct counterpart).

Applied contrastive lexicology encompasses the following directions:

- *Bilingual lexicography*: compiling dictionaries needs a detailed description of the polysemy of words and the determination of exact equivalents. Bilingual lexicography systematically assembles the lexicons of two languages based on meaning and usage.
- *Translation studies*: helping translators to make meaningful choices by identifying potential gaps or “false friends” between languages. Contrastive lexicology gives valuable evidence for translators on the transferability of certain collocations and colligations from one language to another.

- *Language teaching*: assisting in predicting errors a learner might make based on the differences between L1 and L2. Knowledge and understanding of languages are becoming increasingly important, and contrastive lexicology focuses on how this knowledge can be applied in practice. It helps learners better understand languages, identify similarities and differences between them, and identify and correct common bilingual errors. Indeed, contrastive lexicology offers a comparative method for reasonably translating learners' thoughts, structuring their intuitive perception of language. This bilingual approach in contrastive lexicology saves students a tremendous amount of time and effort.

Practical Tasks

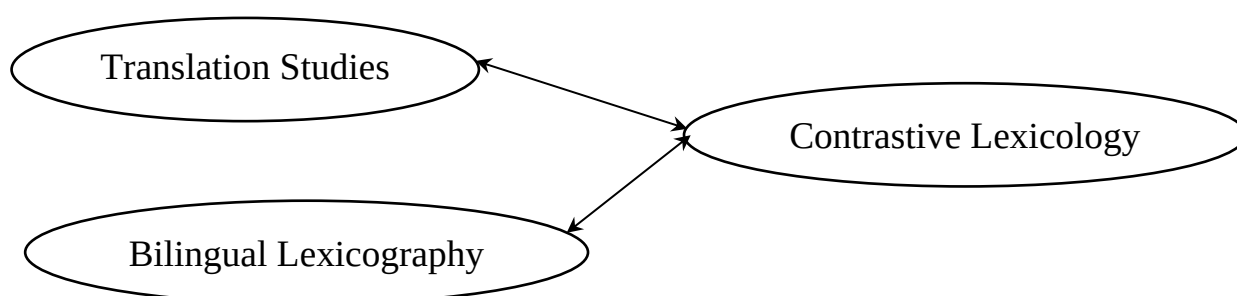
Task 1. Identify whether the translations of the given words and fixed expressions in German are expressed by simple or compound words or phrases in English and Russian/Uzbek. Analyze the got language correspondences and explain why a word is translated via an expression to another language and an expression is translated via a word (simple or compound).

German	English	Russian/Uzbek
Fenster		
Baum		
Schistock		
stillen		
Wirkungsgrad		
Ölfarbe		
Blutgefäße		
umsorgen		
Cousin		
Spinnerei		
Schußwaffe		
Weitsprung		
folgeschwer		
Angst haben		

taub werden		
heiser werden		
erwachsen werden		
klüger werden		

Task 2. Prof. Utkur Yusupov has proposed 6 factors determining the development of language comparison studies, among which there are the links between the contrastive linguistics (precisely, contrastive lexicology) with the translation and the bilingual lexicography. Identify the given factors and specify, how contrastive lexicology might influence translation and lexicography.

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.
- 6.



Task 3. Classify the following lexemes of native origin into three groups in the table: *ache, ash, apple, bake, bird, bold, buy, child, cow, dead, deep, early, finger, foam, ghost, gloom, ham, hat, heavy, home, hoof, ice, land, leaf, make, meet, mouth, neck, north, rain, rope, small, snake, summer, tongue, wife, wing, winter*

Indo-European	Common Germanic	English proper

Task 4. Identify “translator’s false friends” in the given list, define their meanings in the given languages and explain why they are considered the “false friends”.

English	Spanish	Russian
actual	actualmente	актуально
application	aplicación	аппликация
bizarre	bizarro	-
grade	grado	град
grocery	grosería	-
lecture	lectura	лекция
to register	registrar	регистрировать
to realize	realizar	реализовать
carpet	carpeta	карпет

Task 5. Analyze the cases of lexical divergence and explain differences:

- the English verb *to be* is used for both location and identity, while Spanish uses distinct verbs *ser/estar*;
- Russian uses distinct adjectives for color shade distinction *голубой/синий*, while English uses just *blue*;
- in English two distinct nouns are used to identify parts of human upper limb *arm/hand*, while Uzbek uses one *qo'l*.

