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“INGLIZ TILI NAZARIY FANLAR” KAFEDRASI**

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THE COMPARATIVE INSIGHTS OF TYPOLOGY

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Annotatsiya

“The Comparative Insights of Typology” darsligi ingliz, o‘zbek va rus tillarining qiyosiy-tipologik tahliliga bag‘ishlangan bo‘lib, bakalavr bosqichining “Ingliz filologiyasi va Xorijiy til va adabiyoti (ingliz tili)” yo‘nalishlari talabalari uchun mo‘ljallangan. Darslikda fonetik, fonologik, morfologik, sintaktik va grammatik darajalardagi o‘xshash va farqli xususiyatlar tizimli tarzda yoritiladi. Har bir bo‘lim nazariy ma’lumotlar, misollar, jadval va mashg‘ulot topshiriqlari bilan boyitilgan.

Ushbu darslik talabalarda qiyosiy tahlil ko‘nikmasini shakllantirish, turli tillardagi izomorfik va allomorfik xususiyatlarni aniqlash hamda til o‘rganishda, tarjimada va tilshunoslik tadqiqotlarida tipologik yondashuvni qo‘llashga yo‘naltirilgan.

Darslik tilshunoslik nazariyasi, tarjimashunoslik va xorijiy tillarni o‘qitish metodikasiga qiziquvchi talabalar, magistrantlar va yosh tadqiqotchilar uchun mo‘ljallangan bo‘lib, nazariy bilimlar bilan bir qatorda amaliy tahlil va taqqoslash vositalarini ham taqdim etadi.

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Annotation

“*The Comparative Insights of Typology*” textbook is devoted to the comparative-typological analysis of English, Uzbek, and Russian languages and is intended for undergraduate students majoring in *English Philology* and *Foreign Language and Literature (English)*. The textbook systematically presents the similarities and differences at the phonetic, phonological, morphological, syntactic, and grammatical levels. Each section is enriched with theoretical explanations, examples, tables, and practice activities.

This textbook is designed to develop students’ skills in comparative analysis, to help them identify isomorphic and allomorphic features across different languages, and to guide them in applying typological approaches in language learning, translation, and linguistic research.

The textbook is suitable for students, master’s candidates, and young researchers interested in linguistic theory, translation studies, and foreign language teaching methodology. It provides not only theoretical knowledge but also practical tools for analysis and comparison.

Аннотация

Учебник «*The Comparative Insights of Typology*» посвящён сравнительно-типологическому анализу английского, узбекского и русского языков и предназначен для студентов бакалавриата по направлениям *английская филология* и *иностранный язык и литература (английский язык)*. В учебнике системно освещаются сходства и различия на фонетическом, фонологическом, морфологическом, синтаксическом и грамматическом уровнях. Каждый раздел дополнен теоретическими сведениями, примерами, таблицами и практическими заданиями.

Учебник направлен на формирование у студентов навыков сравнительного анализа, выявление изоморфных и алломорфных особенностей разных языков, а также на применение типологического подхода в изучении языков, переводе и лингвистических исследованиях.

Учебное пособие предназначено для студентов, магистрантов и молодых исследователей, интересующихся теорией языкознания, переводоведением и методикой преподавания иностранных языков. Оно предоставляет не только теоретические знания, но и практические инструменты для анализа и сопоставления.

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INTRODUCTION

The textbook “*The Comparative Insights of Typology*” is designed for fourth-year university students specializing in English Philology and Linguistics. It provides a systematic overview of comparative-typological analysis across linguistic levels — from phonetics and phonology to morphology, syntax, lexicon, and phraseology. The course aims to equip future linguists, teachers, and translators with theoretical knowledge and analytical skills necessary to compare structural and functional features of related and non-related languages.

Comparative typology, as a branch of linguistics, investigates the *universal and specific characteristics* of languages, revealing how they differ and resemble one another in form and meaning. It not only studies language structures but also reflects deeper cognitive, communicative, and cultural patterns shared by human communities. The typological comparison of English, Uzbek, and Russian is particularly valuable because these languages represent three distinct morphological types — *analytic, agglutinative, and fusional* — offering students a broad understanding of linguistic diversity and universality.

The main objective of this textbook is to develop learners’ *contrastive analytical competence* — the ability to identify, interpret, and explain cross-linguistic correspondences and differences. It encourages students to apply typological principles in analyzing linguistic phenomena, predicting learner difficulties, and improving translation accuracy. Each unit contains *lecture materials* (theoretical explanations, examples, and comparative tables) and *seminar activities* (discussion questions, comprehension checks, practical and independent tasks). Many seminars

incorporate *graphic organizers, puzzles, quizzes, and comparative charts* to enhance interactive learning.

The materials draw upon classical linguistic theories and modern typological research by scholars such as Bernard Comrie, William Croft, Martin Haspelmath, Anna Wierzbicka, and Uzbek linguists like M. Kh. Alimova, Z. I. Rasulov, and M. I. Rasulova. Cross-linguistic data are taken from authentic English, Uzbek, and Russian sources to ensure accuracy and cultural relevance.

By the end of the course, students are expected to:

- Understand key concepts and methods of comparative typology.
- Identify isomorphic (universal) and allomorphic (language-specific) features of English, Uzbek, and Russian.
- Analyze linguistic phenomena across all language levels.
- Apply typological knowledge to translation, teaching, and linguistic research.
- Recognize the cultural and cognitive significance of language structures.

The textbook promotes a *contrastive and humanistic approach* to language learning, fostering intercultural awareness and respect for linguistic diversity. It is intended not only as a study manual but also as a bridge between theory and classroom practice, guiding learners toward a deeper understanding of how languages function as systems of meaning and culture.

Lecture 1. Comparative Typology as a Branch of Linguistics: Subject Matter, Tasks, Types, and Approaches

Lecture plan:

1. Subject Matter and Objectives
2. Types of Linguistic Typology
3. Typology in Broader Context
4. Approaches to Comparative Study
5. Typological Classification and Universals
6. Significance for Applied Linguistics
7. Conclusion

Key Words: *Typological Universals, Isomorphism / Allomorphy, Structural Typology, Linguistic Comparison, Cross-linguistic Patterns, Functional Equivalence*

Comparative typology is a major branch of modern linguistics that explores how the world's languages resemble and differ from one another in structure and function. It aims not to trace ancestry, as historical linguistics does, but to classify and interpret languages according to shared patterns of form and meaning. The word *typology* derives from the Greek *typos* ("type") and *logos* ("study"), literally meaning "the study of types." In linguistics, it refers to the scientific comparison of languages to identify universal features of human speech (Croft 3).

Typology offers a bridge between **language description** and **theory building**. It seeks to explain how grammatical structures, sound systems, and lexical categories vary cross-linguistically, yet conform to recurrent tendencies known as **language universals** (Greenberg 15). Through such

analysis, linguists discover how diverse languages fulfill similar communicative needs by different structural means.

1. Subject Matter and Objectives

Comparative typology investigates every level of the language system—phonetic, phonological, morphological, syntactic, and lexical. Its central objectives include:

1. Identifying universal properties common to all or most languages.
2. Revealing distinctive features that characterize a single language or group.
3. Forming scientific classifications of language types.
4. Explaining structural isomorphism (similarities) and allomorphy (differences).
5. Applying typological knowledge to teaching, translation, and intercultural communication (Buranov 41).

Rasulova and Shukurova emphasize that comparative typology “not only systematizes and classifies linguistic phenomena but also explains the causes of their similarities and divergences” (6). This explanatory function distinguishes it from mere description: typology investigates *why* patterns occur.

According to Lutfullina, comparative typology “forms the basis for understanding the national specificity of one’s native and foreign languages, enabling contrastive description and effective teaching” (14). Thus, its relevance extends beyond theoretical linguistics into applied and educational domains.

2. Types of Linguistic Typology

Typology can be classified into several interrelated branches depending on its aim and object (Salnikova 22):

1. **Genetic Typology** explores structurally similar features within related languages, e.g., English and German within the Germanic family.
2. **Areal Typology** focuses on languages within a particular geographic region that share traits through contact rather than ancestry, e.g., Turkic–Persian convergence in Central Asia (Jakobson 29).
3. **Structural Typology** classifies languages according to their internal organization—word order, morphological structure, or phonological inventory (Hockett 72).
4. **Comparative Typology** examines both related and unrelated languages to establish isomorphic and allomorphic correspondences and determine typological universals (Alimova and Rasulov 16).

These divisions often overlap: comparative typology may incorporate genetic and areal data but emphasizes functional-structural comparison as its main method (Rasulova and Shukurova 15).

3. Typology in Broader Context

Typology, as a method, exists across scientific disciplines. In anthropology or psychology, typology categorizes cultures or behavioral types. *Linguistic typology*, however, is distinct in focusing on language systems, revealing how humans encode thought through structure and meaning (Croft 6). It thus connects linguistics with cognitive science and cultural studies, showing that grammar and lexicon reflect worldview and mentality.

Non-linguistic typology classifies external phenomena; linguistic typology interprets the internal mechanisms of verbal expression. As Salnikova notes, “through comparative typology we see how different linguistic communities conceptualize reality using diverse yet functionally equivalent means” (19).

4. Approaches to Comparative Study

Different methodological approaches exist within typological research (Buranov 17; Alimova and Rasulov 20):

- **Internal vs. External Comparison.** The internal approach investigates correlations within one language, whereas the external approach examines interlingual similarities and contrasts.
- **Substantial vs. Non-Substantial Typology.** Substantial typology compares concrete elements—sounds, morphemes—while non-substantial typology compares systems and relations.
- **Synchronic vs. Diachronic Perspective.** The synchronic method analyzes languages as they function at present; the diachronic traces typological evolution through time.
- **Formal vs. Semantic Typology.** Formal typology examines structural forms (e.g., word order); semantic typology studies meaning categories (e.g., aspect, modality, definiteness).

Together, these approaches provide a balanced methodology for describing how languages differ formally yet remain functionally comparable.

5. Typological Classification and Universals

One of typology’s main tasks is to identify *language universals*—structural principles shared by most or all languages. Greenberg proposed

that word-order types (SVO, SOV, VSO) correlate with grammatical features such as prepositions or adjective placement (83).

For example:

- English is ***analytic*** and predominantly **SVO**.
- Uzbek is ***agglutinative*** and **SOV**.
- Russian is ***synthetic*** with ***flexible word order***.

Despite these structural divergences, all three express tense, number, and case distinctions. These commonalities exemplify ***isomorphic features***, while contrasts such as article usage (present only in English) illustrate ***allomorphic features***.

6. Significance for Applied Linguistics

Comparative typology has practical importance in several fields:

- ↓ In *language teaching*, typological analysis predicts learner difficulties caused by interference between L1 and L2 (Lutfullina 25).
- ↓ In *translation studies*, it guides equivalence search and idiomatic rendering.
- ↓ In *computational linguistics*, typological parameters inform cross-lingual corpus design.
- ↓ In *multilingual education*, such as in Uzbekistan, typology enhances learners' awareness of the interaction between English, Uzbek, and Russian.

7. Conclusion

Comparative typology integrates theoretical and practical knowledge of languages. It develops students' linguistic thinking, enables them to perceive grammar as a system, and fosters intercultural understanding. As

Alimova and Rasulov note, “through typology, learners grasp not only structural contrasts but also the unity of linguistic cognition” (27).

Questions for Self-Control

1. What is the subject matter of comparative typology?
2. How does comparative typology differ from contrastive linguistics?
3. What are the main tasks of typological research?
4. What is the role of universals in typology?
5. How are languages classified according to typological principles?
6. What methodological approaches are used in comparative studies?
7. Why is comparative typology important for applied linguistics?
8. What is the difference between internal and external comparison?

Topics for Self-Study

1. Historical development of linguistic typology
2. Comparison between typology and descriptive linguistics
3. Relationship between typology and language universals
4. Influence of typology on language teaching methodologies

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Seminar 1.

Comparative Typology as a Branch of Linguistics: Subject Matter, Tasks, Types, and Approaches

1. Discussion Questions

1. Answer following questions

1. How would you define *typology* in your own words?
2. In what ways does comparative typology differ from contrastive linguistics?
3. What are the main objectives of comparative typology in modern linguistics?
4. Why do linguists emphasize both isomorphic and allomorphic features in comparative studies?
5. Which of the typological approaches (morphological, phonological, syntactic, lexical) do you consider most significant? Why?
6. How does typology contribute to language teaching and translation?
7. What are the main challenges in comparing languages with different structural types (analytic vs. agglutinative)?
8. Discuss the connection between comparative typology and linguistic universals.
9. How has globalization influenced typological research in multilingual contexts?
10. Identify some modern fields (e.g., cognitive linguistics, computational linguistics) that benefit from typological data.
11. In your opinion, what social or cultural insights can typology provide about a speech community?

12. What distinguishes typological analysis from descriptive or historical approaches to language study?

2. Interactive Comprehension Activities

2. Fill in the following concept map to show the *scope of comparative typology*. Add at least two ideas under each heading

COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY			
Subject Matter	Objectives	Methods	Applications

3. Match each term with its correct definition.

Term	Definition
1. Isomorphism	a. Features that differ between languages
2. Allomorphy	b. Shared structural patterns
3. Universals	c. Features common to all human languages
4. Morphological typology	d. Classification by word formation
5. Syntactic typology	e. Comparison of sentence structures
6. Typological parameter	f. Criterion for comparing languages

4. Linguistic Branches and Their Focus. Fill in the missing information (e.g., Typology → cross-language comparison of structures).

Branch	Focus	Example of Study
Phonology		
Morphology		
Syntax		
Semantics		
Typology		

5. Classification Task. Place the following subfields under the correct linguistic type:

- *Comparative grammar, Contrastive analysis, Descriptive grammar, Historical linguistics, Typological classification, Computational typology*

Theoretical Linguistics	Applied Linguistics

3. Practical Activities

6. Mini-Research Analysis. Choose two languages you know (e.g., English and Uzbek). Compare their *word order* and *morphological type* using this table:

Feature	English	Uzbek
Morphological Type	Analytic	Agglutinative
Word Order		
Dominant Sentence Type		
Example Sentence		

Then, write 3–5 sentences summarizing what this comparison shows about typological diversity.

7. Identify Language Type. Classify the following languages by morphological type:

1. Turkish → _____
2. English → _____
3. Russian → _____
4. Chinese → _____
5. Uzbek → _____
6. Latin → _____

8. Group Discussion:

“Is it possible to create a *universal grammar* that fits all languages? Why or why not?”

Use examples from English, Uzbek, and Russian to justify your position.

4. Independent Work (Homework)

Task 1: Write a 300-word reflection essay on the topic: “The Role of Comparative Typology in Understanding Linguistic Diversity.”

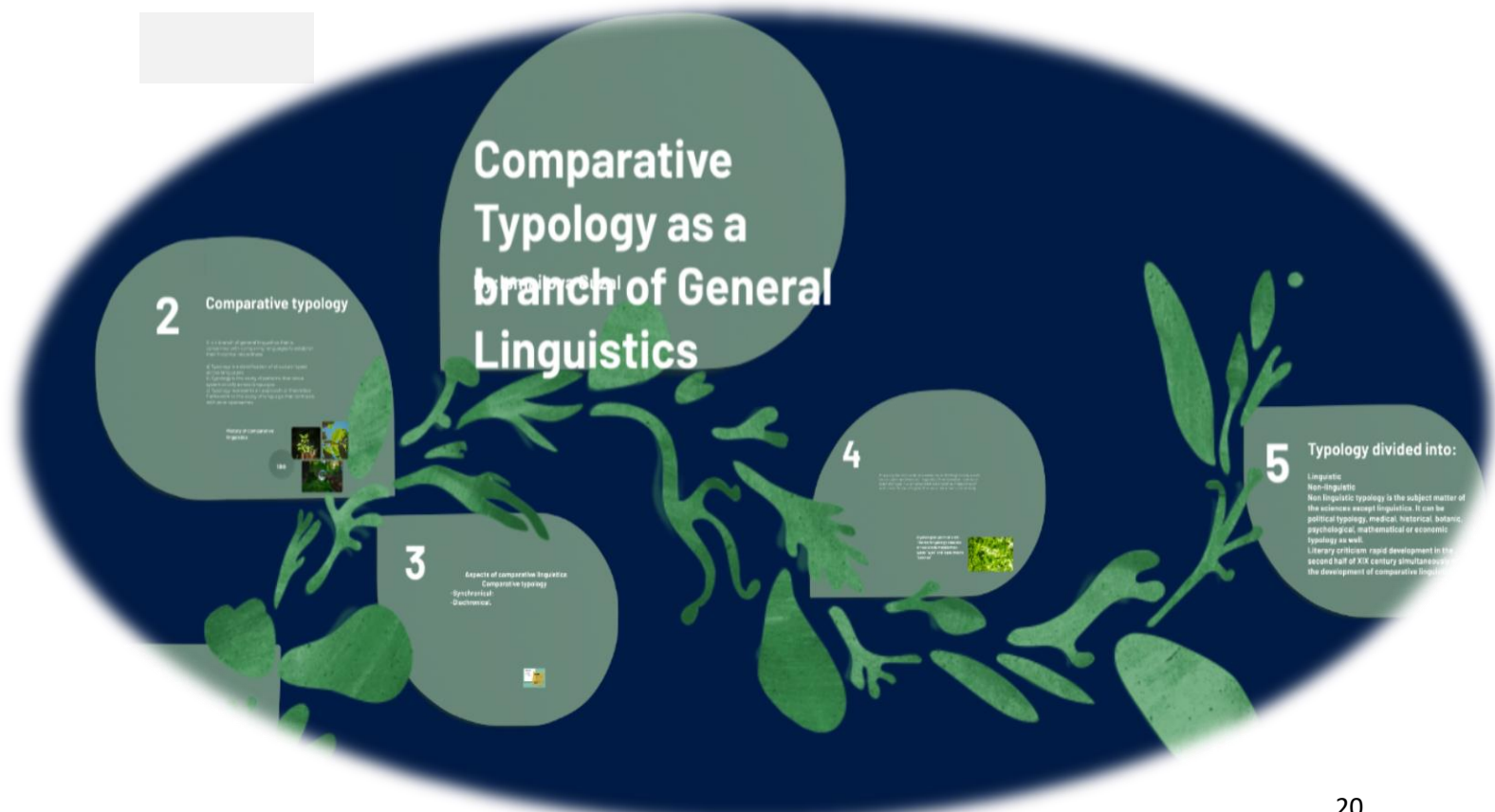
Guidelines:

- Mention at least three tasks of typology.
- Provide one real example from each of the three languages studied.
- Cite one scholarly source (e.g., Comrie, Croft, or Alimova).

Task 2. Knowledge Check

1. Comparative typology studies:
 - a) Language changes over time
 - b) Relationships between language families
 - c) Structural similarities and differences among languages
 - d) The origin of words
2. The term *isomorphism* in typology refers to:
 - a) Language-specific variation
 - b) Cross-linguistic similarity
 - c) Borrowing phenomena
 - d) Phonetic changes
3. Which of the following is an *allomorphic* feature?
 - a) English articles vs. Uzbek case endings
 - b) Plurality across all languages
 - c) Presence of nouns and verbs
 - d) Word order in all SVO languages
4. Morphological typology primarily classifies languages based on:
 - a) Word order
 - b) Phoneme system
 - c) Word structure and affixation
 - d) Vocabulary size
5. Which of the following scholars is associated with modern linguistic typology?
 - a) Noam Chomsky
 - b) Bernard Comrie

- c) Ferdinand de Saussure
 - d) Edward Sapir
6. The main difference between typology and contrastive linguistics lies in:
- a) Typology studies only historical data
 - b) Contrastive analysis compares unrelated languages
 - c) Typology identifies universal patterns
 - d) Contrastive linguistics focuses on universal grammar
7. Which of the following statements is true?
- a) English is an agglutinative language.
 - b) Uzbek is a fusional language.
 - c) Russian is a fusional language.
 - d) Chinese is a polysynthetic language.
8. One key task of comparative typology is to:
- a) Describe one language in isolation
 - b) Establish language families
 - c) Develop universal teaching methods
 - d) Discover patterns of similarity and difference among languages



Lecture 2. Historical Background of Typological Investigations

Lecture Plan:

1. Early (Pre-Scientific) Period
2. Classical and Rational Grammar Period (17th–18th Centuries)
3. Comparative–Historical Stage (19th Century)
4. Structural and Functional Typology (20th Century)
5. Modern Typology (Late 20th – 21st Century)
6. Summary

Keywords: *phoneme, vowel system, consonant system, stress, prosody, features*

The emergence of comparative typology as an independent branch of linguistics was not instantaneous but the result of centuries of reflection on how languages differ and resemble one another. The discipline evolved gradually—from early philosophical speculations on language universals to the systematic scientific typology of the 20th and 21st centuries. Understanding this history allows students to appreciate how modern typology integrates diverse approaches—structural, cognitive, and functional—into a coherent framework.