Task 6. Analyze recent technical or computer-related neologisms (*to google, app, email, cookies, smartphone, online/offline, to post, vibe, swipe, deepfake, ghosting, to troll, hashtag, cryptocurrency, doomscrolling, brainrot, viral, meme, clickbait, shadowban, catfishing, breadcrumbing, tweet, screenshot, influencer, cancel culture, NPC, AFK, digital detox, delulu, frag, noob, to speedrun, to lag*) and identify how they are adopted or translated in your native language (borrowing, calque, or semantic translation).

Task 7. Find equivalent idioms in your native and second foreign language for a set of English fixed expressions. Determine if the imagery is identical (isomorphism) or completely different (allomorphism).

to break the ice; it's raining cats and dogs; to kick the bucket; to bring coals to Newcastle; to shed crocodile tears; a piece of cake; to skate on the thin ice; Achilles' heel; skeleton in the closet; a fish in the water; to cross the Rubicon; salt of the earth; to spill the beans; pain in the neck; when pigs fly; burst into tears.

Topic 4. Contrastive Analysis on the Syntactic Level

Theoretical Overview

The term *syntax* comes from the Ancient Greek word *súntaxis*, meaning “arrangement” or “setting out together” from the combination of *sún* (“together”) and *tássein* (“to arrange”). The term entered English in the mid-16th century via French and Medieval Latin to describe the orderly arrangement of words into phrases and sentences.

Syntax encompasses the rules, the principles, and the processes that regulate the structure of sentences in a language, particularly, word order and phrase arrangement. It governs the combining of words in forming logical phrases and sentences; thus, ensuring clear communication.

The **key aspects** that are covered by syntax and, accordingly, dealt with in the process of **contrastive syntactic analysis** are:

- *Word order*: the specific sequence of words that determines meaning.
- *Phrases*: Several words that form a single unit in a sentence are often examined using syntactic analysis.
- *Grammatical rules*: governing agreement (f.eg., singular vs. plural), sentence structure, and hierarchical organization.
- *Meaning manipulation and Sentence interpretation*: rearranging syntax can seriously change the meaning or emphasis of a sentence.
- *Sentence hierarchy*: important for understanding complex sentence structures.

Thus, syntactic level has two units: **phrases** and **sentences**. Syntax deals with two means of syntactical relations between words: the nature and types of combination of words (phrases); the nature and types of sentences [Гурмонов, 1992, Юсупов, 2011].

Word-combination (or phrase) is a group of two or more words that act together as a single grammatical unit within a sentence. Phrases give additional meaning, such as description or context; however, they do not include both a subject and a verb and, thus, they cannot stand alone as a complete sentence. Studying word-combinations from *contrastive* viewpoint, aims at investigating allomorphic and isomorphic features of two or more languages at word-combination level.

Phrases are divided into *simple* and *complex*. Simple ones consist of two notional words. If there are more than two notional words, the phrase is called complex. There are four types of syntactic relations which reveal between components of two members: *predicative, attributive, objective* and *adverbial relations*. Syntactic relations find their material expression on different exact factors with what syntactic connections are given. These are the following factors: *agreement, government, collocation*. Word-combination consists of two members: principal, kernel (K) and dependent word, adjunct (A).

Sentence is the basic unit of syntax. It is different from other language units, because it is a unit of communication. The sentence is the central syntactic construction used as the minimal communicative unit that has its primary predication, which is actualized by definite structural scheme and intonation characteristics. The sentence is a unit of speech whose grammatical structure conforms to the laws of the language and which serves as the chief means of conveying a thought. A sentence is not only a means of communicating something about reality, but also a means of showing the speaker's attitude to it.

According to the *purpose of the utterance*, 4 kinds of sentences are distinguished: *declarative, imperative, interrogative and exclamatory sentence*.

According to the *structural features*, sentences are divided into *simple* and *composite*; *two-member* and *one-member* sentences. Sentences might be also *elliptical*.

Concerning *the language type*, the following set of parameters is inclined to the syntactic attributes:

Isolating analytic languages typically lack obligatory grammatical categories commonly found in inflectional or agglutinating languages, such as tense and case, or agreement in gender or number. Compounding is widespread in isolating languages, while word formation is a feature of other language types; this follows from the tendency toward a one-to-one correspondence between morpheme and word in isolating languages.

Analytic languages employ periphrastic constructions in their syntax, while synthetic languages express similar meanings within a single word through its affixes [Shopen, 2007, p. 9].

Contrastive syntax, thereby, is inclined to compare the sentence structure, word order, and grammatical rules of two or more languages in contrast, that is **contrastive syntactic analysis** identifies differences and similarities in the syntactic systems of the contrasted languages to improve translation accuracy, assist in foreign language learning, and inform bilingual lexicography. As well, contrastive syntactic analysis is often used in applied linguistics, particularly for identifying interference errors in language learning. Contrastive syntactic analysis, thus, typically examines clause types (embedded, finite, infinite), phrase structure, word order differences (f.eg., SVO vs. SOV), and verbal/adjectival constructions. The goal is to predict and explain errors that stem from native language interference (negative transfer).

Often contrastive syntax uses the following **methodology**:

- **Description**: analyzing the syntactic structures of both/all languages in contrast.

- **Juxtaposition**: placing similar structures side-by-side to compare them.

- **Comparison**: identifying divergences in the contrasted languages. This method is crucial for understanding how syntactic differences lead

to the “negative transfer,”¹ where a learner’s L1 structure is incorrectly applied to the L2 [Croft, 2003].

Main ***assumptions and applications*** of the contrastive syntax include the following:

- *Focus areas*: examining sentence/clause/phrase structures, verbal/adjectival constructions, embedded propositions (e.g., infinitives or participles) in the languages in contrast.

- *Word order comparison*: analyzing how different languages order words, such as comparing English SVO structure with different languages’ word arrangement.

- *Translation and Education*: providing translators with interlingual transfer and helping teachers and learners in avoiding errors caused by syntactic interference.

- *Techniques*: application of the “parallel-text” analysis to find formal equivalents in syntax between languages.

Practical application of contrastive syntactic analysis involves comparing sentence structures between two languages to identify differences and prevent errors. Effective methods include translation, error analysis, sentence transformation, and sorting tasks, which focus on areas like word order, verb systems, preposition use, and sentence connectivity.

Practical Part

Task 1. Translation practice. Translate a following paragraph containing complex syntactic structures from English to your native language, then translate it back to English without looking to the original text. Compare the gained syntactic structures. Is there big difference or structural unnaturalness? If so, has syntactic interference influenced the translation?

The ancient manuscript, which had been hidden behind the rotting wainscoting for over three centuries, was finally discovered by a young archivist whose dedication to preserving local history was unmatched. Although the document was severely damaged, requiring meticulous

¹ Happens when differences between L1 and L2 cause errors in L2 production or comprehension.

restoration before it could be safely handled, its contents – containing cryptic references to a forgotten, underground passage – were immediately deemed invaluable. Had the preservationists not intervened promptly, the fragile parchment, which was beginning to succumb to oxidation, would undoubtedly have disintegrated; thus, obscuring a pivotal, yet long-suppressed, chapter of the town’s clandestine history.

Task 2. Analyze the following declarative sentences and yes/no questions in a contrastive table, comparing English and Spanish examples. Identify the structural patterns of sentence construction. How does word order differ in English and Spanish? Is there any possibility of inversion in any of the given languages? How might emphasis be realized if needed in each of the languages in contrast? Reconstruct the given sentences in order to emphasize the subject/the verb/the object.

Declarative sentences and yes/no questions	Oraciones declarativas o interrogativas de sí o no
Bill prefers meatballs	Bill prefiere las albóndigas
Does Bill prefer meatballs?	¿Prefiere Bill las albóndigas?
Peter has eaten his smoked salmon	Peter se ha comido su salmón ahumado
Has Peter eaten his smoked salmon?	¿Se ha comido Peter su salmón ahumado?
That woman smokes too much	Esa mujer fuma demasiado/Fuma mucho esa mujer
What did John do right now?	¿Qué hizo John ahora mismo?

Task 3. Compare the rules of making *interrogative* and *negative sentences* in English and Russian/Uzbek. What grammatical differences and similarities do they have? How does the structure of the interrogative/negative sentences differ in the given languages in contrast? What are the differences and similarities in the word order?

Task 4. Rewrite sentences in the English language to shift grammatical focus, comparing them to the equivalent structure in the

French language. Transform active sentences to passive sentences to contrast how different languages use passive forms.