1. Early (Pre-Scientific) Period

The first typological observations date back to antiquity. Philosophers such as **Aristotle**, **Plato**, and later **Stoic grammarians** made intuitive classifications of parts of speech and sentence structures (Croft 6). Though their aim was philosophical rather than linguistic, they established the idea that all human languages share fundamental elements, such as nouns, verbs, and logical relations.

During the Middle Ages, scholars treated language as a divine or logical system, not an empirical one. Grammatical theories were mostly prescriptive. However, medieval Arabic and Sanskrit grammarians made profound descriptive analyses, anticipating later typological reasoning by exploring language patterns independently of Latin norms (Crystal 145).

2. Classical and Rational Grammar Period (17th–18th Centuries)

The *Port-Royal Grammar* (1660), created by French scholars *Antoine Arnauld* and *Claude Lancelot*, was one of the earliest attempts to formulate a *universal grammar* of human languages. It introduced the principle that linguistic structures mirror universal thought processes. Though based on Latin and French, it provided a rational framework for later typological thinking (Comrie 12).

By the 18th century, as European contact with non-Indo-European languages expanded, scholars began to notice that grammatical systems could differ radically from the classical model. This discovery encouraged linguists to classify languages according to structural criteria, marking the first steps toward typology in the modern sense (Alimova and Rasulov 9).

3. Comparative–Historical Stage (19th Century)

The 19th century saw the dominance of the *comparative–historical method*, initiated by scholars such as *Franz Bopp*, *Rasmus Rask*, and *Jacob Grimm*. Their research established genealogical relations among Indo-European languages and formed the basis for historical linguistics. However, even within that framework, *Wilhelm von Humboldt* and *August Schleicher* emphasized that languages could also be grouped by *type*, not just by family.

Humboldt (1836) proposed the classification of languages into *isolating, agglutinative, inflectional, and polysynthetic* types—still influential today. He argued that the structure of a language reflects the *inner form of thought* characteristic of its speakers (Hockett 73). This philosophical insight laid the foundation for the structural-functional approach later developed in the 20th century.

4. Structural and Functional Typology (20th Century)

The early 20th century marked a methodological shift. Linguists like Edward Sapir, Leonard Bloomfield, and Roman Jakobson introduced *structuralism*, focusing on systems and relations within language rather than isolated facts. Sapir expanded Humboldt's classification and insisted that typology must be empirical and descriptive, not speculative (Jakobson 25).

After World War II, typological research gained scientific precision. Joseph Greenberg (1963) pioneered quantitative universals, identifying correlations between grammatical features across hundreds of languages—for instance, between word order and adjective placement. His *Universals of Language* established typology as a statistical and explanatory science (Greenberg 79).

In the Soviet linguistic tradition, typology developed vigorously thanks to scholars such as V. G. Gak, A. A. Reformatsky, and I. V. Arnold, who linked typology with translation and teaching. In Uzbekistan, J. Buranov and later M. I. Rasulova, Z. I. Shukurova, and Z. I. Rasulov adapted these ideas to the comparative study of English, Uzbek, and Russian. They emphasized the contrastive-typological approach as a

pedagogical tool for developing multilingual competence (Rasulova and Shukurova 8; Alimova and Rasulov 15).

5. Modern Typology (Late 20th – 21st Century)

Contemporary typology integrates **structural**, **cognitive**, and **functional** approaches. It now considers not only linguistic forms but also **conceptual universals**—how languages encode time, space, or causation. Croft (2003) and Comrie (1989) highlighted that typological variation reflects universal tendencies constrained by communicative efficiency and cognitive processing.

Modern comparative typology is characterized by:

- Quantitative databases (e.g., WALS — *World Atlas of Language Structures*).
- Integration with computational and corpus linguistics.
- Application in bilingual education and translation technology (Lutfullina 22; Salnikova 18).

In Uzbekistan, modern typological studies focus on *triadic comparison* among English, Uzbek, and Russian to identify isomorphic and allomorphic features. Such research supports language policy promoting trilingual proficiency and cultural integration.

6. Summary

The evolution of typology mirrors the intellectual history of linguistics—from philosophical speculation to empirical science. Its modern form combines historical depth with functional and cognitive analysis. Today, comparative typology serves not only as a theoretical framework but also as a **pedagogical instrument** fostering cross-linguistic

awareness and intercultural competence among students and teachers alike.

Questions for Self-Control

1. What is the difference between phonetics and phonology?
2. How do phoneme inventories differ across languages?
3. What is a minimal pair and why is it important?
4. What typological differences exist between vowel systems of languages?
5. How do stress and intonation differ typologically?
6. What is distinctive feature theory?
7. What are phonological universals?
8. How do English, Uzbek, and Russian differ in consonant articulation?

Topics for Self-Study

1. Cross-linguistic vowel harmony systems
2. Prosodic typology in world languages
3. Phonemic vs. allophonic variation
4. Typology of syllable structures

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Seminar 2.

Historical Background of Typological Investigations

1. Discussion Questions

1. Answer following questions

1. How did typological studies emerge within general linguistics?
2. What was the main goal of early typologists such as Humboldt and Schleicher?
3. How did the 19th-century focus on language classification contribute to modern typology?
4. Which linguistic schools (e.g., Prague, Copenhagen) had the strongest influence on typological thought?
5. How did Greenberg's work change the direction of typological research in the 20th century?
6. What role did the study of morphology play in early language typology?
7. How do structuralism and functionalism differ in their treatment of language comparison?
8. What is the relationship between linguistic typology and language universals?
9. How did Soviet and Central Asian linguists contribute to the development of comparative typology?
10. Why is it important to study the historical background before conducting modern comparative analysis?
11. In what ways did technology and corpus linguistics transform typological investigations in the 21st century?

12. How might future typology research differ from that of the past century?

2. Interactive Comprehension Activities

2. Fill in the following timeline by placing major figures and milestones in typological history. Add at least 3 additional scholars and describe their impact.

Period	Event or Figure	Key Contribution
18th century	Wilhelm von Humboldt	Developed morphological classification of languages
19th century	—	—
Early 20th century	—	—
Mid 20th century	Joseph Greenberg	Introduced universals and word-order correlations
Late 20th century	—	—
21st century	—	—

3. Matching Task: Linguistic Schools and Principles

School / Tradition	Key Idea or Contribution
1. Prague School	a. Language as a system of functional oppositions
2. American Structuralism	b. Emphasis on descriptive analysis of phonemes
3. Greenberg's Typology	c. Quantitative study of language universals
4. Soviet Linguistics	d. Emphasis on contrastive grammar and bilingualism
5. Generative School	e. Universal Grammar theory

4. Evolution of Typological Studies. Create a concept map showing how the field of typology evolved.

Include:

- Early classification → Structural period → Functional-typological phase → Cognitive and corpus-based approaches.

Use arrows to show continuity and influence.

5. Categorization Exercise. Group the following linguists under “**Early Typologists**” or “**Modern Typologists.**”

| *Humboldt* | *Greenberg* | *Croft* | *Comrie* | *Sapir* | *Trubetzkoy* | *Haspelmath* | *Saussure* |

Early Typologists	Modern Typologists

3. Practical Activities

6. Mini-Research Presentation (Pair Work). Each pair selects one typologist from the list below and presents a short summary (5 minutes):

- Wilhelm von Humboldt
- Joseph Greenberg
- Edward Sapir
- Bernard Comrie
- William Croft
- Martin Haspelmath
- M. I. Rasulova

Include:

1. Biographical background
2. Core theoretical idea
3. Example of typological contribution

7. Comparative Table Activity. Fill in 2–3 more scholars.

Typologist	Century	Focus Area	Key Concept	Lasting Influence
Humboldt	19th	Morphology	Language classification	Foundations of typology
Greenberg	20th	Syntax	Universals	Modern comparative studies
Croft	21st	Cognitive approach	Radical Construction Grammar	Usage-based typology

8. Problem-Solving Discussion

How can we apply historical typology to explain similarities among unrelated languages? Discuss examples such as English–Chinese SVO order or Uzbek–Japanese agglutinative structure.

4. Independent Work (Homework)

Task 1: Write a 300–350-word essay on the topic: “The Evolution of Typological Research: From Classical Classifications to Modern Universals.”

Guidelines:

- Mention at least three major linguists and their key contributions.
- Include one reflection on how typology has influenced English language teaching or research.
- Provide at least one MLA-style in-text citation.

TASK 2. Multiple-Choice Items

1. Who is considered the founder of morphological typology?
 - a) Greenberg
 - b) Humboldt
 - c) Saussure
 - d) Comrie
2. The Prague School of Linguistics is known for emphasizing:
 - a) Cognitive grammar
 - b) Functional oppositions and structure

- c) Language acquisition
 - d) Word frequency
3. Which linguist introduced the concept of *language universals*?
- a) Sapir
 - b) Chomsky
 - c) Greenberg
 - d) Croft
4. What was the main limitation of early typology?
- a) Lack of descriptive accuracy
 - b) Too much reliance on statistics
 - c) Overemphasis on written languages
 - d) Ignoring sociolinguistic factors
5. Which of the following best describes *Greenberg's Universals*?
- a) Rules valid for all Indo-European languages only
 - b) Tendencies observed across world languages
 - c) Prescriptive grammar laws
 - d) Morphological constraints
6. Who proposed that language reflects national thought and worldview?
- a) Humboldt
 - b) Saussure
 - c) Trubetzkoy
 - d) Chomsky
7. Which modern linguist emphasized *usage-based typology*?
- a) Croft
 - b) Haspelmath

- c) Comrie
 - d) Sapir
8. One major impact of 21st-century typological research is:
- a) Narrowing the scope of universals
 - b) Integrating corpus and computational data
 - c) Replacing typology with psycholinguistics
 - d) Abandoning language comparison altogether

Early Roots: Humboldt

- 1 Wilhelm von Humboldt
Humboldt characterised languages by inner form. He looked for the underlying structure.
- 2 Language Character
He believed each language shapes the thought. He thought it reflected the culture of its speakers.
- 3 Comparative Study
He laid groundwork for comparative analysis. This included investigation of typological differences.



Lecture 3. Typological Characteristics of English, Uzbek, and Russian Languages Phonetic Systems

Lecture Plan

1. The Nature of Phonetic Typology
2. The Articulatory Bases of English, Uzbek, and Russian
3. Comparative Analysis of Vowel Systems
4. Comparative Analysis of Consonantal Systems
5. Prosodic Features: Stress, Rhythm, and Intonation
6. Summary of Isomorphic and Allomorphic Features
7. Pedagogical Implications

Keywords: *vowels, consonants, diphthongs, palatalization, articulation, harmony*

The phonetic system of a language represents the physical basis of its sound structure — the system of speech sounds and their articulatory and acoustic properties. In comparative typology, the phonetic level provides an essential foundation because sound patterns are the first and most perceptible form of difference among languages. Studying phonetic typology reveals how languages organize their articulatory bases, sound inventories, and prosodic patterns to meet communicative needs.

1. The Nature of Phonetic Typology

Phonetics is the science of speech sounds — their production, transmission, and perception. *Phonetic typology* compares these characteristics across languages, focusing on articulatory and acoustic parameters rather than abstract phonological contrasts (Alimova and Rasulov 33). It identifies *isomorphic features* (similarities) and *allomorphic features* (differences) among languages, showing how human

articulatory capacities are universally similar yet language-specific in realization.

Phonetic typology studies:

- The *articulatory base* (the habitual positions of speech organs),
- The *vowel and consonant inventories*,
- The *prosodic features* (stress, intonation, rhythm, tone, and pitch).

As Croft (2003) notes, typological comparison at the phonetic level reveals how diverse systems use the same human physiological mechanisms to produce meaningful contrasts.

2. The Articulatory Bases of English, Uzbek, and Russian

The articulatory base is a key concept in comparative phonetics, referring to the habitual speech organ positions characteristic of a given language. Each language develops its own articulatory habits, which often cause difficulties for foreign learners (Lutfullina 29).

- English speakers tend to keep the tongue flat and the lips neutral, producing “lax” articulation with relatively weak muscular tension.
- Uzbek speech is characterized by strong tension of articulators, with front vowels pronounced distinctly and long vowels slightly tense.
- Russian articulation involves notable lip rounding and palatalization; consonant hardness–softness contrasts play a central role (Salnikova 33).

These contrasts influence pronunciation difficulties. For instance, Uzbek learners often substitute English interdental [θ, ð] with [s, z] because their articulatory base lacks dental fricatives, while Russian speakers over-palatalize English consonants due to interference from their native soft/hard system.

3. Comparative Analysis of Vowel Systems

The **English vowel system** is highly complex, containing around 12 monophthongs and 8 diphthongs (depending on dialect). Vowel length and quality are distinctive, and stress influences vowel reduction (Crystal 288).

The **Uzbek vowel system** consists of six main phonemes /a, e, i, o, u, o'/, reflecting a symmetrical structure and vowel harmony based on tongue position and lip rounding (Alimova and Rasulov 36). Uzbek lacks vowel reduction in unstressed syllables, which affects the rhythm of English speech for Uzbek learners.

The **Russian vowel system** has five primary vowels /a, e, i, o, u/ but features **strong reduction** in unstressed positions, a key allomorphic trait. For example, unstressed /o/ is pronounced as [a] or [ə], whereas Uzbek vowels remain stable regardless of stress (Salnikova 40).

Typological comparison of vowels:

Language	Number of Vowels	Distinctive Features	Reduction
English	12 monophthongs + diphthongs	Tense/lax contrast, long/short opposition	Strong reduction
Uzbek	6	Vowel harmony, stability	None
Russian	5	Palatalization influence, neutralization	Strong reduction

The *isomorphic feature* is that all three languages distinguish vowel height and frontness. The *allomorphic features* include vowel harmony in Uzbek and reduction in English and Russian.

4. Comparative Analysis of Consonantal Systems

All three languages share basic consonantal categories—plosives, fricatives, nasals, laterals—but differ in the number and articulatory features of these sounds.

- English has 24 consonant phonemes, including interdental fricatives /θ, ð/ and labio-velar approximant /w/, absent in Uzbek and Russian (Comrie 47).
- Uzbek contains 23 consonant phonemes, with distinctive pharyngeal and uvular sounds borrowed from Arabic and Persian, absent in English and Russian.
- Russian features 36 consonant phonemes, showing a consistent palatalization contrast (hard vs. soft) — a typologically unique characteristic among the three languages (Salnikova 43).

Typological observation:

- English and Uzbek consonant inventories are relatively balanced and moderate in number.
- Russian exhibits extensive consonant differentiation, whereas Uzbek maintains a symmetrical vowel system. Thus, English is typologically *consonant-rich but vowel-complex*, Uzbek *vowel-harmonic*, and Russian *palatalization-oriented*.

5. Prosodic Features: Stress, Rhythm, and Intonation

Phonetic typology also studies **prosodic phenomena**—stress placement, rhythm, and intonation patterns—that shape speech melody and meaning.

- English is a stress-timed language, where stressed syllables occur at roughly equal intervals, creating an uneven rhythm. Unstressed syllables are shortened or reduced.
- Uzbek is a syllable-timed language, with almost equal duration for each syllable and consistent stress, typically falling on the final syllable.
- Russian has free and movable stress, which can fall on any syllable and shift in word forms, influencing vowel reduction and rhythm (Alimova and Rasulov 39).

Intonation also varies:

- English uses complex tone units and pitch movements to express grammatical and pragmatic meaning.
- Uzbek intonation is relatively level, with rising tones mainly in interrogative sentences.
- Russian intonation combines pitch and stress to signal syntactic boundaries and emotions (Lutfullina 34).

6. Summary of Isomorphic and Allomorphic Features

Feature	English	Uzbek	Russian	Typological Observation
Articulatory base	Lax, central	Tense, fronted	Rounded, palatalized	Allomorphic
Vowel harmony	None	Present	None	Allomorphic
Vowel reduction	Strong	Absent	Strong	Allomorphic
Palatalization	Weak	Absent	Strong	Allomorphic
Rhythm	Stress-timed	Syllable-	Stress-timed	Allomorphic

		timed	(variable)	
Stress position	Fixed (root)	Fixed (final)	Free	Allomorphic
Shared universals	Vocalic– consonantal distinction; prosodic organization	—	—	Isomorphic

7. Pedagogical Implications

Understanding typological contrasts at the phonetic level is vital for *foreign-language teaching*. Uzbek and Russian learners of English need targeted pronunciation training focusing on:

- Mastering English vowel distinctions and reduction;
- Acquiring accurate articulation of interdental fricatives and aspiration;
- Adapting to stress-timed rhythm.

Conversely, English learners of Uzbek or Russian must adjust to fixed or movable stress and vowel harmony rules. Comparative phonetic awareness reduces interference, promotes correct pronunciation, and deepens phonological competence (Rasulova and Shukurova 26).

Questions for Self-Control

1. What are the main vowel differences among the three languages?
2. How does vowel length function in English?
3. Which consonant phonemes are unique to Uzbek?
4. What are palatalized consonants in Russian?

5. How do diphthongs behave in English compared to Uzbek?
6. How does assimilation differ across the languages?
7. What is the role of soft/hard consonant opposition in Russian?
8. What are major articulatory distinctions among the three languages?

Topics for Self-Study

1. Systems of diphthongs in Germanic languages
2. Hard–soft consonant contrasts in Slavic languages
3. Influence of vowel harmony on Turkic phonologies
4. Vowel reduction in unstressed syllables

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COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY AS A BRANCH OF LINGUISTICS

- Subject matter
- Tasks
- Types
- Approaches



Seminar 3.

Typological Characteristics of English, Uzbek, and Russian Languages Phonetic Systems

1. Discussion Questions

1. Answer the following questions

1. What is the articulatory base, and how does it differ in English, Uzbek, and Russian?
2. Why is vowel length distinctive in English but not in Uzbek?
3. Which phonetic feature (stress or intonation) most influences communication in your view? Explain.
4. How do English diphthongs differ from Uzbek vowel combinations?
5. What challenges do Uzbek and Russian speakers face when pronouncing English consonant clusters?
6. What phonetic universals can be identified across the three languages?
7. Discuss the influence of cultural background on speech melody and rhythm.
8. How can comparative phonetics help in pronunciation teaching?
9. In which contexts can prosody alter meaning? Give examples.
10. How might technological tools assist in studying typological phonetics?

2. Interactive Comprehension Activities

1. Chart Completion. Fill in the missing information in the comparative phonetic chart.

Feature	English	Uzbek	Russian
Vowel length	—	—	—
Stress type	—	—	—
Number of consonants	—	—	—
Typical articulation base	—	—	—

2. Venn Diagram. Draw a three-circle Venn diagram comparing *prosodic features* (stress, rhythm, intonation) of English, Uzbek, and Russian.

- Label areas of overlap (universal) and unique features (language-specific).

3. Categorization Activity. Sort the following phonetic terms into the correct group:

1. Intonation
2. Diphthong
3. Nasal
4. Voiceless
5. Stress
6. Pitch
7. Alveolar
8. Rhythm

Segmental	Suprasegmental

3. Practical Activities

4. Pronunciation Comparison. Transcribe the following words using IPA, then identify which language has a similar or different sound:

- *measure, breathe, chip, thin, voice*

5. Mini Research Task. Record 3 native speakers (one per language) reading the same short text. Compare:

- Stress pattern
- Vowel reduction
- Final consonant pronunciation

6. Reflection Discussion. “How does intonation express politeness or formality differently in English, Uzbek, and Russian?”

4. HOMEWORK

1. Independent Work: Write a 300-word essay: “Prosodic Features as a Reflection of National Speech Character: A Comparative View.” Include at least two examples from each language and cite at least one scholarly source.

2. Knowledge Check:

1. Which term refers to the smallest distinctive sound unit in a language?
 - a) Morpheme
 - b) Phoneme

- c) Grapheme
 - d) Allophone
2. Which of the following is *not* a suprasegmental feature?
- a) Stress
 - b) Intonation
 - c) Rhythm
 - d) Consonant voicing
3. Which language exhibits vowel reduction most prominently?
- a) Uzbek
 - b) English
 - c) Russian
 - d) None
4. Which articulatory base uses stronger lip rounding and palatalization?
- a) English
 - b) Uzbek
 - c) Russian
 - d) All equally
5. The English diphthong /aɪ/ corresponds most closely to which Uzbek vowel combination?
- a) /ay/
 - b) /ei/
 - c) /oi/
 - d) /aa/
6. Stress in English is typically:
- a) Fixed on the first syllable

- b) Free and contrastive
 - c) Always on the penultimate syllable
 - d) Dependent on word class only
7. Which term describes the pitch movement across an utterance?
- a) Rhythm
 - b) Tone
 - c) Intonation
 - d) Stress
8. Which typological feature differentiates Uzbek consonants from Russian?
- a) Voicing contrast
 - b) Palatalization
 - c) Aspiration
 - d) Gemination

TYPOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF ENGLISH, UZBEK AND RUSSIAN LANGUAGES' PHONOLOGICAL SYSTEM

- Vowels
- Consonants
- Syllables



Lecture 4. Typological Characteristics of English, Uzbek, and Russian Languages Phonological Systems

Lecture Plan

1. Definition and Nature of Phonology
2. Phoneme as a Basic Unit of the Phonological System
3. Phonological Opposition and Distinctive Features
4. Structure of Phonemic Systems in English, Uzbek, and Russian
5. Phonotactics and Syllable Structure
6. Suprasegmental (Prosodic) Phonology
7. Isomorphic and Allomorphic Features
8. Pedagogical Implications

Keywords: *phoneme, diphthong, palatalization, vowel harmony, stress, prosody*

Phonology occupies a central place in the linguistic hierarchy. If *phonetics* studies the physical nature of sounds, *phonology* investigates how these sounds function within a language as distinctive units of meaning. Comparative phonological typology therefore explores how different languages organize their sound systems functionally — how they use and contrast phonemes to distinguish words and grammatical forms.

1. Definition and Nature of Phonology

Phonology is “the study of sound systems and the abstract relationships among sounds” (Crystal 383). While phonetics deals with articulation and acoustics, phonology focuses on ***how sound differences carry meaning*** (Abduazizov A. A. 2000). Comparative phonological

typology studies the ***organization, structure, and functions of phonemes*** across languages and identifies universal principles in their arrangement (Croft 82).

As Alimova and Rasulov note, “phonology reflects not the physical sound but its linguistic value, the way it participates in forming meaning within the system” (41). Thus, the same phonetic sound may have different phonological status in different languages.

2. Phoneme as a Basic Unit of the Phonological System

The *phoneme* is the smallest contrastive sound unit capable of distinguishing meaning. For example, *pin* vs. *bin* in English differ by the phonemes /p/ and /b/. According to Buranov (65), each language has its own set of phonemes with specific distribution and functional load.

- In English, the number of phonemes is about 44 (20 vowels, 24 consonants).
- In Uzbek, there are approximately 30 phonemes (6 vowels, 24 consonants).
- In Russian, around 42 phonemes (5 vowels, 37 consonants) form a more complex system due to palatalization (Salnikova 45).

The typological task is to compare how each system distinguishes meaning and maintains phonological contrast (Сапарова, К., 20).

3. Phonological Opposition and Distinctive Features

Phonological oppositions form the structural backbone of the system. Distinctive features (such as voiced/voiceless, nasal/oral, hard/soft) determine contrastive relations.

- **English** uses voicing and aspiration as distinctive features: /p/ vs. /b/, /t/ vs. /d/.

- **Uzbek** contrasts voiced and voiceless pairs but lacks aspirated sounds (Alimova and Rasulov 43).
- **Russian** employs palatalization as a central distinctive feature: /t/ vs. /tʲ/, /n/ vs. /nʲ/ (Lutfullina 37).

Hence, English phonology depends heavily on aspiration and vowel reduction, Uzbek on vowel harmony and clear articulation, and Russian on the softness/hardness opposition.

4. Structure of Phonemic Systems in English, Uzbek, and Russian

Each language's phonemic system shows internal balance between vowels and consonants.

English phonology is characterized by:

- A large vowel inventory (12 monophthongs, 8 diphthongs).
- Strong vowel reduction in unstressed syllables.
- Weak palatalization contrast.

Uzbek phonology shows:

- A symmetrical six-vowel system with front–back harmony.
- Stable vowel pronunciation without reduction.
- A clear distinction between short and long consonants in borrowings (Alimova and Rasulov 47).

Russian phonology presents:

- A small vowel inventory (5), with neutralization in unstressed positions.
- Extensive palatalization: almost every consonant has a hard/soft pair.
- Free and movable stress, affecting phoneme realization (Salnikova 46).

Parameter	English	Uzbek	Russian
Number of phonemes	≈44	≈30	≈42
Distinctive traits	Aspiration, vowel reduction	Vowel harmony	Palatalization
Stress system	Fixed / initial	Final	Free / movable
Neutralization	In unstressed vowels	None	In unstressed vowels
Type of rhythm	Stress-timed	Syllable-timed	Stress-timed

5. Phonotactics and Syllable Structure

Phonotactics refers to rules governing possible sound combinations in a language (Comrie 56).

- English allows complex consonant clusters both initially (*street, spring*) and finally (*texts, asks*).
- Uzbek prefers open syllables (CV, CVC) and simpler consonant clusters, often inserting a vowel to break up clusters (*student* → [studen]) (Mukhamedova Saodat, 2022).
- Russian permits clusters but usually with a vowel between consonants if three or more occur, depending on morphology (*vstrecha* ‘meeting’).

Typologically, English is the most cluster-rich, Uzbek the most open-syllable oriented, and Russian intermediate.

6. Suprasegmental (Prosodic) Phonology

Beyond phonemes, phonological typology analyzes *suprasegmental units* — stress, tone, and intonation.

- **Stress:** English has lexical stress (e.g., *'record* vs. *re'cord*), Uzbek has fixed final stress, and Russian stress is free and mobile (Alimova and Rasulov 49).
- **Intonation:** English uses pitch patterns to express meaning; Uzbek intonation is relatively flat but functional for sentence type; Russian intonation indicates emphasis and emotional nuance (Lutfullina 39).
- **Tone:** None of the three languages is tonal in the strict sense, but pitch variation plays grammatical and pragmatic roles (Hypaxметов E.H., c. 7).

This suprasegmental typology demonstrates how languages use prosody differently to convey meaning and maintain rhythmic organization.

7. Isomorphic and Allomorphic Features

Feature	English	Uzbek	Russian	Observation
Phoneme count	High	Moderate	High	Allomorphic
Aspiration	Present	Absent	Absent	Allomorphic
Palatalization	Weak	Absent	Strong	Allomorphic
Vowel reduction	Strong	None	Strong	Allomorphic
Stress position	Initial/root	Final	Free	Allomorphic
Phonotactic pattern	Clusters allowed	Open syllables	Limited clusters	Allomorphic
Universal traits	Phonemic contrast, prosodic	—	—	Isomorphic

	organization			
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8. Pedagogical Implications

Understanding phonological typology aids in developing *contrastive pronunciation and listening exercises*. For example:

- Uzbek learners of English must master reduction and cluster pronunciation.
- Russian learners need to avoid excessive palatalization.
- English speakers learning Uzbek must acquire vowel harmony and final stress rules.

Comparative phonology informs teaching materials, helps predict interference, and promotes accurate cross-linguistic perception (Rasulova and Shukurova 33).

Questions for Self-Control

1. What distinguishes phonetics from phonology in typological comparison?
2. How do English, Uzbek, and Russian differ in the size of their vowel inventories?
3. What role does vowel harmony play in Uzbek compared to the other two languages?
4. What is palatalization and why is it central in Russian phonology?
5. How do English diphthongs differ from vowel sequences in Uzbek and Russian?
6. What types of consonant clusters are permissible in each language?
7. How does stress function typologically across the three languages?
8. What prosodic features (intonation, rhythm) vary most strongly?

Topics for Self-Study

1. Cross-linguistic classification of vowel systems
2. Stress-accent typology in world languages
3. Palatalization as a typological feature of Slavic languages
4. Comparative study of consonantal articulation

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Seminar 4. Typological Characteristics of English, Uzbek, and Russian Languages Phonological Systems

1. Discussion Questions

1. Answer following questions

1. How does phonology differ from phonetics in terms of its subject and methods?
2. What are the main phonological units common to English, Uzbek, and Russian?
3. How does the concept of *phoneme* vary across different linguistic traditions?
4. Why are minimal pairs crucial for identifying phonemes in typological comparison?
5. What are the most distinctive phonological contrasts in English compared to Uzbek and Russian?
6. How does the notion of *phonological opposition* apply to voicing and aspiration?
7. What role do *allophones* play in distinguishing sounds in each language?
8. How do English, Uzbek, and Russian differ in their use of phoneme distribution rules?
9. What are some examples of *neutralization* in Russian that do not occur in English or Uzbek?
10. How does stress interact with phonological processes in each language?

11. Which language exhibits the most complex phonotactic constraints?
Explain.
12. Why is phonological typology essential for understanding second-language pronunciation errors?

2. Interactive Comprehension Activities

2. Table: Phonological Systems Comparison. Fill in with data or examples from class discussion or reference charts.

Feature	English	Uzbek	Russian
Number of phonemes	—	—	—
Phoneme inventory type	—	—	—
Allophonic variation	—	—	—
Vowel reduction	—	—	—
Neutralization of consonants	—	—	—
Phonotactic pattern (e.g., cluster rules)	—	—	—

3. Match following phonological concepts and definitions

Concept	Definition
1. Phoneme	a. Variants of a phoneme that do not change meaning
2. Allophone	b. Smallest contrastive sound unit in a language
3. Minimal pair	c. Two words differing in one phoneme only
4. Phonotactics	d. Rules about permissible sound combinations
5. Neutralization	e. Loss of a phonological contrast in certain environments
6. Assimilation	f. Process where a sound becomes similar to a neighboring sound

4. Phoneme Classification Map. Create a visual map that categorizes phonemes by:

- ~ Manner of articulation
- ~ Place of articulation
- ~ Voicing

Use color coding to indicate which sounds are shared, unique, or contrastive across English, Uzbek, and Russian.

5. Phonological Opposition Task. Identify the *type of opposition* in the following English word pairs and find an Uzbek and Russian example for each:

English Pair	Type of Opposition	Uzbek Example	Russian Example
<i>bat–pat</i>	—	—	—
<i>sip–zip</i>	—	—	—
<i>ship–sheep</i>	—	—	—

3. Practical Activities

6. Minimal Pair Practice. Pronounce and transcribe these sets, marking phonological contrasts:

Language	Pair 1	Pair 2	Pair 3
English	<i>pit–bit</i>	<i>fan–van</i>	<i>seat–sit</i>
Uzbek	<i>bor–por</i>	<i>ol–el</i>	<i>ko‘l–kul</i>
Russian	<i>лук–луз</i>	<i>кот–код</i>	<i>пол–пыл</i>

Discuss:

- ~ Which minimal pairs involve vowel vs. consonant distinction?
- ~ Which pairs demonstrate neutralization?

7. Contrastive Phoneme Mapping Task. Complete the table by identifying English phonemes that have no direct equivalent in Uzbek or Russian.

English Phoneme	Exists in Uzbek?	Exists in Russian?	Closest Equivalent
/θ/	✗	✗	/t/ or /s/
/ð/			
/æ/			
/ʒ/			
/w/			

8. Group Activity: Rule Comparison. Analyze one phonological rule from each language (e.g., assimilation, devoicing, vowel harmony). Discuss in groups:

1. What triggers the rule?
2. Is it obligatory or optional?
3. What linguistic level (phonetic or phonological) does it affect?

4. Independent Work (Homework)

Task 1: Write a 300–350-word short report on the topic: “Phonological Rules and Their Typological Differences in English, Uzbek, and Russian.”

Instructions:

- Include at least two examples of phonological rules per language.
- Explain the universality or uniqueness of each rule.
- Use phonemic transcription where appropriate.

Task 2. Knowledge Check

1. The smallest contrastive sound unit in phonology is the:
 - a) Morpheme
 - b) Allophone
 - c) Phoneme
 - d) Grapheme
2. Which process changes a sound to resemble a neighboring one?
 - a) Elision
 - b) Assimilation
 - c) Dissimilation
 - d) Neutralization
3. The rule “/b/ → [p] / _#” (word-final position) describes:
 - a) Voicing assimilation
 - b) Final devoicing
 - c) Palatalization
 - d) Cluster reduction
4. Which feature is *absent* in Uzbek phonology but present in English?
 - a) Vowel harmony
 - b) Vowel reduction
 - c) Consonant devoicing
 - d) Stress alternation

5. Russian phonology is characterized by:
- a) Lack of palatalization
 - b) Strong vowel length contrast
 - c) Palatalized–nonpalatalized consonant pairs
 - d) Tones
6. In English, [p] and [p^h] are:
- a) Different phonemes
 - b) Allophones of the same phoneme
 - c) Free variants
 - d) Neutralized sounds
7. Which phenomenon occurs when two distinct sounds are pronounced the same in specific contexts?
- a) Assimilation
 - b) Dissimilation
 - c) Neutralization
 - d) Allophony
8. Which feature is shared across English, Uzbek, and Russian phonology?
- a) Fixed stress
 - b) Phonemic voicing contrast
 - c) Vowel harmony
 - d) Tone distinction



Lecture 5. Typology of the Morphological Level of English, Uzbek, and Russian Languages

Lecture Plan

1. Definition and Scope of Morphology
2. Main Morphological Units and Processes
3. Morphological Types of Languages
4. Comparative Analysis of English, Uzbek, and Russian Morphological Structures
5. Typology of Morphemes and Word Formation
6. Isomorphic and Allomorphic Morphological Features
7. Pedagogical Relevance of Morphological Typology

Keywords: *morphology, analytic, agglutinative, fusional, morpheme, inflection*

Morphology is the study of the internal structure of words and the rules that govern their formation. It serves as the bridge between phonology and syntax, revealing how meaning is encoded through grammatical and lexical forms. Comparative morphological typology explores how different languages construct and modify words, distinguishing between *analytic*, *synthetic*, *agglutinative*, and *polysynthetic* systems (Comrie 58).

1. Definition and Scope of Morphology

According to Crystal, morphology deals with “the study of the smallest meaningful units in language and the patterns in which they combine” (295). These smallest units are *morphemes*—either *free* (independent words) or *bound* (affixes). Morphology thus examines word

formation, inflection, and grammatical relationships within language systems.

Typologically, morphological structure determines how languages express grammatical meaning — whether through *word order*, *inflection*, or *auxiliary words*. Therefore, understanding morphological typology is key to identifying universals and contrasts among English, Uzbek, and Russian.

2. Main Morphological Units and Processes

The main morphological units are:

- Root – carries lexical meaning (e.g., *read*, *kitob* ‘book’, *pisat* ‘to write’).
- Affixes – modify or derive meaning. They include prefixes, suffixes, and infixes.
- Inflection – marks grammatical categories such as tense, case, number, gender, or mood.
- Derivation – forms new lexical items from existing roots.

Each language uses these processes differently:

- English relies on both derivation (*teach* → *teacher*) and inflection (*walk* → *walked*).
- Uzbek primarily uses agglutinative suffixation (*kitob* → *kitoblar* → *kitoblaringiz*).
- Russian combines inflection and derivation with complex suffixal paradigms (*стол* → *столы*; *писатъ* → *писатель*).

3. Morphological Types of Languages

Typologists classify languages into morphological types according to how grammatical relationships are expressed (Croft 102; Haspelmath 91).

Type	Characteristics	Examples
Isolating	Words are monomorphemic; grammatical meaning expressed syntactically	Chinese, Vietnamese
Agglutinative	Morphemes are clearly separable; each expresses a single meaning	Uzbek, Turkish
Fusional (Inflectional)	Morphemes fuse multiple meanings (case, number, gender)	Russian, Latin
Analytic	Few inflections; rely on auxiliary words and word order	English
Polysynthetic	Words include entire sentences or complex ideas	Inuktitut, Eskimo languages

Most languages combine these types. English, for example, is *analytic with remnants of inflection*, while Uzbek is *strongly agglutinative* and Russian is *highly inflectional* (Lutfullina 46).

4. Comparative Analysis of English, Uzbek, and Russian Morphological Structures

↓ **English:** Analytic language with minimal inflection. Grammatical categories are expressed by *word order*, *auxiliaries*, and *prepositions* (*will go*, *has done*). It retains some inflectional suffixes: plural -s, possessive -'s, and verbal -ed, -ing (Rasulova and Shukurova 35).

↓ **Uzbek:** Agglutinative; morphemes are added linearly with stable meaning and form. The morpheme -lar always means plural, -ni always marks object case (*kitobni oldim* – “I took the book”). Word order is

relatively free because morphology shows grammatical relations (Alimova and Rasulov 52).

↓ **Russian:** Synthetic–fusional; affixes often combine several meanings. For instance, *руки* (hands) expresses both number and case in one morpheme. Word endings vary according to gender, number, and case, making Russian morphology complex but expressive (Salnikova 52).

5. Typology of Morphemes and Word Formation

In comparative perspective:

- English morphemes often change phonologically (e.g., *write* – *wrote* – *written*).
- Uzbek morphemes are *invariant*: form remains unchanged across contexts (*kitob* – *kitoblar* – *kitobim*).
- Russian morphemes display *alternations*: vowel and consonant changes occur due to stress and palatalization (*город* – *города*; *рука* – *руки*).

Word formation also differs typologically:

- English: Rich in derivation and compounding (*bookshop*, *happiness*).
- Uzbek: Productive agglutinative derivation (*o‘qituvchi*, *yo‘zuvchi*).
- Russian: Extensive use of derivational suffixes and prefixes (*учебник*, *переписать*).

These patterns show that Uzbek morphology is transparent and regular, while Russian and English involve more irregularity and fusion of meanings.

6. Isomorphic and Allomorphic Morphological Features

Feature	English	Uzbek	Russian	Typological Observation
Morphological type	Analytic	Agglutinative	Fusional	Allomorphic
Inflectional richness	Poor	Moderate	Rich	Allomorphic
Morpheme invariance	Variable	Stable	Alternating	Allomorphic
Grammatical categories	Number, tense, aspect	Case, number, person, tense	Case, number, gender, aspect	Allomorphic
Word formation	Derivation, compounding	Agglutinative derivation	Prefix-suffix derivation	Allomorphic
Function of word order	Grammatical	Optional	Moderate	Allomorphic
Common features	Existence of morpheme, root, affix	—	—	Isomorphic

The comparison shows *functional unity but structural diversity*: each language encodes meaning morphologically but with distinct strategies.

7. Pedagogical Relevance of Morphological Typology

Comparative morphology is essential in teaching and translation. For Uzbek and Russian learners of English:

- ~ Analytical structure causes difficulty since English relies on syntactic rather than morphological markers.
- ~ Understanding the typological contrast helps reduce *transfer errors* (e.g., overuse of affixes).
- ~ For English learners of Uzbek or Russian:
- ~ Awareness of *morpheme transparency* and *case marking* aids accuracy.
- ~ Teachers can design *contrastive morphological charts* to illustrate correspondences (Buranov 74).

Comparative morphology thus develops students' awareness of linguistic systems, deepens grammatical competence, and fosters analytical thinking (Haspelmath 94).

Questions for Self-Control

1. What is morphological typology?
2. How do analytic, agglutinative, and fusional structures differ?
3. Why is English mostly analytic?
4. What typological features define Uzbek morphology?
5. How does Russian express multiple grammatical meanings in one morpheme?
6. What differentiates derivation from inflection?
7. How do morpheme boundaries behave in each language?
8. Why is morphological transparency higher in Uzbek?

Topics for Self-Study

1. Morphological typology in world languages

2. Morpheme classification principles
3. Agglutination in Turkic languages
4. Fusional morphology in Slavic languages

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Seminar 5. Typology of the Morphological Level of English, Uzbek, and Russian Languages

1. Discussion Questions

1. Answer following questions

1. How does morphology differ from syntax and phonology in linguistic structure?
2. What is the main typological distinction between isolating, agglutinative, and fusional languages?
3. Where do English, Uzbek, and Russian each fall within this typological classification?
4. How do morphemes function differently across these three languages?
5. What are the types of morphemes found in English, Uzbek, and Russian (free/bound, derivational/inflectional)?
6. Which morphological processes—affixation, compounding, reduplication—are most common in each language?
7. How does word formation contribute to typological comparison?
8. What are the main grammatical categories expressed morphologically in each language (number, case, tense, etc.)?
9. Why is English sometimes considered “analytic” rather than purely isolating?
10. How does Uzbek’s agglutinative morphology simplify or complicate meaning representation?

11. What are examples of morphological irregularity in Russian compared to English and Uzbek?
12. In what ways do morphological patterns affect language learning and translation?

2. Interactive Comprehension Activities

2. Morphological Typology Overview. Fill in using lecture notes and examples.

Language	Typological Type	Main Features	Example
English	—	—	—
Uzbek	—	—	—
Russian	—	—	—

3. Match following morphological terms and definitions

Term	Definition
1. Morpheme	a. The smallest meaningful linguistic unit
2. Allomorph	b. A variant form of a morpheme
3. Inflection	c. Modification to express grammatical categories
4. Derivation	d. Formation of new words from existing ones
5. Root	e. Basic lexical morpheme carrying core meaning
6. Affix	f. Bound morpheme attached to a root or base

4. Morphological Typology Diagram. Create a Venn Diagram showing overlaps and distinctions between *English*, *Uzbek*, and *Russian morphology*:

- **Shared traits** (e.g., use of affixes, compound formation)
- **Unique traits** (e.g., Uzbek vowel harmony, Russian declension, English periphrastic forms)

Hint: Place English (analytic), Uzbek (agglutinative), and Russian (fusional) in separate circles with overlapping intersections.