Active form	Passive form
<i>Eng.:</i> The investigative reporter uncovers the shocking truth behind the scandal. <i>Fr.:</i> Le journaliste d'investigation dévoile la vérité choquante qui se cache derrière le scandale.	<i>Eng.:</i> <i>Fr.:</i>
<i>Eng.:</i> The diligent crew paved the entire three-mile stretch of highway in one week. <i>Fr.:</i> L'équipe, très travailleuse, a asphalté la totalité du tronçon d'autoroute de trois miles en une semaine.	<i>Eng.:</i> <i>Fr.:</i>
<i>Eng.:</i> The marketing team is designing a new campaign to boost engagement. <i>Fr.:</i> L'équipe marketing travaille à la conception d'une nouvelle campagne pour dynamiser l'engagement.	<i>Eng.:</i> <i>Fr.:</i>
<i>Eng.:</i> The enthusiastic guide was leading tourists through the historic museum daily. <i>Fr.:</i> Le guide enthousiaste faisait visiter quotidiennement le musée historique aux touristes.	<i>Eng.:</i> <i>Fr.:</i>
<i>Eng.:</i> The board of directors will announce the new company merger on Friday. <i>Fr.:</i> Le conseil d'administration annoncera la nouvelle fusion de l'entreprise vendredi.	<i>Eng.:</i> <i>Fr.:</i>

<i>Eng.:</i> The committee will be discussing the proposed changes during the afternoon meeting. <i>Fr.:</i> Le comité discutera des modifications proposées lors de la réunion de l'après-midi.	<i>Eng.:</i> <i>Fr.:</i>
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Task 5. Identify, which of the highlighted prepositions are used *incorrectly*. Compare the same preposition usage with its equivalent in German. Analyze the cases of L2 interference in the preposition use.

Last weekend, I went **to** the cinema **with** my friends. **On the beginning**, we wanted to eat something, so we waited **on** a table at a nearby restaurant. I was thinking **about** to order pizza, but then I decided to wait **for** the movie instead. **After the cinema**, we talked **about the film** and I told them I was very satisfied **from** the service there. We agreed **on** meeting again **in** the next Friday.

Topic 5. Contrastive Studies in Stylistics

Theoretical Overview

The term “stylistics” derives from the word *style*, which, being Latin in origin, mean *stilus* or *stylus* – a pointed writing instrument or a “writing stick” used for scribing on wax tablets. The term experienced a semantic shift starting to mean the manner of expression, later combining with the suffix *-istic* (relating to) to form the academic study of linguistic style.

Stylistics is a branch of general linguistics that encompasses issues related to the expressive potential of language, the notions of style and stylistic devices, functional styles and types of speech, stylistic distinctions in lexicon, the choice of linguistic means for constructing a text, verbal creativity and variability, and many others.

According to the object and the purpose of research in the field of stylistics, the following **major directions** might be distinguished:

- “• Stylistics of resources;

- Text stylistics;
- Functional stylistics;
- Stylistics of individual style (idiostyle);
- Comparative stylistics;
- Stylistics of belles-lettres or literary (fictional) texts” [Ashurova, Galieva, 2016, p. 6].

Concerning **contrastive stylistics**, it is directed to the comparison of the stylistic resources of two languages (or genres) to identify similarities and differences, focusing on how different linguistic means are used to achieve equivalent expressive or functional effects.

It is frequently used in translation to highlight stylistic differences between L1 and L2, ensuring a natural-sounding translation. While translating from one language to another, extralinguistic norms, phraseological and stylistic approaches may prove to be the most important aspects for conveying the information contained in the original language [Muladjanov, 2024, p. 32].

Thus, contrastive stylistics is a linguistic discipline that studies stylistic similarities and differences between two or more languages, having the aim of the comparative study of common and distinctive features of stylistic resources and functional styles in the languages in contrast. It analyzes the ways of expression, comparing how different languages convey emotions, evaluate, or structure a text. This presupposes the following directions:

- The study of the differences and similarities of the functional styles in two and more languages.
- The comparative study of language resources used in various spheres of communication and identification of the distinguishing features of choice of language units and their combinability (distribution) in speech.
- The development of the methods and techniques of analysis used in contrastive stylistic research.

Concerning the **methods** applied by the contrastive stylistics, in major, they include the following:

- *Semasiological*: comparing similar forms in two languages to see how their functions differ.

- *Onomasiological*: comparing different forms in two languages that serve the same function.

Contrastive stylistics can be subdivided into two specific **fields** of study:

- **Structural contrastive stylistics**, the aim of which is to study the stylistic means (stylistic resources) of two or more languages based on linguistic levels (phonetic-phonological, morphological, lexical, syntactic levels).

- **Functional contrastive stylistics**, the aim of which is to identify the functional and stylistic characteristics of two or more languages, that is, to study language variants determined by specific areas and purposes of communication.

Contrastive stylistic analysis allows us to compare corresponding spheres in the stylistic systems of two languages and establish relationships of *symmetry* and *asymmetry* between them. *Stylistic asymmetry* occurs when formally equivalent phenomena in two languages may have significant differences in meaning and usage.

The **key aspects** of contrastive stylistic analysis include:

- *Functional parameters*: studying differences in informational density, expressiveness, and persuasiveness between the languages in contrast.

- *Stylistic features*: examining differences in tone (emotional vs. neutral), text structure (concise vs. verbose), and vocabulary [Al-A'ssam, Sukker, 2022].

- *Genre and Register*: exploring how specific genres, like news, humor, or formal writing, are realized differently in each language [Chendey, 2024].

Several **steps** should be followed in the process of contrastive stylistic analysis of textual material:

1. *Text selection*: selecting texts in two or more contrasted languages belonging to the same functional style, genre, and historical period

(literary works, news articles, advertisements, etc.). The selected texts should have similar themes, registers, and communicative functions.

2. *Identification of stylistic parameters*: analyzing key stylistic phenomena (foregrounding devices) and properties, paying major attention to the lexical features and word choice, syntactic structures, figurative language, figures of speech, and poetic devices, tone and mood.

3. *Comparison of the equivalent stylistic phenomena and elements*: identification of the foregrounding effect and comparison of figures of speech (stylistic devices) in both languages; consideration of the grammatical and structural differences (flexibility of word order, fixed syntax); comparison of methods of conveying concepts, ideas, and emotions through stylistic devices and phenomena.

4. *Contextual analysis and cultural context*: consideration of the influence of social and cultural factors on stylistic decisions; identification of culture-specific elements in stylistic resources, idioms, and proverbs; consideration of differences in narrative style; analysis of how cultural symbols and traditions are embedded in both texts.

5. *Functional analysis and interpretation*: assessing how stylistic features influence meaning and expression in each language; identifying how stylistic choices and stylistic resources influence reader perception, emotional impact, and text interpretation.

6. *The results of the gained analysis*: summarizing the key stylistic similarities and differences; highlighting the role of culture in the formation of style; discussing the stylistic tendencies of the compared texts; proposing practical recommendations for translation studies, literary criticism, and language teaching.

Generally, ***the practical application*** of the contrastive stylistics as a branch of the contrastive linguistics includes, as well, the spheres of translation and language teaching. Contrastive stylistics helps in identifying how to bridge the gap between two cultures, understanding how different word types and sentence structures can be used in L1 and L2.

Practical Part

Task 1. There are several stylistically relevant processes in languages. Identify, which each of them presupposes and confirm with examples from English and your native language. The following processes might be considered:

1. Americanization
2. Grammaticalization
3. Colloquialisation and democratization
4. Euphemization and political correctness
5. Neologization
6. Language compression

Task 2. What are the stylistic *symmetry* and *asymmetry*? Provide per 5 examples of each in English in contrast to your native language. Indicate the points of symmetry and asymmetry.

For example, the use of zeugma in the English language usually creates a unique artistic effect, conveys a particular humorous meaning: *John lost his coat and his temper. You held your breath and the door for me. She arrived in a taxi and a flaming rage.* In Uzbek and Russian, the use of zeugma is not a literary norm and, thus, is rarely met.

Task 3. Translation practice. Translate a piece of a literary text from English to your native language. Use equivalent stylistic devices and expressive means. Analyze how stylistic devices (e.g., metaphors, idioms) are adapted to the target language. Do they contain the same images? Is there any stylistic unnaturalness?

“Although it was so brilliantly fine—the blue sky powdered with gold and great spots of light like white wine splashed over the Jardins Publiques—Miss Brill was glad that she had decided on her fur. The air was motionless, but when you opened your mouth there was just a faint chill, like a chill from a glass of iced water before you sip, and now and again a leaf came drifting—from nowhere, from the sky. Miss Brill put up her hand and touched her fur. Dear little thing! It was nice to feel it again. She had taken it out of its box that afternoon, shaken out the moth-

powder, given it a good brush, and rubbed the life back into the dim little eyes. “What has been happening to me?”—said the sad little eyes. Oh, how sweet it was to see them snap at her again from the red eiderdown!... But the nose, which was of some black composition, wasn't at all firm. It must have had a knock, somehow. Never mind—a little dab of black sealing-wax when the time came— when it was absolutely necessary... Little rogue! Yes, she really felt like that about it. Little rogue biting its tail just by her left ear. She could have taken it off and laid it on her lap and stroked it. She felt a tingling in her hands and arms, but that came from walking, she supposed. And when she breathed, something light and sad—no, not sad, exactly—something gentle seemed to move in her bosom.”²

Task 4. Contrast the stylistic nuances of the following synonyms in English and Polish and determine if they share similar connotations (f.eg., emotive, formal, informal, vulgar, etc.).