5. Morpheme Identification Task. Identify and classify morphemes in the following examples:

Language	Word	Morphemes	Type
English	<i>unbelievable</i>		
Uzbek	<i>kitoblarimizdan</i>		root + plural + possessive + ablative
Russian	<i>говори</i>		

3. Practical Activities

6. (Group Work). Analyze one complex word from each language, segment it into morphemes, and describe the function of each.
Example:

- English: *internationalization* → inter + nation + al + ize + tion

- Uzbek: *yozuvchilarning* → yoz + uvchi + lar + ning
- Russian: *предупреждение* → пред + у + прежд + е + ние

Discuss how meaning accumulates through morphemes.

7. Learn Comparative Table: Inflectional Morphology

Grammatical Category	English	Uzbek	Russian
Number	cats / cat	kitob / kitoblar	стол / столы
Case	of the book	kitobning	книги
Tense	walks / walked	yuradi / yurdi	идёт / шёл
Aspect	is reading	o‘qiyapti	читает
Gender	none	none	masculine / feminine / neuter

8. Mini-Research Task. In pairs, find two examples of *morphological universals* (features common across unrelated languages).

Possible universals include:

- Presence of plural marking
- Possession marking
- Word formation via affixation

Present your findings in a short presentation (150 words) with one example from each language.

4. Independent Work (Homework)

Task 1: Write a 350-word essay on: “Typological Differences in Morphological Structures: English, Uzbek, and Russian.”

Instructions:

- Describe the typological classification (analytic, agglutinative, fusional).
- Provide at least two examples from each language.
- Include a short reflection on how morphology influences grammar teaching and translation.

Task 2. Knowledge Check

1. Morphology is primarily concerned with:
 - a) Sound patterns
 - b) Word structure and formation
 - c) Sentence organization
 - d) Meaning in context
2. Which language is predominantly agglutinative?
 - a) English
 - b) Uzbek
 - c) Russian
 - d) German
3. In fusional languages, one affix typically expresses:
 - a) A single grammatical meaning
 - b) Multiple grammatical meanings simultaneously
 - c) Reduplication
 - d) Compounding

4. The word *teachers* contains:
 - a) One morpheme
 - b) Two morphemes
 - c) Three morphemes
 - d) Four morphemes
5. In Uzbek, *kitoblarimizdan* demonstrates:
 - a) Inflectional synthesis
 - b) Compounding
 - c) Prefixation
 - d) Vowel gradation
6. Which process forms *happiness* from *happy*?
 - a) Inflection
 - b) Derivation
 - c) Compounding
 - d) Conversion
7. Which of the following is a morphological universal?
 - a) Use of tones
 - b) Plural marking
 - c) Reduplication
 - d) Vowel harmony
8. English expresses many grammatical relations through:
 - a) Inflection
 - b) Word order and auxiliaries
 - c) Gender agreement
 - d) Sound alternation

Lecture 6. Typology of Grammatical Categories of English, Uzbek, and Russian Languages

Lecture Plan

1. Definition and Nature of Grammatical Categories
2. Main Grammatical Categories in World Languages
3. Comparative Overview of English, Uzbek, and Russian Grammatical Systems
4. Typology of Nominal Categories: Number, Case, Gender
5. Typology of Verbal Categories: Tense, Aspect, Mood, Voice
6. Isomorphic and Allomorphic Grammatical Features
7. Pedagogical and Linguistic Significance

Keywords: *grammatical categories, tense, aspect, modality, evidentiality, case, gender*

Grammar is the structural foundation of every language. It provides the rules and categories through which meaning is systematically expressed. In typological analysis, *grammatical categories* refer to sets of forms or constructions that share a common grammatical meaning — such as number, tense, case, or mood — and are expressed through inflection, word order, or auxiliary markers.

Comparative typology explores how different languages encode these categories morphologically or syntactically and identifies universal tendencies alongside language-specific features (Croft 141).

1. Definition and Nature of Grammatical Categories

A *grammatical category* is a set of grammatical forms sharing a common meaning and differing only in one grammatical feature (Crystal 198). For example, in English the category of *number* includes singular

(*book*) and plural (*books*). The key function of categories is to organize linguistic meaning in systematic patterns.

Grammatical categories are *inflectional* (case, number, tense) or *syntactic* (word order, agreement). Typologically, their realization may be *explicit* (morphological marking) or *implicit* (syntactic structure).

2. Main Grammatical Categories in World Languages

Universally common grammatical categories include:

- **Nominal categories:** number, gender, case, definiteness, possession.
- **Verbal categories:** tense, aspect, mood, person, voice.

However, their formal expression varies:

- ~ English expresses grammatical meaning through auxiliary verbs (*will go, has done*).
- ~ Uzbek uses agglutinative suffixes (*boraman* – “I go”, *borasan* – “you go”).
- ~ Russian uses inflectional endings (*уѡѡ, уѡѡѡѡѡ, уѡѡѡ*).

According to Alimova and Rasulov (61), this diversity reflects different morphological strategies within shared cognitive universals.

3. Comparative Overview of English, Uzbek, and Russian Grammatical Systems

Each of the three languages represents a distinct grammatical type:

- ↓ *English:* analytic; grammar depends heavily on word order and function words.
- ↓ *Uzbek:* agglutinative; grammatical meanings are attached via invariant suffixes.
- ↓ *Russian:* fusional; endings often fuse several grammatical meanings at once (Salnikova 57).

Parameter	English	Uzbek	Russian
Morphological type	Analytic	Agglutinative	Fusional
Word order function	Grammatical	Optional	Moderate
Case marking	Minimal	Rich	Rich
Agreement	Weak	Moderate	Strong
Auxiliary verbs	Common	Rare	Rare

4. Typology of Nominal Categories: Number, Case, Gender

Number:

- English distinguishes *singular* and *plural* through suffix -s or irregular forms (*man – men*).
- Uzbek forms plurals with *-lar* regardless of gender or animacy (*kitoblar, qizlar*).
- Russian plural markers vary across declension types (*стол – столы, рука – руки*).

Case:

- English case marking is minimal (*John's book, to him*).
- Uzbek has six cases (*kitob – kitobni – kitobda – kitobga – kitobdan – kitob bilan*), all formed by clear suffixes.
- Russian has six grammatical cases (*именительный, родительный, дательный, винительный, творительный, предложный*), often fused with number and gender.

Gender:

- English lacks grammatical gender except for pronouns (*he, she, it*).
- Uzbek is gender-neutral: nouns and adjectives do not change for gender.

- Russian divides nouns and adjectives into masculine, feminine, and neuter, with obligatory agreement (*новый стол, новая книга, новое окно*).

Typologically, English and Uzbek share gender absence as an isomorphic feature, while Russian stands out for gender agreement as an allomorphic one.

5. Typology of Verbal Categories: Tense, Aspect, Mood, Voice

Tense:

- English distinguishes three basic tenses with perfect and progressive aspects, realized analytically (*I work, I am working, I have worked*).
- Uzbek has two main tenses: present-future (*boraman*) and past (*bordim*), plus aspectual nuances conveyed by particles or adverbs.
- Russian has three tenses (past, present, future), realized morphologically (*и́ду, шёл, пошёл*).

Aspect:

- English expresses aspect analytically (*be + V-ing, have + V-ed*).
- Uzbek uses separate verbs or suffixes (*borib turaman* – “I go regularly”).
- Russian uses *perfective* and *imperfective* stems (*писать / написать*), a clear typological marker (Lutfullina 54).

Mood:

- English uses modal verbs (*can, may, should*).
- Uzbek adds suffixes and particles (*boray, borsin*).
- Russian uses morphological forms (*пусть и́дут, я бы пошёл*).

Voice:

- English: passive formed analytically (*is written*).

- Uzbek: morphological affixes (*yozilgan*).
- Russian: both analytic (*быть + участие*) and synthetic (*спроутся*).

These comparisons show that *English verbal morphology* is analytic, *Uzbek* is agglutinative, and *Russian* is fusional and morphologically complex.

6. Isomorphic and Allomorphic Grammatical Features

Feature	English	Uzbek	Russian	Typological Note
Number	+	+	+	Isomorphic
Case	Limited	Extensive	Extensive	Allomorphic
Gender	Absent	Absent	Present	Allomorphic
Tense	Analytic	Morphological	Morphological	Allomorphic
Aspect	Analytical	Lexical/morphological	Morphological	Allomorphic
Mood	Modal verbs	Suffixes	Morphological	Allomorphic
Voice	Analytic passive	Morphological passive	Mixed	Allomorphic
Universals	Nominal-verbal opposition	—	—	Isomorphic

7. Pedagogical and Linguistic Significance

Understanding grammatical typology is crucial in second language acquisition. It helps predict *interference errors* and guides grammar teaching methods.

For Uzbek learners of English:

- Omission of auxiliary verbs (*He go* for *He goes*).
- Confusion between tense and aspect (*I am go*).

For Russian learners:

- Overuse of inflections or misplacement of auxiliaries (*She has writtended*).

For English learners of Uzbek or Russian:

- Difficulty mastering case endings and aspectual pairs.

Teachers can design *contrastive grammar charts* and *translation-based tasks* to visualize typological contrasts. As Greenberg (1963) observed, awareness of cross-linguistic universals deepens grammatical competence and prevents negative transfer.

Questions for Self-Control

1. What constitutes a grammatical category?
2. How do tense and aspect differ across languages?
3. How is person expressed morphologically?
4. What makes the Russian aspect system unique?
5. How does Uzbek encode evidentiality?
6. How does English express modality?
7. What roles do gender and case play in Russian grammar?
8. How do languages encode definiteness?

Topics for Self-Study

1. Cross-linguistic analysis of tense–aspect systems
2. Evidentiality in Turkic languages
3. Modality expression across typological groups
4. Case systems globally

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Seminar 6. Typology of Grammatical Categories of English, Uzbek, and Russian Languages

1. Discussion Questions

1. Answer following questions

1. How is **case** expressed in English compared to Uzbek and Russian?
2. What role does **tense** play in typological comparison?
3. How are **aspect** and **mood** represented differently across the three languages?
4. What makes the **voice** category (active, passive) function differently in Uzbek compared to English and Russian?
5. How do auxiliary verbs in English replace morphological markers found in Uzbek and Russian?
6. What are examples of **grammaticalization** in these languages (e.g., “will,” “have,” “bo‘lmoq”)?
7. Why is the study of grammatical categories vital for translation and second-language teaching?

2. Interactive Comprehension Activities

2. Comparative Overview of Grammatical Categories. Fill in the table by describing how each grammatical category is expressed in English, Uzbek, and Russian, noting main similarities and differences.

Category	English	Uzbek	Russian
Number	Singular/plural	Singular/plural	Singular/plural

	(cat/cats)	(kitob/kitoblar)	(дом/дома)
Gender			
Case			
Tense	Synthetic + analytic forms	Synthetic	Synthetic
Aspect			
Mood			
Voice			

3. Match following category and example

Category	Example
1. Number	a. The letter was written
2. Case	b. He has gone
3. Tense	c. If I were you
4. Aspect	d. kitobdan, odamga
5. Mood	e. читает / прочитал
6. Voice	f. cats, books, tables

4. Morphosyntactic Expression of Categories. Draw a three-column chart illustrating how grammatical categories are expressed morphologically and syntactically in 3 languages (for category: Case, Tense, Aspect).

5. Fill the blanks with the correct grammatical form. Identify the category represented.

1. English: She ____ (go) to school every day. → **Category:** Tense
2. Uzbek: Bizning kitob ____ stol ustida turibdi. → **Category:** Case
3. Russian: Я вижу хорош ____ студента. → **Category:** Gender + Case

3. Practical Activities

6. Comparative Sentence Construction. Write one sentence in each language illustrating *tense* and *aspect*:

- English: *She has been reading the book for two hours.*
- Uzbek: *U ikki soatdan beri kitob o‘qiyapti.*
- Russian: *Она читает книгу уже два часа.*

→ Discuss how each expresses the concept of ongoing action.

7. Group Analysis: Grammatical Category Shifts in Translation.

Translate the following English sentences into Uzbek and Russian. Identify which grammatical categories change during translation.

1. *The boy is playing football.*
2. *The books were bought yesterday.*
3. *If I had known, I would have helped.*

Guidelines:

- Focus on changes in aspect, mood, and voice.
- Explain how morphology vs. syntax contributes to these shifts.

8. Learn Comparative Chart: Voice Category

Language	Active Example	Passive/Reflexive Example	Notes
English	The teacher explained the rule.	The rule was explained by the teacher.	Uses auxiliaries (“be + V-ed”)
Uzbek	O‘qituvchi qoida tushuntirdi.	Qoida o‘qituvchi tomonidan tushuntirildi.	Uses postposition “tomonidan”
Russian	Учитель объяснил правило.	Правило было объяснено учителем.	Morphological passive with <i>быть</i> + participle

4. Independent Work (Homework)

Task 1: Write a 350-word essay on: “Typological Comparison of Grammatical Categories: English, Uzbek, and Russian.”

Requirements:

- ✓ Analyze at least four grammatical categories (number, tense, case, mood, or voice).
- ✓ Discuss how their expression reflects the typological structure of each language.
- ✓ Include examples and short in-text citations from reference materials.

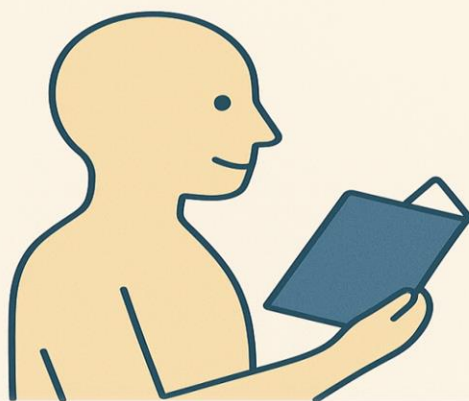
Task 2. Knowledge Check

1. Which of the following is NOT a grammatical category?
 - a) Case
 - b) Mood
 - c) Aspect
 - d) Lexicon
2. English primarily expresses grammatical categories through:
 - a) Inflection
 - b) Word order and auxiliaries
 - c) Reduplication
 - d) Vowel harmony
3. The Uzbek suffix “-lar” expresses which grammatical category?
 - a) Case
 - b) Number
 - c) Gender
 - d) Aspect
4. The Russian pair *идет—идёт* demonstrates which category?
 - a) Voice
 - b) Aspect
 - c) Tense
 - d) Mood
5. The sentence *If I were you, I would go* expresses which grammatical mood?
 - a) Indicative
 - b) Imperative
 - c) Subjunctive
 - d) Conditional

6. In Uzbek, the suffix *-moqda* indicates:
- a) Future tense
 - b) Continuous aspect
 - c) Passive voice
 - d) Causative form
7. Which language has a rich gender-based agreement system?
- a) English
 - b) Uzbek
 - c) Russian
 - d) All three equally
8. The English progressive aspect (“is running”) is formed:
- a) Morphologically
 - b) Lexically
 - c) Syntactically
 - d) Through reduplication

TPOLOGY OF GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES OF ENGLISH, UZBEK AND RUSSIAN LANGUAGES

- Tense
- Number
- Case



Tense

N S



Lecture 7. Typology of Syntactic Level of English, Uzbek, and Russian Languages

Lecture Plan

1. Definition and Scope of Syntax in Typology
2. Word Order Typology and Basic Sentence Patterns
3. Subject–Predicate Relations and Agreement
4. Typological Features of Simple Sentences
5. Typology of Complex and Compound Sentences
6. Syntactic Universals and Variations
7. Pedagogical Implications

Keywords: *syntax, SVO, SOV, agreement, subordination, information structure*

Syntax studies how words combine to form phrases and sentences that convey meaning. In *comparative typology*, the syntactic level analyzes how different languages organize sentence structure, express grammatical relations, and mark syntactic functions through *word order*, *inflection*, and *functional markers*.

As Comrie (1989) notes, syntax reveals “the relationship between meaning and structure—the mapping between conceptual and grammatical patterns.” Each language follows a typological word-order model determined by its morphological type and communicative needs.

1. Definition and Scope of Syntax in Typology

Syntax (from Greek *syntaxis*, “arrangement”) is the study of sentence construction—the ways in which words are ordered and related. **Syntactic typology** classifies languages according to their dominant word order

patterns, clause types, and strategies of expressing grammatical relations (Croft 174).

In typological analysis, syntax interacts with morphology and phonology. Analytic languages (like English) depend on word order, whereas synthetic or agglutinative languages (like Uzbek and Russian) rely on inflection or affixation to signal relations (Rasulova and Shukurova 41).

2. Word Order Typology and Basic Sentence Patterns

Joseph Greenberg’s (1963) typology identified six basic word orders based on Subject (S), Verb (V), and Object (O) positions:

- SVO, SOV, VSO, VOS, OVS, OSV.

Each language has a dominant pattern and certain permissible variants.

Language	Dominant Word Order	Remarks
English	SVO	Rigid; order defines grammatical function
Uzbek	SOV	Relatively free; suffixes indicate relations
Russian	SVO (free)	Flexible; word order used for emphasis or style

✓ English: “The boy reads a book.”

✓ Uzbek: “Bola kitob o‘qiydi.” (SOV)

✓ Russian: “Мальчик читает книгу.” (SVO but “Книгу читает мальчик” possible for emphasis).

Typologically, English depends on word order to express subject and object roles, whereas Uzbek and Russian use morphology, allowing syntactic flexibility (Бекчаев Ё. Дж. 2020).

3. Subject–Predicate Relations and Agreement

In all three languages, the subject–predicate relation forms the syntactic core of a sentence.

- English: Agreement limited to number and person in the present tense (*He works / They work*).
- Uzbek: The verb agrees with person and number through suffixes (*Men boraman, Biz boramiz*).
- Russian: Agreement extends to gender, number, and person (*Я пишу, Она писала, Они писали*).

Typologically, the agreement system becomes richer from English → Uzbek → Russian. In English, word order signals the subject; in Uzbek and Russian, morphological agreement carries this function.

4. Typological Features of Simple Sentences

In English syntax, the central meaning of a simple sentence is conveyed through its *finite verb*, which forms a direct connection with the *subject*. This fundamental connection—expressing predication—is often referred to as the *predicative line* of the sentence. A sentence may contain *one* or *more* predicative lines. Those with only one are called *monopredicative* (simple sentences), while those with several predicative lines are *polypredicative* (composite sentences). Examples of monopredicative sentences include:

Bob has never left the stadium.

Opinions differ.

This may happen any time.

Every sentence, including the simple one, is structured as a *system of function-bearing positions*. These positions reflect various elements of a

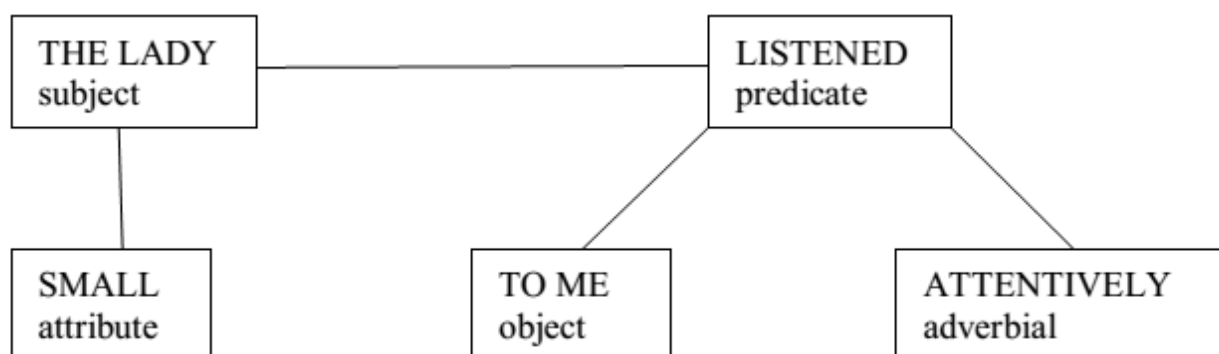
real-life situation. The *nominative parts*—each fulfilling a notional function—are:

- ✓ Subject
- ✓ Predicate
- ✓ Object
- ✓ Attribute
- ✓ Adverbial modifier
- ✓ Parenthetical or addressing enclosure
- ✓ Interjectional enclosure (semi-notional)

These components are arranged hierarchically, where each plays a modifying role in relation to the entire sentence. Ultimately, they contribute to forming a unified reflection of an event or state of affairs.

Hierarchy and sentence parsing: Traditional grammatical analysis represents this hierarchy through *syntactic trees* or *immediate constituent diagrams*, showing how sentence parts are subordinated or coordinated.

For example, in the sentence *The small lady listened to me attentively*, we can observe the following structure:



This model illustrates the vertical (subordination) and horizontal (coordination) connections that define English syntax.

A simple sentence contains one clause and conveys a single thought.

- English has a fixed structure: *Subject + Predicate + Object / Complement*.
- Uzbek permits varied structures because of its agglutinative morphology (*Bola maktabga bordi / Maktabga bola bordi*).
- Russian allows inversion for emphasis (*Я вижу книгу / Книгу вижу я*).

Another typological contrast concerns predicative means:

- English uses *auxiliaries* for tense and aspect (*is going, has done*).
- Uzbek and Russian express predication through *verbal suffixes* (*boradi, пошёл*).

A simple sentence can be:

- Unexpanded (elementary) – contains only the obligatory parts (subject and predicate, plus necessary complements).
e.g., The boy runs.
- Expanded – includes optional or additional modifiers without introducing a new predicative line.
e.g., The boy runs quickly to school every morning.

In both types, the sentence remains monopredicative, since only one predicative connection exists.

English simple sentences can further be divided according to how many *syntactic axes* (subject and predicate) they display:

- Two-member (two-axis) sentences contain both subject and predicate explicitly:

The books come from experience.

You should go back to bed.

- One-member (one-axis) sentences have only one axis overtly expressed; the other is implied by context:
“*Who will meet us at the airport?*” – “*Mary.*”

This classification shows that English, like Uzbek and Russian, can omit one member of the predication when it is recoverable from the situation. In Uzbek, for instance, *Keldi* (“[He/She] came”) also represents a one-member structure where the subject is implied through verb morphology.

From a comparative typological perspective, these distinctions reveal interesting contrasts:

- English, being analytic, relies heavily on word order and auxiliaries to express predication.
- Uzbek, as an agglutinative language, often marks subjects and tense within the verb form itself, allowing omission of explicit subjects.
- Russian, a synthetic fusional language, can drop either subject or object due to rich inflectional morphology.

Thus, the concept of the predicative line and valency helps clarify both the internal hierarchy of sentence structure and the typological behavior of English, Uzbek, and Russian syntax.

5. Typology of Complex and Compound Sentences

At the complex sentence level, languages differ in subordination and coordination markers.

- ✓ English: conjunctions and relative pronouns connect clauses (*because, which, that*).
- ✓ Uzbek: conjunctions or participial constructions serve this function (*chunki, -gan, -sa*).

- ✓ Russian: uses conjunctions (*потому что, если*) and subordination via participial forms (*сделав, прочитав*).

Examples:

- *I know that he is coming.* → *Men uning kelayotganini bilaman.* → *Я знаю, что он придёт.*

Compound sentences use coordination:

- English: *and, but, or*.
- Uzbek: *va, ammo, yoki*.
- Russian: *и, но, или*.

Typologically, subordination is *analytic* in English and *synthetic* in Uzbek and Russian, often using participial or verbal morphology.

6. Syntactic Universals and Variations

Feature	English	Uzbek	Russian	Typological Note
Dominant word order	SVO	SOV	SVO (free)	Allomorphic
Subject–verb agreement	Weak	Moderate	Strong	Allomorphic
Use of auxiliaries	Frequent	Rare	Rare	Allomorphic
Prepositions / Postpositions	Prepositions	Postpositions	Prepositions	Allomorphic
Clause structure	Analytic	Agglutinative	Synthetic	Allomorphic
Coordination markers	Simple	Suffixal/ conjunctive	Conjunctive	Isomorphic

Universals	Presence of S–P structure	–	–	Isomorphic
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Syntactic universals include the presence of a predicate, subject–predicate agreement, and means of coordination. Variations arise from morphological typology and communicative patterns.

7. Pedagogical Implications

Understanding syntactic typology is crucial for foreign language learners:

- Uzbek and Russian learners of English often transfer flexible word order habits, producing sentences like “*Interesting book I read*” instead of “*I read an interesting book.*”
- English learners of Uzbek or Russian may struggle with suffix-based subordination (*kelgan odamni ko‘rdim*; *прочитав книгу, он ушёл*).

Teachers can enhance syntactic competence through *contrastive sentence transformation*, *translation drills*, and *tree-diagram analysis*, highlighting how meaning changes with structure (Lutfullina 59; Buranov 78).

Questions for Self-Control

1. What is syntactic typology?
2. What distinguishes SVO and SOV languages?
3. How flexible is Russian word order?
4. Why does English use fixed word order?
5. How does Uzbek mark grammatical relations?
6. What is the role of agreement?
7. How does each language handle subordination?

8. What is topic–comment structure?

Topics for Self-Study

1. Word order universals
2. Clause structure in Turkic languages
3. Sentence patterns of Slavic languages
4. Information structure in English

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- One of the most common ways of classifying languages is by the most typical order of the subject (S), verb (V) and object (O) in sentences such as “The cat eats the mouse”:

SVO (“The cat eats the mouse”),

SOV (“The cat the mouse eats”),

VSO (“Eats the cat the mouse”),

OSV (“The mouse the cat eats”),

OVS (“The mouse eats the cat”),

VOS (“Eats the mouse the cat”).



Seminar 7. Typology of Syntactic Level of English, Uzbek, and Russian Languages

1. Discussion Questions

1. Answer following questions.

1. What is syntax, and how does it differ from morphology and semantics?
2. What are the main syntactic units in language typology (phrase, clause, sentence)?
3. How do word order patterns reflect typological differences among English, Uzbek, and Russian?
4. Which of the three languages has the most rigid word order, and why?
5. How do syntactic structures reflect communicative functions like topic and focus?
6. What is the difference between synthetic and analytic sentence construction?
7. How do conjunctions and particles operate differently in English, Uzbek, and Russian syntax?
8. How does coordination differ from subordination in typological comparison?
9. How is negation expressed syntactically in each language?
10. What syntactic markers are used for forming questions across these languages?

11. How do typological syntactic differences influence translation and interpretation?
12. What role does intonation play in determining syntactic meaning in spoken discourse?

2. Interactive Comprehension Activities

2. Complete the table by describing the basic word order pattern, degree of flexibility, and an example sentence for each language (English, Uzbek, and Russian).

Language	Basic Word Order	Flexibility	Example Sentence
English			
Uzbek			
Russian			

Follow-up Question:

How does case marking influence word order flexibility?

3. Match each concept with its correct definition. Write the correct letter next to each number.

Concept	Definition
1. Clause	a. Linking of a dependent unit to a main clause
2. Phrase	b. Complete grammatical structure expressing a full thought
3. Sentence	c. Group of words without a finite verb functioning as one unit
4. Coordination	d. Group of words expressing one idea; may be

	independent or dependent
5. Subordination	e. Joining of equal syntactic units

4. Sentence Structure Comparison. Create a comparative diagram illustrating *simple*, *compound*, and *complex* sentence structures in English, Uzbek, and Russian. Identify the conjunctions and subordination markers in each example

Type	English Example	Uzbek Example	Russian Example
Simple			
Compound			
Complex			

5. Syntactic Transformation Activity. Transform the following sentences from **active** to **passive**, and compare structure changes in all three languages. What syntactic markers indicate the passive voice in each example?

Language	Active Sentence	Passive Sentence
English		
Uzbek		
Russian		

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3. Practical Activities

5. Comparative Analysis: Write the missing syntactic marker

Language	Question Type	Example	Syntactic Marker
English	Yes/No	Is he coming?	
Uzbek	Yes/No	U kelayaptimi?	
Russian	Yes/No	Он идёт?	

Discuss: How does each system reflect its typological features (analytic, agglutinative, fusional)?

6. Translation Challenge. Translate and compare sentence structures. Focus on *subordination and coordination*. Identify conjunctions, word order, and clause boundaries.

English	Uzbek Translation	Russian Translation
She didn't come because she was ill.		
If it rains, we will stay home.		

4. Independent Work (Homework)

Task 1: Write a 350–400-word analytical essay on: “Typological Comparison of Sentence Structure in English, Uzbek, and Russian.”

Requirements:

- Compare basic word order, clause types, and sentence structure.
- Provide examples for each type.
- Reflect on how syntactic differences affect second language acquisition and translation.

Optional: Include a chart or tree diagram illustrating SVO, SOV, and free word order patterns.

Task 2. Knowledge Check

1. English is generally classified as a(n):
 - a) SOV language
 - b) SVO language
 - c) VSO language
 - d) OSV language
2. The basic Uzbek sentence pattern is:
 - a) SVO
 - b) SOV
 - c) VSO
 - d) VOS
3. Which language allows the greatest syntactic flexibility due to case endings?
 - a) English
 - b) Uzbek
 - c) Russian
 - d) German

4. The process of combining independent clauses with “and” is called:
- a) Coordination
 - b) Subordination
 - c) Embedding
 - d) Parallelism
5. In English, question formation often involves:
- a) Case inflection
 - b) Verb inversion
 - c) Intonation only
 - d) Particle addition
6. Uzbek forms questions by adding:
- a) A suffix
 - b) A prefix
 - c) The particle *-mi*
 - d) Word order change
7. Which syntactic feature is typical of analytic languages like English?
- a) Free word order
 - b) Extensive use of inflection
 - c) Fixed word order and auxiliaries
 - d) Postpositional markers
8. The Russian sentence *Он не пришёл, потому что был болен* illustrates:
- a) Coordination
 - b) Subordination
 - c) Ellipsis
 - d) Apposition

Lecture 8. Typology of Phrases, Word combinations, Sentences in English, Uzbek, and Russian Languages

Lecture Plan

1. Definition and Scope of Phrasal and Sentential Typology
2. The Structure of Word Combinations (Phrases)
3. Typology of Head–Dependent Relations
4. Classification of Phrases: Nominal, Verbal, Adjectival, Adverbial
5. Typology of Sentences: Simple, Compound, Complex
6. Word Order and Hierarchical Relations within Sentences
7. Isomorphic and Allomorphic Features

Keywords: *phrase, head-initial, head-final, sentence types, agreement, NP*

Pedagogical Relevance of Comparative typology at the *syntactic–phrasal level* investigates how different languages build and organize multi-word structures—*phrases* and *sentences*—to express grammatical and semantic relationships. Since syntax represents the structural expression of meaning, the typological study of phrasal and sentential patterns reveals both *universal principles* and *language-specific realizations* (Croft 212; Dryer 2013).

1. Definition and Scope of Phrasal and Sentential Typology

A *phrase* or *word combination* is a syntactic unit consisting of two or more words that function as a single constituent. Typologically, languages differ in how they express relationships between **head** (the central word) and **dependent** (the modifier). The comparison of English, Uzbek, and Russian shows variation in *word order, agreement, and functional markers* (Alimova and Rasulov 67).

A *sentence*, by contrast, is the highest syntactic unit that expresses a complete thought. Comparative sentence typology examines how languages organize simple and complex propositions, focusing on *coordination*, *subordination*, and *information structure*.

2. The Structure of Word Combinations (Phrases)

Phrases vary by grammatical head:

- Noun phrase (NP): *a beautiful garden*, *chiroyli bog*, красивый сад
- Verb phrase (VP): *is reading*, *o‘qiyapti*, читаем
- Adjective phrase (AdjP): *very kind*, *juda mehribon*, очень добрый
- Adverbial phrase (AdvP): *quite slowly*, *juda sekin*, довольно медленно

Typologically:

- English is a *head-initial* language (head precedes dependents).
- Uzbek is a *head-final* language (modifier precedes head).
- Russian is intermediate but often *head-initial* like English, depending on emphasis (Song 2012).

Phrase Type	English Order	Uzbek Order	Russian Order
Noun Phrase	Adj + Noun (<i>red flower</i>)	Noun + Adj (<i>gul qizil</i>)	Adj + Noun (<i>красный цветок</i>)
Verb Phrase	Aux + Verb (<i>is reading</i>)	Verb + Suffix (<i>o‘qiyapti</i>)	Verb + Aspect (<i>читает</i>)
Adjective Phrase	Adv + Adj (<i>very good</i>)	Adv + Adj (<i>juda yaxshi</i>)	Adv + Adj (<i>очень хороший</i>)

This demonstrates that *English* and *Russian* share similar syntactic phrase structures, whereas *Uzbek* reverses the typical order—an example of a *typological mirror pattern*.

3. Typology of Head–Dependent Relations

Head–dependent structure determines *syntactic directionality* (Dryer 1992).

- English: *head-initial* (*the book on the table*).
- Uzbek: *head-final* (*stol ustidagi kitob* “table-on book”).
- Russian: *mixed*, allowing both (*книга на столе*).

This head–dependent relationship explains preposition vs. postposition systems:

- English: *in the house* (preposition before noun).
- Uzbek: *uyda* (“house-in”, postposition realized as case suffix).
- Russian: *в доме* (“in house”, preposition + noun with case marking).

Thus, English expresses relations *analytically*, Uzbek *synthetically*, and Russian *hybridly*.

4. Classification of Phrases

Each phrase type demonstrates specific typological behavior:

Nominal Phrases (NPs):

- English: modifiers precede head (*a big red car*).
- Uzbek: modifiers follow logical order but precede noun (*katta qizil mashina*).
- Russian: adjectives agree in gender, number, and case (*большая красная машина*).

Verbal Phrases (VPs):

- English: auxiliary + main verb (*is working*).
- Uzbek: synthetic form with inflection (*ishlayapti*).
- Russian: analytic or synthetic (*работает, будет работать*).

Adjectival and Adverbial Phrases:

The structure is largely similar across languages, indicating universal tendencies (Cinque 2010).

5. Typology of Sentences: Simple, Compound, Complex

Typologically, sentence structure depends on how propositions combine.

- Simple sentences: one predicative center.

→ *The boy is playing.* / *Bola o 'ynayapti.* / *Мальчик играет.*

- Compound sentences: coordination of clauses.

→ *She came and sat down.* / *U keldi va o 'tirdi.* / *Она пришла и села.*

- Complex sentences: subordination.

→ *I know that he came.* / *Men uning kelganini bilaman.* / *Я знаю, что он пришёл.*

Uzbek and Russian often use participial constructions instead of relative clauses:

- *The man who came yesterday* → *Kecha kelgan odam* / *Человек, пришедший вчера.*

These forms are morphologically rich, unlike English's analytic relative pronouns.

6. Word Order and Hierarchical Relations within Sentences

Word order in phrases reflects sentence-level organization. English exhibits *strict hierarchy*:

- Subject precedes predicate, modifiers follow heads.

Uzbek and Russian allow rearrangement for stylistic or emphatic reasons.

Example (focus shift):

- English: *Only John saw Mary.*

- Uzbek: *Faqat Jon Maryamni ko‘rdi.* (Focus via position)
- Russian: *Только Джон видел Марию.* (Flexible order for emphasis).

Information structure (topic–comment, focus–background) thus differs typologically but functions universally to manage communicative intent (Givón 2001).

7. Isomorphic and Allomorphic Features

Feature	English	Uzbek	Russian	Typological Observation
Word order in NP	Adj + N	N + Adj	Adj + N	Allomorphic
Preposition/Postposition	Preposition	Postposition	Preposition	Allomorphic
Relative clause type	Analytic	Participial	Participial	Allomorphic
Coordination	Conjunction	Conjunction	Conjunction	Isomorphic
Sentence hierarchy	Fixed	Flexible	Flexible	Allomorphic
Modifier agreement	Absent	Minimal	Extensive	Allomorphic

These patterns reveal that despite structural diversity, the *semantic organization of phrases and sentences* follows universal syntactic functions: modification, predication, and coordination.

8. Pedagogical Relevance

For language teaching, recognizing phrase and sentence typology helps learners master *word order* and *clause connection*.

- Uzbek learners of English must internalize head-initial structures and prepositional patterns.

- English learners of Uzbek need to adapt to postpositional and modifier-final syntax.
- Russian learners can transfer some structures but must avoid overusing free order in English.

Teachers can employ *sentence-restructuring* and *phrase-building tasks* to enhance comparative awareness (Rasulova and Shukurova 48; Dryer 2013).

Questions for Self-Control

1. What defines a phrase typologically?
2. How do English phrase structures differ from Uzbek?
3. What is head-initial vs. head-final?
4. How do Russian noun phrases show agreement?
5. How do languages express attributive relations?
6. What types of sentences exist?
7. What distinguishes simple, compound, and complex sentences?
8. How does phrase order influence meaning?

Topics for Self-Study

1. Head directionality parameters
2. Comparative analysis of NP structure
3. Sentence types across the world
4. Attributive constructions in grammar

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Seminar 8. Typology of Phrases, Word combinations, Sentences in English, Uzbek, and Russian Languages

1. Discussion Questions

1. Answer following questions

1. What is the difference between a phrase and a sentence in linguistic typology?
2. How do English, Uzbek, and Russian classify and form phrases?
3. What are the main types of phrases in each language (noun, verb, adjective, prepositional, adverbial)?
4. How does word order influence the internal structure of a phrase?
5. Which language relies more heavily on prepositions or postpositions, and why?
6. How do agreement and government operate in multi-word combinations in each language?
7. What are the structural and semantic differences between free word combinations and set phrases?
8. How is modification expressed in noun phrases (e.g., “a beautiful girl,” “chiroyli qiz,” “красивая девушка”)?
9. How do phrases develop into full sentences in analytic vs. synthetic languages?
10. What are the typical sentence types (simple, compound, complex) across English, Uzbek, and Russian?
11. How does sentence length and structure reflect typological tendencies?

12. What are common translation difficulties related to phrases and sentence patterns?

2. Interactive Comprehension Activities

2. Comparative Overview of Phrase Types. Discuss how morphology and syntax interact in each example.

Phrase Type	English Example	Uzbek Example	Russian Example
Noun Phrase	<i>a red car</i>	<i>qizil mashina</i>	<i>красная машина</i>
Verb Phrase	<i>is reading</i>	<i>o‘qiyapti</i>	<i>читает</i>
Adjective Phrase	<i>very tall</i>	<i>juda baland</i>	<i>очень высокий</i>
Adverbial Phrase	<i>quite quickly</i>	<i>juda tez</i>	<i>довольно быстро</i>
Prepositional/Postpositional	<i>in the house</i>	<i>uyda</i>	<i>в доме</i>

2. Match following terms with their definitions

Term	Definition
1. Phrase	a. Group with subject and predicate but not always independent
2. Clause	b. Combination of words functioning as one grammatical unit
3. Sentence	c. Dependence of one element’s form on another
4. Agreement	d. Change of meaning through descriptive elements
5. Government	e. Complete thought, may contain one or more clauses

6. Modification	f. Grammatical harmony between related words
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3. Phrasal Structure Comparison. Draw a *three-way chart* illustrating the structure of noun phrases in English, Uzbek, and Russian.

Example (for "a beautiful girl"):

Language	Order of Elements	Grammatical Markers
English	Determiner + Adjective + Noun	Article (<i>a</i>) before noun
Uzbek	Adjective + Noun	No article; word order fixed
Russian	Adjective + Noun	Gender and case agreement (<i>красивая девушка</i>)

4. Word Combination Classification Task. Identify whether the following combinations are *free*, *fixed*, or *idiomatic*:

Expression	Type	Language
<i>strong tea</i>	—	English
<i>qattiq choy</i>	—	Uzbek
<i>сильный чай</i>	—	Russian
<i>kick the bucket</i>	—	English
<i>qo'l berish</i>	—	Uzbek
<i>бить баклуши</i>	—	Russian

3. Practical Activities

5. Sentence Type Comparison Task. Identify the sentence type (simple, compound, complex) and translate into the other two languages.

Language	Sentence	Type
English	I know that he is coming.	Complex
Uzbek		
Russian		

Discussion:

- What syntactic devices signal subordination?
- How does word order shift across translations?

6. Phrase Expansion. Expand the following short phrases into full sentences in each language.

Phrase	Expanded English	Expanded Uzbek	Expanded Russian
a small town			
reading fast			

4. Independent Work (Homework)

Task 1: Write a 350–400-word comparative essay titled: “Typology of Phrases and Sentence Patterns in English, Uzbek, and Russian.”

Guidelines:

- Compare phrase order, structure, and modification.
- Include at least one example per phrase type (noun, verb, adjective, etc.).
- Discuss syntactic flexibility and its typological significance.

➤ Use one diagram or table for clarity.