English:

- tasteless, inapt, unpleasant, affecting, tacky, cheap, coarse, crude, inelegant, unstylish, vulgar, garish, gaudy, crass, dowdy, kitschy, cheesy, tacky-tacky, sleazy, naff
- unrefined, crude, natural, raw, untreated, unprocessed, unpurified, rough, unworked, unprepared, unmilled, rough-hewn, unfinished, impure, native, uncouth, coarse, vulgar, rude, unpolished, uncultured, uncultivated, unsophisticated, inelegant, boorish, loutish, crass, barbarian, philistine, ill-bred, indelicate, awkward, ungraceful, rustic, provincial, earthy, rough-hewn, brutish, savage, ignorant, unmannered, churlish, gauche, graceless, lowbrow
- start, begin, commence, originate, initiate, launch, set up, dive in, get cracking, jump in, set about, embark upon, take the first step, establish, found, set up, create, institute, pioneer, introduce, get the ball rolling, get cracking, dive in, set to work, fire up, get off the ground
- showing off, ostentatious, pretentious, sensational, garish, flashy, showy, tawdry

² Mansfield Katherine. Miss Brill (1920). URL: <http://www.katherinemansfieldsociety.org>

smart, intelligent, bright, brilliant, clever, sharp, astute, savvy, shrewd, keen, ingenious, flaunting, parading, boasting, swaggering, strutting, vanity, grandstanding, grandstanding, exhibiting, displaying, exposing, flourishing, brandishing, sporting, flexing

- withdraw, retreat, retire, pull out, remove, retract, leave, extract, relinquish, rescind, renounce, vacate, back away, back out, detach, disengage, disentangle, decamp, vamoose, split, scam

Polish:

- niegustowny, kiczowaty, tandetny, bezguście, szmirowaty, niesmaczny, odpustowy, jarmarczny

- nieokrzesany, bez ogłady, niewychowany, niegrzeczny, źle wychowany, prymitywny, prostacki, ordynarny, grubiański, chamowaty, obcesowy, szorstki, opryskliwy, buraczany, gbur, cham, burak, buc, ordynus, prostak, niewyrobiony, prosty, ograniczony, tęp

- zacząć, rozpocząć, rozpoczynać, począć, poczynąć, ruszyć, ruszać, wystartować, zainicjować, inicjować, zapoczątkować, zainauguować, inauguować, wdrożyć, wdrażać, przedsięwziąć, podjąć, podejmować, otworzyć, otwierać, zabrać się, zabierać się (do/za coś), wziąć się, brać się (za coś), przystąpić (do czegoś), zasiąść (do czegoś), złapać się (za coś), zadrzeć (z kimś), zaczepić

- popisowy, demonstracyjny, przechwalający się, chwalcący się, pyszniący się, chełpiący się, zadufany (w sobie), zapatrzony w siebie, szpanujący, szpanerski, nadymający się, napuszony, dający popis, chodzący jak paw, zadzierający nosa, obnoszący się (z czymś), wyrachowany, zadufany w sobie, zarozumiały, afiszujący się

- wycofać, cofnąć, cofnąć pozew, odwołać, odebrać, zabrać, wypłacić, pobrać, pobierać, usunąć, unieważnić, anulować, uchylić, skreślić

Task 5. a) List and explain the steps of the contrastive stylistic analysis.

b) According to these steps analyze two articles in English and Russian. The first step has been done for you (selecting texts in two contrasted languages belonging to the same functional style, genre, historical period and similar topic).

The Population Paradox in India

By Sunaina Kumar

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India is growing in some states, declining in others – but rapidly ageing all over.

Growing up in India, it was most common to hear the word “population” juxtaposed with “explosion”, like a frightful bomb that would go off in our faces. The first known use of the term “population explosion” is from 1903, according to the Merriam Webster Dictionary. The threat of the population bomb is gone for good, reflecting major shifts in demography over the last century.

In April 2023 when India reached 1,425,775,850 people, it surpassed China’s population to become the most populous country in the world. India’s population is expected to grow for several decades and could peak at 1.7 billion by the 2060s, while China’s population is already in decline, according to UN estimates.