5. Knowledge Check

1. The main difference between a phrase and a clause is that a clause:
 - a) Cannot function as a single unit
 - b) Always contains a finite verb
 - c) Lacks meaning
 - d) Has no grammatical role
2. English uses primarily **prepositions**, while Uzbek and Russian use:
 - a) Articles
 - b) Postpositions or case endings
 - c) Particles
 - d) Conjunctions
3. The Uzbek phrase *qizil gul* corresponds structurally to which English phrase?
 - a) *the red flower*
 - b) *flower red*
 - c) *red the flower*
 - d) *of the flower red*
4. Which of the following is a **fixed phrase** rather than an idiom?
 - a) *kick the bucket*
 - b) *by and large*
 - c) *take into account*
 - d) *red tape*
5. The Russian adjective agrees with the noun in:
 - a) Gender, number, and case
 - b) Only gender

- c) Only number
 - d) None of the above
6. In English, word order is used to indicate:
- a) Grammatical relations
 - b) Intonation only
 - c) Aspectual contrast
 - d) Vowel reduction
7. The Uzbek structure *uyga kirish* (“enter the house”) demonstrates:
- a) Prepositional phrase
 - b) Postpositional structure
 - c) Verb-object agreement
 - d) Case government
8. In phrase typology, an *adjective phrase* modifies:
- a) Verbs
 - b) Nouns
 - c) Prepositions
 - d) Clauses



Lecture 9. Typology of Different Layers of Lexicon in English, Uzbek, and Russian Languages

Lecture Plan

1. The Nature and Scope of Lexical Typology
2. The Concept of Lexical Layers and Strata
3. Native, Borrowed, and International Vocabulary
4. Semantic Fields and Lexical Categorization
5. Typology of Word Meaning and Polysemy
6. Lexical Universals and Cultural Specificity
7. Isomorphic and Allomorphic Features of Lexical Systems
8. Pedagogical and Cross-Cultural Implications

Keywords: *native layer, borrowing, register, slang, internationalism, style*

1. The Nature and Scope of Lexical Typology

Lexical typology examines how different languages *organize, categorize, and develop their vocabulary*. It explores universal patterns and culture-specific distinctions in lexical semantics, word formation, and borrowing (Koptjevskaja-Tamm 2015).

In comparative perspective, the lexicon reflects not only linguistic structure but also *cultural worldview* — a mirror of how speakers conceptualize reality. English, Uzbek, and Russian display striking differences in lexical layering because of distinct *historical, cultural, and contact influences* (Rasulova and Shukurova 53).

2. The Concept of Lexical Layers and Strata

The *lexicon* of a language is not homogeneous. It consists of multiple *layers or strata*, which developed at different historical stages and through different sources. These layers typically include:

- ✓ Native words – inherited or originally formed within the language.
- ✓ Borrowed words – adopted from other languages.
- ✓ International words – shared across languages due to scientific or cultural exchange.

Each of the three languages demonstrates different proportions of these layers, reflecting historical and sociolinguistic development (Alimova and Rasulov 71).

Language	Native Layer (%)	Borrowed Layer (%)	Major Sources of Borrowing
English	~30%	~70%	French, Latin, Greek, Norse
Uzbek	~60%	~40%	Arabic, Persian, Russian, English
Russian	~65%	~35%	Old Church Slavonic, French, English

The comparison shows that English is the most *lexically hybrid*, while Uzbek and Russian retain stronger *native cores* but also show cultural borrowing patterns.

3. Native, Borrowed, and International Vocabulary

- English: its lexicon expanded massively through contact — Old Norse (everyday words: *sky, take*), Norman French (*court, beauty*), Latin/Greek (*education, philosophy*).
- Uzbek: Arabic and Persian influenced religious and scholarly vocabulary (*ilm, ma'rifat, dars*), while Russian and English added modern technical terms (*kompyuter, telefon*).
- Russian: absorbed Church Slavonic (*глава, благой*), French (*бульвар, меню*), and English borrowings (*интернет, бизнес*).

International vocabulary (e.g., *hotel, taxi, computer, sport*) forms a global layer that bridges linguistic boundaries. However, pronunciation and morphology often adapt to native systems (*kompyuter, спорт*)(Аракин, В.Д. 2000).

4. Semantic Fields and Lexical Categorization

Languages divide meaning into *semantic fields* differently (Lyons 1977). For example, the English word *brother* has a single form, while Uzbek distinguishes *aka* (older brother) and *uka* (younger brother), and Russian uses *брат* universally. This demonstrates *semantic differentiation* in Uzbek.

Color terms also illustrate lexical typology:

- English: *blue* covers dark and light shades.
- Russian: distinguishes *синий* (dark blue) and *голубой* (light blue).
- Uzbek: *ko 'k* means both “blue” and “green” depending on context.

These examples show that *lexical categorization* depends on cultural perception and linguistic tradition (Wierzbicka 1996).

5. Typology of Word Meaning and Polysemy

All three languages demonstrate *polysemy*—one word having several meanings—but differ in its productivity.

- English polysemy is extensive (*head*: of a person, organization, bed, etc.).
- Uzbek and Russian have more restricted polysemous structures due to derivational richness.

Homonymy and *synonymy* also show typological variation. English synonyms often derive from multiple sources (*ask–question–interrogate* from Germanic, French, Latin origins). Uzbek and Russian synonyms are

primarily created through affixation or borrowing (*katta* – *ulkan*, *большой* – *огромный*).

6. Lexical Universals and Cultural Specificity

Certain semantic domains—such as body parts, family terms, colors, and natural phenomena—are *lexical universals* present in all languages (Berlin and Kay 1969).

However, *culture-specific vocabulary* marks allomorphic features:

- Uzbek: *mahalla*, *dasturxon*, *navruz* (reflecting local traditions).
- Russian: *samovar*, *dacha*, *troika* (cultural identity symbols).
- English: *pub*, *parliament*, *gentleman* (historical–social concepts).

Lexical typology thus links *language and culture*, showing how each lexicon encodes collective experience and national worldview (Wierzbicka 2006).

7. Isomorphic and Allomorphic Features of Lexical Systems

Feature	English	Uzbek	Russian	Typological Note
Lexical origin	Mixed	Predominantly native	Predominantly native	Allomorphic
Borrowing sources	French, Latin	Arabic, Persian, Russian	French, Church Slavonic	Allomorphic
Semantic transparency	Often opaque	Transparent	Moderate	Allomorphic
Polysemy degree	High	Moderate	Moderate	Allomorphic
Lexical	Present	Present	Present	Isomorphic

universals				
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8. Pedagogical and Cross-Cultural Implications

For EFL and comparative linguistics students, understanding lexical typology enhances *semantic awareness, translation accuracy, and cultural competence*.

- Uzbek learners of English must handle synonymy and polysemy carefully to avoid misuse.
- English learners of Uzbek or Russian benefit from learning morphological transparency.
- Comparative lexical exercises strengthen understanding of *semantic nuance and etymological origin* (Croft 2011; Alimova and Rasulov 72).

Questions for Self-Control

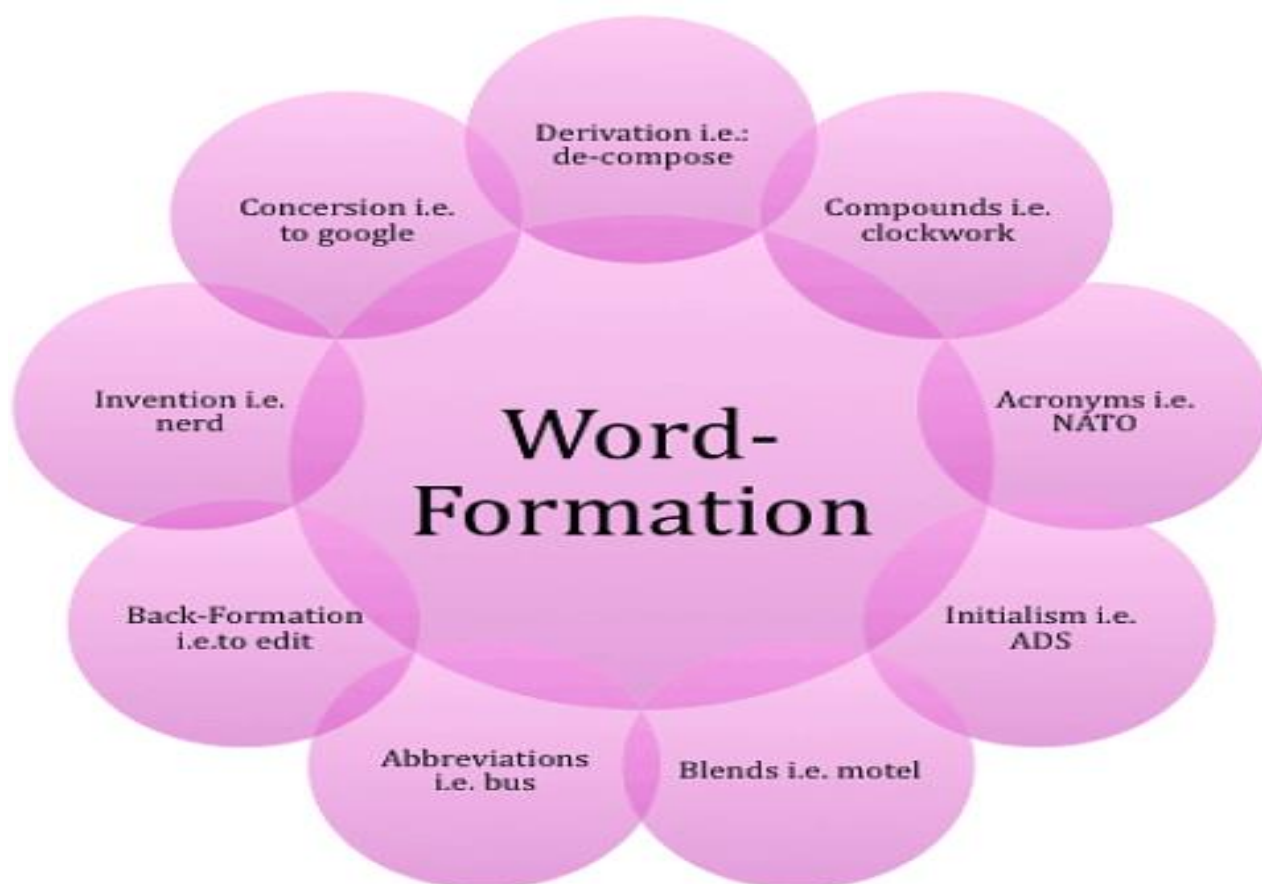
1. What is meant by "layers of lexicon"?
2. What is the native layer in each language?
3. How do borrowings differ historically?
4. What are internationalisms?
5. What is the stylistic layer of vocabulary?
6. How do registers vary across languages?
7. What are archaic and obsolete words?
8. How do slang and colloquial words differ?

Topics for Self-Study

1. Borrowing layers in world languages
2. Stylistic stratification of vocabulary
3. Historical development of word stock
4. Colloquial vs. literary lexicon

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Seminar 9. Typology of Different Layers of Lexicon in English, Uzbek, and Russian Languages

1. Discussion Questions

1. Answer following questions

1. What is the lexicon, and how is it structured in different languages?
2. What are the main layers of vocabulary in English, Uzbek, and Russian?
3. How do native, borrowed, and international words interact within a language's lexicon?
4. What historical and cultural factors have shaped the lexical composition of English, Uzbek, and Russian?
5. How does semantic field theory help classify lexical layers?
6. Which language exhibits the highest percentage of loanwords, and why?
7. What are core vocabulary and peripheral vocabulary, and how do they differ?
8. How can lexical typology reflect cultural identity and worldview?
9. What is the role of neologisms and obsolete words in modern lexicon typology?
10. How do Uzbek and Russian borrowings differ in their adaptation processes?
11. What are examples of false friends or semantic shifts among these languages?

12. Why is understanding lexical layers important for translation and EFL teaching?

2. Interactive Comprehension Activities

2. Comparative Overview of Lexical Layers

Lexical Layer	English Example	Uzbek Example	Russian Example
Native/Core Vocabulary	<i>sun, mother, eat</i>	<i>ona, yer, suv</i>	<i>мать, дом, вода</i>
Borrowed Words	<i>ballet, cuisine</i> (French)	<i>telefon, kompyuter</i> (Russian/English)	<i>футбол, менеджер</i> (English)
Internationalisms	<i>bank, internet</i>	<i>internet, bank</i>	<i>банк, интернет</i>
Dialect/Regional Words	<i>wee</i> (Scottish)	<i>bola</i> (dialect)	<i>хата</i> (Ukrainian origin)
Archaic Words	<i>thou, thee</i>	<i>anda</i>	<i>въездъ</i> (old orthography)

3. Match following lexical concepts and definitions

Concept	Definition
1. Borrowing	a. Word no longer in active use
2. Neologism	b. Word common across several languages
3. Archaism	c. Word adopted from another language
4. Semantic Shift	d. Similar form but different meaning in two languages
5. Internationalism	e. Newly created or recently introduced word

6. False Friend	f. Change in meaning over time
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4. Vocabulary Layers Pyramid. Draw a *pyramid diagram* representing vocabulary layers in each language.

- Base: *Native/Core words* (most frequent and stable)
- Middle: *Borrowings* (historical and modern)
- Top: *Neologisms and internationalisms* (dynamic layer)

→ Label examples from English (*computer*), Uzbek (*telefon*), and Russian (*интернет*).

5. Lexical Categorization Task. Sort the following words according to their lexical layer:

Word	Language	Category
<i>telephone</i>	English	—
<i>mehtomxona</i>	Uzbek	—
<i>магазин</i>	Russian	—
<i>academy</i>	English	—
<i>choy</i>	Uzbek	—
<i>спутник</i>	Russian	—

3. Practical Activities

6. Lexical Borrowing Analysis (Group Task). Identify five borrowed words in each language and trace their origin and adaptation.

Language	Borrowed Word	Source Language	Adaptation Example
English	<i>piano</i>	Italian	retained spelling

Uzbek	<i>bank</i>	English	phonetic adaptation (<i>bank</i>)
Russian	<i>компьютер</i>	English	phonetic + orthographic integration
English			
Uzbek			
Russian			

Discussion:

- ~ Which borrowed words retain their original meaning?
- ~ Which have changed semantically?

7. Comparative Lexical Field Task. Create a *semantic field map* for “education” in the three languages. Include both native and borrowed words.

English	Uzbek	Russian

→ Highlight overlapping terms and discuss lexical gaps (concepts present in one language but missing in others).

4. Independent Work (Homework)

Task 1: Write a 350–400-word essay titled: “Lexical Layers and Borrowing in English, Uzbek, and Russian: A Typological Perspective.”

Guidelines:

- ✓ Analyze native, borrowed, and international words.

- ✓ Discuss the influence of contact with Arabic, Persian, Turkic, and European languages.
- ✓ Provide at least two examples per lexical category.
- ✓ Include one in-text citation (MLA style).

5. Knowledge Check

1. Which lexical layer forms the foundation of every language?
 - a) Borrowed vocabulary
 - b) Core/native vocabulary
 - c) Technical vocabulary
 - d) Archaic vocabulary
2. The English word *ballet* originated from:
 - a) French
 - b) German
 - c) Latin
 - d) Greek
3. The Uzbek word *telefon* and the Russian *телефон* are examples of:
 - a) Archaisms
 - b) Borrowings
 - c) Dialectisms
 - d) Neologisms
4. The process of meaning change over time is called:
 - a) Polysemy
 - b) Semantic shift
 - c) Derivation
 - d) Lexical interference

5. Which language has the highest number of internationalisms due to global influence?
- a) English
 - b) Uzbek
 - c) Russian
 - d) All equally
6. The Uzbek compound *mehmonxona* (“hotel”) is composed of:
- a) Prefix + root
 - b) Two native roots
 - c) Root + suffix
 - d) Loan + prefix
7. The Russian word *врач* (doctor) replaced the old form *лекарь*. This illustrates:
- a) Borrowing
 - b) Archaism
 - c) Neologism
 - d) Semantic broadening
8. In typological comparison, **lexical gaps** occur when:
- a) Words lose grammatical function
 - b) A concept exists in one language but not in another
 - c) Borrowed words dominate the lexicon
 - d) Word order changes

Lecture 10. Typology of Lexical Level of English, Uzbek, and Russian

Lecture Plan

1. Nature and Scope of Lexical Typology
2. Word as a Lexical Unit: Cross-Linguistic Features
3. Lexical Semantics and Conceptualization
4. Isomorphism and Allomorphy in Lexicon
5. Borrowings, Loan Translations, and Internationalisms
6. Lexical Fields and Cultural-Semantic Categories
7. Conclusion

Keywords: *lexicon, categories, semantic field, metaphor, kinship, extension*

Lexical typology constitutes a significant branch of comparative linguistics that investigates cross-linguistic similarities and differences at the level of vocabulary. While phonological and grammatical typology focus on structural forms, lexical typology examines how languages categorize, label, and conceptualize the world through words and meanings. As Croft notes, lexicon reflects the deepest layers of cultural cognition, because every linguistic community “chooses its own way of partitioning experience” (Croft 78).

In multilingual contexts such as Uzbekistan, understanding lexical typology is crucial for translation, language teaching, and cross-cultural communication.

1. Nature and Scope of Lexical Typology

Lexical typology studies the classification of lexical units according to semantic and structural principles across languages. Its main tasks include:

1. Identifying universal lexical categories (e.g., kinship, color terms).
2. Analyzing language-specific lexicalization patterns.
3. Comparing semantic fields across languages.
4. Studying word-formation behavior and lexical productivity.
5. Investigating cultural concepts embedded in vocabulary (Rasulova & Shukurova 59).

English, Uzbek, and Russian, though belonging to different families (Germanic, Turkic, Slavic), demonstrate both isomorphic tendencies and clear divergences in their vocabulary systems.

2. Word as a Lexical Unit: Cross-Linguistic Features

According to Crystal, the word is “the smallest freely usable linguistic form” (Crystal 512). Typological analysis shows:

- English: predominantly one-root lexemes; analytic; compounding highly productive.
- Uzbek: agglutinative; word = root + multiple derivational/inflectional affixes.
- Russian: fusional; roots often combine with fusional morphemes; complex inflection.

Despite these structural differences, all three languages maintain basic lexical categories such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

3. Lexical Semantics and Conceptualization

Languages differ in how they carve up semantic space. Examples:

- Color terms: Uzbek *havorang* vs. Russian *золотой* vs. English *sky blue*.

- Kinship terms: Uzbek distinguishes *amakī / tog‘a*; English = uncle.
- Motion verbs: English encodes manner (*run, slide, crawl*), while Russian and Uzbek often encode path (*идти / kelmoq*)(Расулова М.И. 2005.).

These differences illustrate the typological principle that “lexicon mirrors cultural cognition” (Salnikova 44).

4. Isomorphism and Allomorphy in Lexicon

Isomorphic Features:

- ~ Presence of basic semantic fields (animals, kinship, body parts, colors)(Яхина Рузиля, 2022).
- ~ Use of metaphor for abstract concepts (English *foot of mountain* = Russian *подножие* = Uzbek *tog‘ etagi*).

Allomorphic Features:

- ~ English articles create lexicalized distinctions absent in Uzbek and Russian.
- ~ Uzbek has extensive agglutinative derivatives (*kitobxon, yozuvchi*), whereas English prefers compounding.
- ~ Russian aspectual pairs (*делать—сделать*) have no direct lexical analogue in English or Uzbek.

5. Borrowings, Loan Translations, and Internationalisms

All three languages share numerous international terms: *telefon, universitet, politika*, etc.

Borrowing patterns differ:

- English: massive borrowing from French and Latin.
- Russian: heavy borrowings from French, German, and English in modern era.

- Uzbek: historically influenced by Arabic-Persian, then Russian; currently English.

Loan translations (calques) such as Uzbek *oyna himoyasi* (screen protector) or Russian *мировоззрение* reflect typological adaptation.

6. Lexical Fields and Cultural-Semantic Categories

Some lexical areas are culturally shaped:

- Uzbek agricultural lexicon (*qovun turlari*) richer than English.
- English technological vocabulary more extensive.
- Russian emotional lexicon (*тоска, разлука, уныние*) culturally nuanced.

Comparative typology explains why certain concepts require multiword expressions in one language and a single lexeme in another.

7. Conclusion

Lexical typology reveals how languages encode shared human experiences through culturally grounded vocabulary. Studying English, Uzbek, and Russian lexicons develops intercultural awareness and supports teaching, translation, and lexicography.

Questions for Self-Control

1. What is lexical typology?
2. How do languages categorize meaning?
3. What is a lexical gap?
4. How does culture affect lexicon?
5. What are kinship terms?
6. How do motion verbs differ?
7. What is semantic extension?
8. How do metaphor systems vary?

Seminar 10. Typology of Lexical Level of English, Uzbek, and Russian Languages

1. Discussion Questions

1. What aspects of vocabulary do you consider most important in lexical typology?
2. How do cultural factors influence the lexicon of a language?
3. Why do English motion verbs differ fundamentally from Russian and Uzbek ones?
4. Identify examples of isomorphic lexical items in English, Uzbek, and Russian.
5. Identify allomorphic pairs that have no equivalent in another language.
6. Why are kinship terms often culturally specific?
7. What semantic fields are most developed in each of the three languages?
8. How does borrowing contribute to lexical typology?
9. Can two languages have similar lexicons despite different grammatical structures?
10. What challenges do translators face when dealing with culturally bound vocabulary?
11. How do metaphorical extensions differ across the three languages?
12. Why is lexical typology important in multilingual countries?

2. Interactive Comprehension Activities

2. Fill in the table about Lexical typology:

LEXICAL TYPOLOGY

Subject Matter	Objectives	Methods	Applications
Meaning,	Identify universals...	Cross-linguistic comparison...	Translation, ...

3. Match the Terms with their Definitions

Term	Definition
1. Semantic field	a. Words borrowed from other languages
2. Cultural lexicon	b. Thematic vocabulary group
3. Loanword	c. Lexicon shaped by culture
4. Lexicalization pattern	d. How languages encode concepts e. Shared global vocabulary
5. Internationalism	

4. Fill in details following lexical categories table

Language	Example of Borrowing	Culturally bound word	Missing Category / Gap
English			
Uzbek			
Russian			

3. Practical Activities

5. Compare lexicalization of “*snow*,” “*bread*,” and “*travel*” in English, Uzbek, Russian. The first is done as sample:

Lexicalization of	English	Uzbek	Russian
“SNOW”	Core lexeme: snow (noun/verb). Derivatives: <i>snowy</i>, <i>snowfall</i>, <i>snowflake</i>, <i>snowstorm</i>, <i>snowman</i>. Semantic scope: The concept is lexicalized through descriptive compounds and derivational morphology. Cultural salience: High (climate-related), but not as culturally central as in Russian.	Core lexeme: qor (noun). Derivatives: qorli “snowy,” qorbo‘ron “snowfall,” qor uyumi “snow pile,” qor yog‘moq “to snow.” Semantic scope: Uzbek uses agglutinative morphology to expand meaning. Cultural salience: Moderate—snow exists but is less culturally symbolic	Core lexeme: снег (sneg). Extensive derivatives: снежный (snowy), снежинка (snowflake), снеговик (snowman), снегопад (snowfall), сугробы (snowdrifts), метель (snowstorm), пурга (blizzard). Semantic scope: Very rich; shows high lexical elaboration due to climate. Cultural salience: Very high—snow is central to seasonal life → more lexical distinctions.
“ <i>bread</i> ,”			

<i>“travel”</i>			

6. Identify Borrowing Sources and Classify Each Borrowing:

1. *kitob* → _____
2. *restaurant* → _____
3. *вокзал* → _____
4. *telefon* → _____

C. Group Discussion

“Do lexical differences reflect cultural worldview?”

4. Independent Work (Homework)

Task 1: Short Essay (250–300 words)

Topic: *Lexical Universals and Cultural Specificity in English, Uzbek, and Russian.*

Task 2: Knowledge Check

1. Lexical typology focuses on:

- a) sounds
- b) vocabulary
- c) syntax
- d) morphology

2. A culturally bound term is:

- a) uncle
- b) sushi
- c) tree
- d) student

3. Loanwords are:

- a) unique to one language
- b) borrowed items
- c) created internally
- d) idioms

4. Internationalisms include:

- a) *telefon*
- b) *qovun*
- c) *баяги*
- d) *thou*

5. Lexical gaps occur when:

- a) no single word exists
- b) grammar is complex
- c) pronunciation changes.

Lecture 11. Comparative analysis of English, Uzbek, and Russian Languages Word Stock and Word Formation Types

Lecture Plan

1. Structure and Composition of Word Stock
2. Native vs. Borrowed Vocabulary
3. Word Formation Systems: Typological Overview
4. Derivation and Affixation Patterns
5. Compounding, Conversion, and Reduplication
6. Productivity and Semantic Extension
7. Conclusion

Keywords: *word stock, derivation, prefixation, suffixation, compounding, neologism*

Comparative analysis of word stock and word formation reveals how different languages expand their lexicons through internal and external means. While English, Uzbek, and Russian belong to distinct typological groups, their word-formation mechanisms demonstrate universal principles and language-specific strategies. According to Comrie, every language “maintains a balance between inherited vocabulary and productive derivation” (Comrie 102).

1. Structure and Composition of Word Stock

Each language’s lexicon consists of:

- Native layer (oldest inherited words).
- Borrowed layer (foreign words integrated over time).
- Neologisms (newly created words).

English: Germanic core + Romance borrowings.

Uzbek: Turkic core + Arabic, Persian, Russian, English loans.

Russian: Slavic core + French, German, Greek, English loans.

2. Native vs. Borrowed Vocabulary

Native vocabulary tends to be stable and basic (body parts, kinship, nature).

Borrowings often cover:

- Science & technology (English → Uzbek/Russian).
- Administration, culture (Russian → Uzbek).
- Religion, philosophy (Arabic/Persian → Uzbek).

3. Word Formation Systems: Typological Overview

English – analytic

- Highly productive compounding, conversion, affixation.
- Tends to express grammatical relationships outside the word.

Uzbek – agglutinative

- Word = stem + multiple transparent affixes.
- Derivation and inflection both affix-based.

Russian – fusional

- Derivation with root-and-pattern alternations.
- Mixed affixation + stem alternation + inflectional fusion.

4. Derivation and Affixation Patterns

Language	Derivational Features	Examples
English	prefixes & suffixes; conversion	<i>un-happy, teach-er, to google</i>
Uzbek	rich suffixation; derivation productive	<i>yoʻz-uvchi, oʻqit-uvchi, doʻst-lik</i>
Russian	suffixes, prefixes, interfixes;	<i>пере-делать, бел-ый,</i>

	alternations	<i>студ-ент-ка</i>
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Uzbek possesses more transparent affix boundaries; Russian often shows stem alternation (*пука* → *ручной*). English uses conversion (*to bottle* → *a bottle*)—absent in Uzbek/Russian.

5. Compounding, Conversion, and Reduplication

Compounding

- English: very productive (*blackboard, smartphone*).
- Uzbek: productive (*qo'isoat, ishbilarmon*).
- Russian: less common (*железнодорожный* is more affix-compounding).

Conversion

- Only English: *face* → *to face*; *email* → *to email*.

Reduplication

- Uzbek: frequent (*qip-qizil, yam-yashil*).
- Russian: marginal.
- English: limited (*teeny-tiny*).

6. Productivity and Semantic Extension

Languages differ in:

- Type of productive processes.
- Extent of metaphorical or metonymic extension (*mouse* → *computer mouse* in English).
- Borrowing vs. derivation preference.

Uzbek often derives new meanings through suffixation (*o'quvchi* → *o'quvchilik*). Russian uses prefixation to create aspectual nuances. English

prefers compounding + conversion for neologisms (*download, upload, screenshot*).

7. Conclusion

Word stock and word formation typology reveal both universal mechanisms and language-specific preferences. These insights deepen linguistic competence, support translation, and enhance teaching of English, Uzbek, and Russian.

Questions for Self-Control

1. What makes up the word stock of a language?
2. What are main word-formation types?
3. Why is English compounding productive?
4. What affix types dominate Uzbek word formation?
5. How does Russian use prefixation and suffixation?
6. What is conversion?
7. How are neologisms created?
8. How do languages differ in derivation productivity?

Topics for Self-Study

1. Neologisms across languages
2. Compounding vs. affixation
3. Stem alternation
4. Borrowed word formation

Seminar 11. Comparative analysis of English, Uzbek, and Russian Languages Word Stock and Word Formation Types

1. Discussion Questions

1. What distinguishes native and borrowed vocabulary in the three languages?
2. Why does Uzbek contain so many Arabic and Persian loanwords?
3. Which language has the most productive compounding system? Why?
4. Why is conversion absent in Uzbek and Russian but central in English?
5. Compare Russian and Uzbek affixation: What similarities exist?
6. What roles do word-formation patterns play in lexical expansion?
7. Why does Russian exhibit stem alternation during derivation?
8. Identify examples of English words formed by conversion.
9. Discuss reasons for the rapid growth of English borrowings in Uzbek.
10. What morphological features influence derivation productivity?
11. Which word-formation type best reflects cultural change?
12. Provide three Uzbek and Russian suffixes and their meanings.

2. Interactive Comprehension Activities

2. Match the Terms with Their Definitions

Term	Definition
1. Conversion	a. Repetition-based formation
2. Reduplication	b. Root-altering derivation
3. Borrowing	c. Using a word in a new part of speech
4. Alternation	d. Adopting foreign word

5. Compounding	e. Combining two stems
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3. Complete Following Word Formation Table

Language	Affix Example	Compound Example	Borrowed Word
English			
Uzbek			
Russian			

4. Identify Formation Type: Determine whether each is *derivation*, *compounding*, or *conversion*:

1. *yozuvchi* → _____
2. *smartphone* → _____
3. *run (v)* → *run (n)* → _____
4. *студентка* → _____
5. *qip-qizil* → _____

3. Practical Activities

5. Fill in the table by comparing English, Uzbek, and Russian according to the four linguistic features listed. Use the guidelines below for each section

Feature	English	Uzbek	Russian
Morphological Type			
Dominant Word-Formation			
Key Affixes			

Typical Neologisms			
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Guidelines:

1. Morphological Type

Describe the general morphological classification of each language:

- Is the language analytic, agglutinative, or synthetic/fusional?
- Mention how words typically form and express grammatical meaning.

2. Dominant Word-Formation

Identify the most common and productive word-formation processes in each language, such as:

- Derivation (affixation)
- Compounding
- Conversion
- Reduplication
- Inflection-based formation

Specify which ones are most characteristic for each language.

3. Key Affixes

List several important and frequently used derivational affixes for each language:

- Prefixes and suffixes used to create new lexical items
(e.g., *un-*, *-ness* in English; *-chi*, *-lik* in Uzbek; *nepe-*, *-ocmь* in Russian)

Do not list grammatical (inflectional) endings—only derivational ones.

4. Typical Neologisms

Provide 2–3 examples of newly formed or modern words in each language.

These may include:

- Technological terms
- Borrowings with local affixation
- Blends or abbreviations

Explain briefly how each neologism was formed.

6. Group Research Task: Analyze 10 modern neologisms (e.g., *selfie*, *блогер*, *kiberxavfsizlik*). Classify each by formation type.

4. Independent Work (Homework)

Task 1: Essay (250–300 words) Topic: *Productive Word-Formation Models in English, Uzbek, and Russian.*

Task 2: Knowledge Check

1. Conversion is typical for:
 - a) English
 - b) Uzbek
 - c) Russian
2. Agglutinative suffixation characterizes:
 - a) English
 - b) Uzbek
 - c) Russian
3. Russian *белый* → *белить* illustrates:
 - a) compounding
 - b) alternation
 - c) reduplication
4. *Qizil-qizil* is:
 - a) derivation
 - b) compounding
 - c) reduplication
5. "Smartphone" is formed by:
 - a) conversion
 - b) compounding
 - c) affixation

Lecture 12. Typology of Phraseological Units in English, Uzbek, and Russian Languages

Lecture Plan

1. The Nature and Definition of Phraseological Units
2. Classifications of Phraseological Units
3. Structural and Semantic Features in English, Uzbek, and Russian
4. Typology of Idioms and Proverbs
5. Cultural and Cognitive Aspects
6. Isomorphic and Allomorphic Features
7. Pedagogical and Translational Implications

Keywords: *phraseology, idiom, proverb, calque, metaphor, stability*

1. The Nature and Definition of Phraseological Units

Phraseological units (PUs) are *stable combinations of words with partially or fully transferred meanings*. They form an integral part of the lexicon and reflect a language's *cultural, historical, and cognitive worldview* (Kunin 1996).

In comparative typology, phraseological systems are studied to identify *universal patterns of idiomaticity and language-specific imagery*. Phraseology serves as a bridge between *lexicon, syntax, and culture* (Rasulova and Shukurova 122).

2. Classifications of Phraseological Units

Following the classifications of Vinogradov (1947) and Cowie (2002), PUs can be divided into:

- Phraseological fusions: non-motivated, fixed units (*kick the bucket, ko‘z yumdi, сыграть в ящик*).

- Phraseological unities: partially motivated, figurative (*break the ice*, *muzni eritmoq*, *растопить лёд*).
- Phraseological collocations: semi-fixed, context-dependent (*strong tea*, *chuqur uyqu*, *глубокий сон*).

Typologically, English idioms tend to be metaphorical and analytic; Uzbek idioms are agglutinative and culturally rooted; Russian idioms are syntactically rich and often emotional in tone (Lutfullina 2017).

3. Structural and Semantic Features

Feature	English	Uzbek	Russian
Structure	Verb-based	Noun/verb-based	Verb-based
Transparency	Often opaque	Culturally transparent	Partially transparent
Imagery source	Daily life, body parts	Nature, religion, customs	Emotion, folklore
Word order	Fixed	Flexible	Flexible

Examples:

- ~ *To spill the beans* – *sirni oshkor qilmoq* – *раскрыть секрет*
- ~ *To hit the books* – *dars qilmoq* – *усердно заниматься*
- ~ *Once in a blue moon* – *kamdan-kam hollarda* – *раз в сто лет*

4. Typology of Idioms and Proverbs

Idioms reflect metaphorical thinking; proverbs encapsulate collective wisdom and moral norms. Cross-linguistic comparison reveals universal moral concepts expressed differently:

Meaning	English	Uzbek	Russian
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Hard work leads to success	No pain, no gain	Mehnat qilgan to'yadi	Без труда не вытащишь и рыбку из пруда
Time is valuable	Time is money	Vaqt oltin	Время – деньги
Similar people associate	Birds of a feather flock together	Qush uyasida ko'rganini qiladi	Скажи мне, кто твой друг, и я скажу, кто ты

These examples show *isomorphic features* (shared morals) and *allomorphic realizations* (cultural metaphors).

5. Cultural and Cognitive Aspects

Phraseology is deeply culture-specific.

- English idioms often derive from seafaring, literature, and industrial culture (*to show one's colors, to burn the midnight oil*).
- Uzbek idioms reflect nature, community, and Islamic culture (*boshini osmonga ko'tarmoq, tili uzun*).
- Russian idioms express emotion and moral judgment (*вешать нос, душа болит*).

According to Wierzbicka (2006), phraseological systems encode *cultural scripts* that reveal national ways of thinking and feeling.

6. Isomorphic and Allomorphic Features

Feature	English	Uzbek	Russian	Typological Comment
Degree of idiomaticity	High	Medium	High	Allomorphic

Cultural imagery	Industrial/literary	Religious/natural	Emotional/domestic	Allomorphic
Structure	Analytic	Synthetic	Synthetic	Allomorphic
Semantic transparency	Low	High	Medium	Allomorphic
Proverbs with moral lessons	Present	Present	Present	Isomorphic

7. Pedagogical and Translational Implications

Understanding phraseological typology enhances translation accuracy, idiom recognition, and cultural interpretation.

- Students should learn conceptual equivalence rather than literal translation.
- Comparative idiom study improves intercultural communicative competence.
- Teachers can use contextual games and mapping tools to reinforce learning (Dobrovol'skij and Piirainen 2005).

Questions for Self-Control

1. What are phraseological units?
2. What types exist in each language?
3. How do idioms differ culturally?
4. What are proverbs and sayings?
5. How stable are phraseological units?
6. How do metaphors shape idioms?
7. How do calques appear?

8. What is national-cultural specificity?

Topics for Self-Study

1. Proverbs and folk expressions
2. Idioms and metaphors
3. Culturally specific phraseology
4. Phraseology in translation

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Seminar 12. Typology of Phraseological Units in English, Uzbek, and Russian Languages

1. Discussion Questions

1. Answer following questions

1. What is a *phraseological unit* in linguistic typology?
2. How do phraseological systems differ across English, Uzbek, and Russian languages?
3. What are the main classifications of phraseological units?
4. How are idioms different from collocations and proverbs?
5. What are phraseological fusions, unities, and collocations according to Vinogradov's classification?
6. How does national culture shape idiomatic expressions?
7. Which phraseological units have exact or partial equivalents across these languages?
8. What role does metaphor and imagery play in idioms?
9. How does phraseology contribute to linguistic identity and worldview?
10. How do translation difficulties arise with idioms?
11. What are the main sources of idiomatic expressions in each language?
12. Why is phraseology an important aspect of comparative typology?

2. Interactive Comprehension Activities

2. Types of Phraseological Units (after Vinogradov, 1947). Fill in the table

Type	Definition	Example (English)	Uzbek Equivalent	Russian Equivalent
Phraseological Fusion				
Phraseological Unity				
Phraseological Collocation				

3. Match following phraseological units with their meanings

Phraseological Unit	Meaning
1. <i>Break the ice</i>	a. Study hard
2. <i>A piece of cake</i>	b. Feeling slightly ill
3. <i>Catch one's eye</i>	c. Reveal a secret
4. <i>Under the weather</i>	d. Something very easy
5. <i>Spill the beans</i>	e. Attract someone's attention
6. <i>Hit the books</i>	f. Begin a conversation in a tense situation

4. Cross-Linguistic Equivalence Chart. Fill in the chart by finding the closest Uzbek and Russian equivalents for each English idiom, and identify the type of equivalence (e.g., full, partial, or non-equivalent).

English Idiom	Uzbek Equivalent	Russian Equivalent	Type of Equivalence
<i>When pigs fly</i>			
<i>To kill two birds with one stone</i>			
<i>Let the cat out of the bag</i>			

5. Fill-in-the-Blank. Choose the Correct Idiom

1. When I met my professor for the first time, I tried to _____ by asking about her research.
2. The final exam was _____; I finished it in ten minutes.
3. Don't _____ — it's supposed to be a surprise party!
4. I think I'll stay home today; I'm feeling _____.
5. He finally decided to _____ and propose to her.

3. Practical Activities

6. Phraseological Equivalence Analysis (Group Task). Each group finds 5 idioms or set phrases from English, Uzbek, and Russian expressing similar meanings and continue to fill in the table. Discuss cultural imagery differences and literal-figurative shifts.

Example:

Meaning	English	Uzbek	Russian
To die	kick the bucket	ko‘z yumdi	сыграть в ящик
To reveal a secret	spill the beans	sirni ochmoq	раскрыть карты
To be lazy	take it easy	erinchoq bo‘lmoq	лодырничать
To be happy	on cloud nine	osmonda uchib yurmoq	на седьмом небе
To be silent	hold one’s tongue	tilini tishlamoq	держат язык за зубами

7. Idiom Quiz Café. Take part in a quick interactive **idiom quiz** where English idioms are presented with multiple-choice equivalents from Uzbek and Russian. Discuss how closely they match in meaning or imagery.

Instructions:

1. There are 6 English idioms with *three possible translations* in Uzbek and Russian.
2. Students *individually or in pairs* choose the best equivalent.
3. After revealing answers, briefly discuss which idioms are *literal*, *figurative*, or *culturally adapted*.

Example:

Idiom: “To kill two birds with one stone.”

Which is the best equivalent?

- a) Bitta o‘q bilan ikkita qushni urmoq
- b) Boshini devorga urmoq
- c) Mushukni xaltadan chiqarmoq

Correct: (a) → Literal equivalence in Uzbek and Russian.

1. Idiom: “When pigs fly.”

Which is the best equivalent?

- a) Qo‘y osmonda uchsa
- b) Mushukni xaltadan chiqarmoq
- c) Boshini devorga urmoq

2. Idiom: “Let the cat out of the bag.”

Which is the best equivalent?

- a) Sirni fosh etmoq

- b) Mushukni xaltaga solmoq
- c) Yelka qisib qo‘ymoq

3. Idiom: “Break the ice.”

Which is the best equivalent?

- a) Muzni eritmoq
- b) Muzlab qolmoq
- c) Suvni to‘ldirmoq

4. Idiom: “A piece of cake.”

Which is the best equivalent?

- a) Juda oson ish
- b) Og‘ir non
- c) Murakkab topshiriq

5. Idiom: “Once in a blue moon.”

Which is the best equivalent?

- a) Juda kam hollarda
- b) Har kuni
- c) Tez-tez

6. Idiom: “The ball is in your court.”

Which is the best equivalent?

- a) Endi navbat sendan
- b) To‘pni yerga urmoq
- c) O‘yinni to‘xtatmoq

8. Comparative Cultural Activity. Analyze idioms related to **body parts** and identify cultural metaphors. What universal metaphors appear across languages? Which are culture-specific?

Body Part	English Idiom	Uzbek Idiom	Russian Idiom
Heart	<i>Learn by heart</i>	<i>Yod olmoq</i>	<i>Выучить наизусть</i>
Hand	<i>Lend a hand</i>	<i>Qo‘l cho‘zmoq</i>	<i>Подать руку помощи</i>
Eye	<i>In the public eye</i>	<i>Ko‘z oldida</i>	<i>На виду у всех</i>
Head	<i>Keep your head</i>	<i>Boshini yo‘qotmaslik</i>	<i>Не терять голову</i>

4. Independent Work (Homework)

Task 1: Write a 400-word essay titled: “Typological Analysis of Phraseological Units in English, Uzbek, and Russian.”