Couched behind the colossal numbers are several contradictory demographic trends that have taken root in different parts of the country. The total fertility rate in India has declined from 3.4 children per woman in 1992-93 to 2.0 children per woman in 2019-21, a result of national family welfare programs which started in the 1950s and used a mix of incentives and disincentives to curb population growth. At 2.0, the current fertility rate in India has dipped below population replacement level of 2.1 children per woman. Population in India will however continue to grow, concentrated mostly in the northern states of the country on the basis of demographic momentum, a phenomenon that results from a large number of young adults in childbearing years.

A north-south divide

At the same time, falling birth rates are leading to growing anxiety about population decline in other parts of the country. The government in the southern state of Andhra Pradesh recently rolled back a policy which barred people with more than two children from contesting elections in local government. The policy, which was in place for 30 years, was meant to check population growth by disincentivising people from having more than two children. The total fertility rate in Andhra Pradesh has fallen to 1.5, well below the replacement level and closer to countries in the European Union which has a fertility rate of 1.46 and Australia at 1.5. The political leadership of the state is urging women and families to have more children as an economic imperative.

It's no different in the neighbouring state of Tamil Nadu, where leaders are promoting large families, signalling a dramatic U-turn in policy. Compared to the north, the five southern states of India are economically more advanced and have been highly successful in slowing population growth by focusing on development and women's empowerment.

Unlike China, which had a centralised approach to population control, India's federal structure had state governments enact their own policies causing diverse impacts in different regions of the country, such as the southern states where birth rates dropped below replacement level two decades before the rest of the country.

Declining population is no longer confined to the economically developed southern or western India. Smaller states in all of the country are grappling with the effects of demographic transition, with varied implications for policymaking. The fertility rate in the north-eastern state of Sikkim has plunged to 1.1, with the state government going into overdrive, offering additional increments for employees with more than one child, along with free childcare, paternity leave, and financial assistance for IVF procedures.

Competing development priorities

India has one of the youngest populations in the world: 65 per cent of the country is under the age of 35, a much vaunted statistic. India's demographic dividend – by 2030 one out of every five working-age

people in the world is projected to be Indian – is cited as a matter of national pride. To reap the demographic dividend, the country needs to create new jobs for the millions that enter the workforce every year – India will need to add 7.85 million jobs every year until 2030 according to the government. It will need to simultaneously address the drastic skill gaps in the workforce and the wicked problem of exclusion of women from the workforce.

Alongside this phenomenon, India like China is rapidly ageing, which is linked with declining fertility, falling mortality risks and higher life expectancy in both countries. The speed and scale of ageing is a global concern but in a country like India, it is a race against time, as the country will need to get richer before it gets older. The elderly population, which is nearly ten per cent of the total population, is expected to more than double by 2050. India will be caught between prioritising the youth and taking care of the elderly by providing quality healthcare and social protection.

Governments and policymakers have their work cut out. One thing is for certain, demographic transition in India will have consequences for the rest of the world.

<https://www.lowyinstitute.org/the-interpreter/population-paradox-india>

Наиболее густонаселённая страна: Индия в 2026 году

Богдан Карнович

Март 12, 2026

Плотность человеческого муравейника в Мумбаи превышает 20 тысяч человек на квадратный километр, где ритм уличного трафика сливается с ароматом стритфуда и гомоном рынков. В 2026 году Индия официально держит пальму первенства среди наиболее густонаселённых стран мира с населением 1 476 625 576 человек, обогнав Китай ещё в 2023-м. Эта цифра, составляющая почти 18% глобального населения, пульсирует энергией

молодости – медианный возраст здесь едва достигает 29 лет, в противовес 41-му в Китае.

Годовой прирост в 0,87% добавляет свыше 12 миллионов душ, превращая континент в гигантский двигатель изменений. Плотность в 497 человек на км² заставляет города дышать интенсивно, но именно эта плотность рождает инновации, от IT-хабов в Бангалоре до болливудских студий. Данные Worldometers, основанные на прогнозах ООН World Population Prospects 2024, подчёркивают: Индия не просто большая – она живая, динамичная, полная контрастов.

По сравнению с Китаем, где население сокращается на 0,22% из-за низкой рождаемости (1,03 ребёнка на женщину), Индия держится на уровне 1,93. Это не просто статистика – это истории миллионов семей, балансирующих между традициями и современностью, делая страну эпицентром глобальных демографических сдвигов.

Демографический портрет: молодость как суперсила и вызов

Представьте океан людей, где каждая волна – новое поколение. В 2026 году свыше 25% индийцев младше 15 лет, а рабочая сила в возрасте 15-64 года охватывает 68% населения. Этот «демографический дивиденд» мог бы взорвать экономику, как ракета, но только если вложить в образование и здоровье. Женщины здесь – ключ: их участие в рабочей силе лишь 35%, против 50% в развитых странах, что тормозит потенциал.

Миграция добавляет шарма: из сёл в мегаполисы ринутся миллионы, урбанизируя 37% населения. Дели, Мумбай, Калькутта – эти гиганты поглощают и преобразуют потоки, но рождают трущобы, где бедность подстерегает за углом. По сравнению с 1950-м, когда Индия имела 376 миллионов, рост в четыре раза изменил ландшафт, сделав её не просто страной, а континентом душ.

От Гималаев до Ганга: этническая мозаика и культурный водоворот

Цвета сари на фестивале Холи сливаются с ароматом карри на уличных базарах – это Индия, где 22 официальных языка танцуют

в хороводе диалектов. Хинди объединяет север, тамильский – юг, бенгальский шепчет истории в Калькутте. Религии – как специи в блюде: 80% индуистов молятся Вишну, 14% мусульман постятся в Рамадан, сикхи в тюрбанах кормят тысячи в Золотом храме Амритсара.

Повседневная жизнь – симфония контрастов. Утром йоги в парках Дели, днём IT-специалисты в Гургоне, вечером болливудские мечты под звёздами. Фестивали – душа нации: Дивали зажигает миллионы лампадок, символизируя победу света, Дуссехра сжигает чучела Раваны, напоминая о добре. Эта культурная река питает идентичность, делая Индию не просто густонаселённой, а культурно безграничной.

Здесь касты эволюционируют в современные реалии, но гендерные роли всё ещё давят: девушки в сёлах мечтают о университете, парни – о мигрантских долларах в Персии. Болливуд не просто развлекает – он экспортирует мечты, делая индийскую культуру глобальным феноменом.

Экономический двигатель: от чая до чипов

ВВП Индии в 2026-м мчится на 6,5-7,3% роста, по прогнозам IMF и World Bank, делая её пятой экономикой мира с \$4 трлн. IT-сектор в Бангалоре генерирует миллиарды, фармацевтика спасает мир от пандемий, а услуги – 55% ВВП. Молодёжь штурмует стартапы, превращая демографию в топливо.

Но урбанизация грызёт: 37% в городах, трущобы Мумбаи – дома для 40% жителей. Безработица держится 4-5% официально, но неформалка поглощает 80%, женщины – в стороне. Инвестиции в инфраструктуру – метро, аэропорты – разгоняют колёса, но неравенство как тень: топ-1% держит 40% богатства.

- IT и услуги: экспорт \$200 млрд, миллионы рабочих мест в софте и кол-центрах.
- Производство: «Make in India» строит фабрики, но зависит от Китая.
- Сельское хозяйство: кормит 50% рабочих, но засухи бьют жёстко.

- Ремиттансы: \$125 млрд от диаспоры – спасательный круг для сёл.

Этот микс делает экономику устойчивой, но требует реформ: больше женщин за станками, фабрики вместо ферм. Рост 7% – не мечта, а реальность для амбициозной нации.

Вызовы гиганта: от трущоб до жары

Перенаселение давит как жаркий мумбайский базар: вода дефицитна на севере, воздух в Дели – яд, бедность цепляет 20%. Образование прогрессирует – 94% грамотность, но качество низкое, девушки отстают. Здоровье: туберкулёз, малярия, но вакцинация от COVID научила стойкости.

Климат бьёт сокрушительно: муссоны затопляют Бенгал, засухи сушат Раджастан. 2026-й требует зелёных технологий, солнечных ферм. Неравенство между штатами – Керала процветает, Бихар отстаёт. Правительство бросает «Smart Cities», но трущобы растут быстрее.

Эти жемчужины делают Индию магнитом, где каждая цифра – начало истории. Золотой храм кормит бесплатно 100 тыс. ежедневно, а IT-юниоры пишут код для мира. Будущее? Пик населения в 2060-х на 1,7 млрд, затем стабилизация – время для дивиденда.

Экономика мчится, культура цветёт, вызовы зовут к действиям. Индия – не число, а симфония, звучащая всё громче с каждым годом.

<https://www.karpaty.net.ua/ru/naibilsh-hustonaselena-kraina-indiia-u-2026-rotsi/>

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