Guidelines:

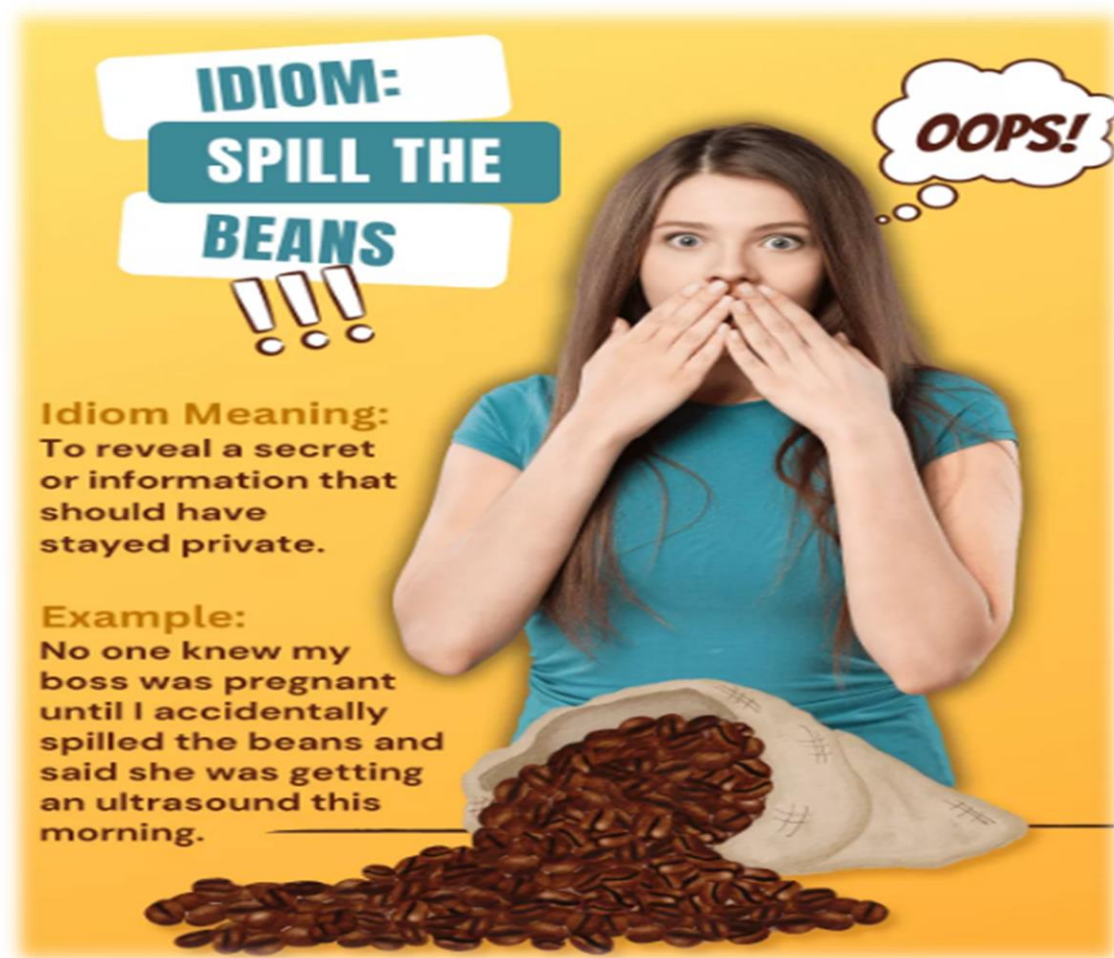
- Compare idioms, collocations, and set phrases.
- Discuss cultural imagery and equivalence types.
- Include examples of full, partial, and zero equivalence.
- Cite one theoretical source (MLA format).

Task 2. Knowledge Check

1. Which of the following best defines a *phraseological unit*?
 - a) A single root word
 - b) A fixed multi-word expression with a non-literal meaning
 - c) A syntactic clause
 - d) A free lexical combination
2. According to Vinogradov, *kick the bucket* is an example of:
 - a) Phraseological unity
 - b) Phraseological fusion

- c) Phraseological collocation
 - d) Free combination
3. Which English idiom corresponds to Uzbek *bir o‘q bilan ikki quyonni urmoq*?
- a) Hold your horses
 - b) Kill two birds with one stone
 - c) Let the cat out of the bag
 - d) Hit the sack
4. The idiom *under the weather* means:
- a) To go outside
 - b) To feel ill
 - c) To enjoy the rain
 - d) To avoid problems
5. The Uzbek idiom *tilini tishlamoq* and the Russian *держать язык за зубами* both mean:
- a) To be angry
 - b) To keep silent
 - c) To be surprised
 - d) To talk a lot
6. Which of the following shows **full equivalence** among the three languages?
- a) *Let the cat out of the bag*
 - b) *When pigs fly*
 - c) *Kill two birds with one stone*
 - d) *A piece of cake*

7. Which type of idiomatic expression retains its transparency and literal meaning?
- a) Phraseological fusion
 - b) Phraseological unity
 - c) Phraseological collocation
 - d) Proverb
8. The idiom *spill the beans* belongs to which type?
- a) Phraseological unity
 - b) Phraseological fusion
 - c) Free word combination
 - d) Proverb



Midterm Test: Comparative Typology (Units 1–6)

Total Questions: 25

Time: 80 minutes

Total Marks: 100

Part I – Multiple-Choice Questions (15 items, 2 points each = 30 points)

Choose the correct answer (a, b, c, or d).

1. The main subject of comparative typology is:
 - a) The study of one language in isolation
 - b) The comparison of unrelated languages for structural similarities and differences
 - c) The description of one dialect
 - d) The translation of languages
2. Typological linguistics focuses on:
 - a) Sound systems only
 - b) Universal properties and cross-linguistic patterns
 - c) Language teaching methods
 - d) The history of one language
3. The founder of modern linguistic typology is often considered:
 - a) Ferdinand de Saussure
 - b) Joseph Greenberg
 - c) Edward Sapir
 - d) Wilhelm von Humboldt

4. A **synthetic language** is characterized by:
- a) Isolated words without inflection
 - b) Use of inflections and affixes to express grammatical meaning
 - c) Word order only
 - d) Dependence on auxiliary verbs
5. English is typologically classified as:
- a) Agglutinative
 - b) Synthetic
 - c) Analytic
 - d) Polysynthetic
6. Uzbek belongs to which morphological type?
- a) Analytic
 - b) Agglutinative
 - c) Inflectional
 - d) Isolating
7. Russian is considered:
- a) Agglutinative
 - b) Analytic
 - c) Fusional (inflectional)
 - d) Isolating
8. The term *phoneme* refers to:
- a) The smallest unit of meaning
 - b) The smallest distinctive unit of sound
 - c) A morpheme
 - d) A word-forming element

9. Which of the following is a **typological similarity** among English, Uzbek, and Russian phonetic systems?
- a) All have stress-timed rhythm
 - b) All have vowels and consonants
 - c) All have tones
 - d) All are isolating languages
10. The process by which languages evolve similar structures independently is called:
- a) Genetic relation
 - b) Language convergence
 - c) Typological coincidence
 - d) Linguistic borrowing
11. Which pair represents **phonological opposition**?
- a) *bat* – *pat*
 - b) *man* – *men*
 - c) *cat* – *cats*
 - d) *go* – *went*
12. Morphology studies:
- a) Speech sounds
 - b) Sentence structure
 - c) Word forms and internal structure
 - d) Meaning in context
13. The grammatical category of **number** refers to:
- a) Tense distinction
 - b) Singular/plural contrast

- c) Gender distinction
 - d) Aspectual meaning
14. In typology, **universals** are:
- a) Features unique to one language
 - b) Common properties found in most or all languages
 - c) Irregular exceptions
 - d) Loanwords from another language
15. Which of the following expresses **syntheticity**?
- a) I will go
 - b) I am going
 - c) Went
 - d) Go

Part II – Matching (5 items, 3 points each = 15 points)

Match each term in Column A with its correct description in Column B.

Column A	Column B
1. Typological Classification	a. Meaning expressed by word order and auxiliaries
2. Comparative Method	b. One morpheme = one meaning; clear boundaries
3. Agglutinative Language	c. Studies universals across unrelated languages
4. Fusional Language	d. Many grammatical meanings in one morpheme
5. Analytic Language	e. Studies correspondences between related languages

Part III – True or False (5 items, 5 points each = 25 points)

Write “T” for True or “F” for False.

16. Linguistic typology studies only historically related languages.

17. English uses inflectional endings more actively than Russian.

18. Uzbek demonstrates vowel harmony, a typical feature of Turkic languages.

19. The phonetic system includes both articulation and acoustic properties of sounds.

20. In typology, grammatical categories such as tense and aspect are considered universal.

Part IV – Applied and Analytical Questions (5 items, 6 points each = 30 points)

Answer briefly or fill in the missing element.

21. Give one example of a typological difference between English and Uzbek phonology.

22. Identify the morphological type and give an example of an agglutinative word in Uzbek.

23. Compare the use of gender in English and Russian.

24. Explain why word order is more fixed in English than in Uzbek or Russian.

25. Give one example of a universal feature found in all three languages.



FINAL EXAMINATION — COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY (UNITS 1–12)

Section I – Multiple-Choice Questions (100 items, 1 point each)

Unit 1: Comparative Typology as a Branch of Linguistics

1. Comparative typology studies:
 - a) Dialectal variations within one language
 - b) Historical sound change only
 - c) Structural similarities and differences across languages
 - d) Vocabulary of one region
2. The main task of comparative typology is to:
 - a) Identify linguistic universals and classify languages
 - b) Teach translation
 - c) Study etymology
 - d) Record endangered dialects
3. Typology differs from historical linguistics in that it:
 - a) Examines only genetic relationships
 - b) Focuses on synchrony rather than diachrony
 - c) Studies historical phonetic change
 - d) Deals only with semantics
4. Linguistic universals are:
 - a) Features unique to one language
 - b) Shared features found across most languages
 - c) Irregular exceptions
 - d) Borrowed words

5. The **subject matter** of comparative typology includes:
- a) Grammatical paradigms only
 - b) All structural levels of language
 - c) Lexicographic issues only
 - d) Word origin
6. Which approach is based on shared features regardless of language family?
- a) Genetic typology
 - b) Areal typology
 - c) Structural typology
 - d) Comparative philology
7. The **main aim** of typological classification is to:
- a) Rank languages by difficulty
 - b) Reveal systems of common structural features
 - c) Determine language families
 - d) Collect idioms
8. Who is considered one of the key founders of modern typology?
- a) Noam Chomsky
 - b) Joseph Greenberg
 - c) Ferdinand de Saussure
 - d) Edward Sapir
9. Which of the following is *not* a type of typology?
- a) Structural
 - b) Functional
 - c) Genetic
 - d) Literary

Unit 2: Historical Background of Typological Investigations

10. The typological study of languages began to develop actively in the:
 - a) 14th century
 - b) 18th–19th centuries
 - c) 20th century only
 - d) Middle Ages
11. Wilhelm von Humboldt viewed language as:
 - a) A static system
 - b) A dynamic process of thought expression
 - c) A tool for mathematics
 - d) A code for poetry
12. The early comparative method was mainly used to:
 - a) Identify structural universals
 - b) Establish historical relationships
 - c) Teach pronunciation
 - d) Record oral literature
13. Greenberg's work on word order universals focused on:
 - a) Genetic relatedness
 - b) Cross-linguistic patterns
 - c) Borrowing patterns
 - d) Poetic devices
14. The idea of "language universals" was developed most prominently by:
 - a) Sapir
 - b) Chomsky

- c) Greenberg
 - d) Humboldt
15. The main limitation of early typology was:
- a) Lack of written texts
 - b) Dependence on unrelated examples
 - c) Mixing of historical and typological principles
 - d) Focus on syntax
16. The term “typology” in linguistics originated from:
- a) Greek roots meaning “type” and “study”
 - b) Latin meaning “sound”
 - c) Arabic meaning “grammar”
 - d) French meaning “comparison”
17. The Prague Linguistic Circle contributed to typology by emphasizing:
- a) Syntax only
 - b) Functional analysis and phonology
 - c) Historical grammar
 - d) Dialectology
18. Edward Sapir’s typology classified languages according to:
- a) Word formation and morphology
 - b) Sociolinguistic status
 - c) Sound symbolism
 - d) Dialect regions

Unit 3: Typological Characteristics of the Phonetic Systems

19. Phonetics studies:
- a) Meaning of words
 - b) Sound articulation and acoustic features
 - c) Grammatical categories
 - d) Sentence formation
20. English, Uzbek, and Russian phonetic systems all include:
- a) Only vowels
 - b) Vowels and consonants
 - c) Tones
 - d) Ideographs
21. The **articulatory base** of English speech is characterized by:
- a) Strong lip rounding and nasalization
 - b) Central position of the tongue and slight tension
 - c) Complete nasal airflow
 - d) Vowel harmony
22. Uzbek vowel harmony is a feature of:
- a) Analytic structure
 - b) Turkic phonological systems
 - c) Borrowing from Russian
 - d) Tone language influence
23. Russian has **palatalization** of consonants, meaning:
- a) Stress shift
 - b) Consonant softening before front vowels
 - c) Use of tone
 - d) Nasalization of vowels

24. The difference between phonetics and phonology lies in:
- a) Phonology studies physical sounds, phonetics studies abstract functions
 - b) Phonetics studies physical production, phonology studies functional sound units
 - c) Both are identical
 - d) Phonology ignores patterns
25. The term “prosody” refers to:
- a) The vocabulary of a language
 - b) Stress, rhythm, and intonation
 - c) Word order
 - d) Sound change
26. Which language among the three shows **fixed stress**?
- a) English
 - b) Uzbek
 - c) Russian
 - d) None — all have variable stress
27. The English consonant system is characterized by:
- a) Lack of aspiration
 - b) Presence of voiced and voiceless pairs
 - c) Absence of fricatives
 - d) Nasal harmony

Unit 4: Typological Characteristics of the Phonological Systems

28. Phonology primarily studies:
- a) Sound meaning

- b) Functional role of sounds in the language system
 - c) Syntax
 - d) Word meaning
29. Minimal pairs demonstrate:
- a) Morphological contrast
 - b) Phonemic distinction
 - c) Synonymy
 - d) Stylistic variation
30. In English, *ship* – *sheep* illustrate:
- a) Minimal pair
 - b) Allomorph
 - c) Homophone
 - d) Synonym
31. Uzbek phonological system differs by:
- a) Absence of vowel reduction
 - b) Tone use
 - c) Stress alternation
 - d) Extensive diphthongs
32. The phonological opposition /p/ – /b/ is based on:
- a) Manner of articulation
 - b) Place of articulation
 - c) Voicing
 - d) Nasality
33. Russian has both **hard and soft consonants**, a typological feature indicating:
- a) Morphological change

- b) Palatal contrast
 - c) Word stress
 - d) Reduplication
34. The Uzbek sound /q/ has no exact equivalent in:
- a) Russian
 - b) English
 - c) Both
 - d) None
35. Which is true about English vowel length?
- a) Always determined by spelling
 - b) Phonemic and contrastive in pairs like *ship/sheep*
 - c) Only affected by stress
 - d) Random variation
36. Phoneme is defined as:
- a) The minimal meaningful unit
 - b) The smallest contrastive unit of sound
 - c) A morpheme variant
 - d) A word form

Unit 5: Typology of Morphological Level

37. Morphology deals with:
- a) Syntax
 - b) Word formation and structure
 - c) Sound articulation
 - d) Semantic fields

38. The English plural suffix *-s* represents:
- a) Inflectional morpheme
 - b) Derivational morpheme
 - c) Prefix
 - d) Lexeme
39. In Uzbek, the suffix *-lar* expresses:
- a) Case
 - b) Number
 - c) Aspect
 - d) Mood
40. The Russian word *работники* consists of:
- a) Two morphemes
 - b) Three morphemes
 - c) Four morphemes
 - d) One morpheme
41. The term *morpheme* refers to:
- a) The smallest unit of sound
 - b) The smallest unit of meaning
 - c) A word-forming pattern
 - d) A phrase
42. English is **analytic**, which means:
- a) It uses few inflections and relies on word order
 - b) It has rich case inflection
 - c) It uses suffixes extensively
 - d) It relies on vowel harmony

43. Uzbek morphology is **agglutinative**, meaning:
- a) Affixes express several meanings simultaneously
 - b) Each affix expresses a single grammatical meaning
 - c) Words rarely inflect
 - d) Syntax dominates morphology
44. The Russian morphological type is:
- a) Analytic
 - b) Agglutinative
 - c) Fusional (inflectional)
 - d) Isolating
45. The process *teach* → *teacher* is:
- a) Prefixation
 - b) Suffixation
 - c) Compounding
 - d) Conversion
46. A word formed by joining *book* and *case* → *bookcase* is an example of:
- a) Derivation
 - b) Compounding
 - c) Inflection
 - d) Borrowing

Unit 6: Typology of Grammatical Categories

47. Grammatical categories are expressed through:
- a) Syntax only
 - b) Morphological or syntactic means

- c) Vocabulary alone
 - d) Intonation
48. The category of **tense** refers to:
- a) Relation of action to time
 - b) Type of verb
 - c) Gender distinction
 - d) Syntactic function
49. The Uzbek verb *boradi* expresses:
- a) Present tense
 - b) Future tense
 - c) Past tense
 - d) Conditional mood
50. In Russian, aspect distinguishes between:
- a) Active and passive
 - b) Completed and ongoing action
 - c) Gender of the speaker
 - d) Pronoun types
51. English expresses grammatical relations mainly by:
- a) Word endings
 - b) Word order and auxiliaries
 - c) Prefixes
 - d) Reduplication
52. The category of **voice** indicates:
- a) Verb tense
 - b) Relationship between subject and action

- c) Mood distinction
 - d) Word stress
53. Which category does *he runs* – *they run* illustrate?
- a) Case
 - b) Person-number agreement
 - c) Aspect
 - d) Gender
54. Russian expresses gender through:
- a) Verb inflection
 - b) Noun endings and adjective agreement
 - c) Word order
 - d) Articles
55. The Uzbek language lacks grammatical:
- a) Number
 - b) Tense
 - c) Gender
 - d) Mood
56. The **perfect aspect** in English indicates:
- a) Future action
 - b) Completed action with present relevance
 - c) Repeated action
 - d) Hypothetical condition

Unit 7: Typology of the Syntactic Level

57. Syntax studies:
- a) Word formation

- b) Sentence structure and word order
 - c) Sound articulation
 - d) Meaning of morphemes
58. The **basic word order** in English is:
- a) SVO
 - b) SOV
 - c) VSO
 - d) OSV
59. The **basic word order** in Uzbek is:
- a) SVO
 - b) SOV
 - c) VSO
 - d) OVS
60. Russian word order is:
- a) Strictly fixed
 - b) Relatively free
 - c) Determined only by stress
 - d) Always VSO
61. The typological function of **case endings** in Russian and Uzbek is to:
- a) Indicate tense
 - b) Show syntactic relations between words
 - c) Change the meaning of roots
 - d) Express aspect
62. English relies on **prepositions** where Uzbek and Russian use:
- a) Word order

- b) Case endings
 - c) Prefixes
 - d) Articles
63. A **compound sentence** contains:
- a) One clause
 - b) Two or more independent clauses
 - c) A dependent clause only
 - d) No verbs
64. The typological difference between English and Uzbek syntax is:
- a) Uzbek allows flexible word order due to case endings
 - b) English has more noun cases
 - c) Uzbek lacks clauses
 - d) English uses postpositions
65. A **complex sentence** in Russian often uses:
- a) Participles
 - b) Conjunctions like *что, если*
 - c) Postpositions
 - d) Reduplication
66. English shows subordination through:
- a) Verb endings
 - b) Word order and conjunctions
 - c) Prefixes
 - d) Cases

Unit 8: Typology of Phrases, Word Combinations, and Sentences

67. A **phrase** is defined as:
- a) A minimal sound unit
 - b) A non-predicative word group
 - c) A full sentence
 - d) A clause
68. The headword in a phrase determines:
- a) The grammatical form of the dependent word
 - b) Sentence intonation
 - c) Sound pattern
 - d) Stylistic register
69. In English, *a red flower* is an example of:
- a) Verb phrase
 - b) Noun phrase
 - c) Adverbial phrase
 - d) Prepositional phrase
70. The Uzbek phrase *chiroyli qiz* is equivalent to:
- a) pretty girl
 - b) the girl is pretty
 - c) a pretty of girl
 - d) prettily girl
71. Russian *красивый дом* demonstrates:
- a) Adjective–noun agreement in gender and case
 - b) Lack of concord
 - c) Random adjective order
 - d) Postpositional structure

72. Coordination in syntax joins:
- a) Similar elements
 - b) Clauses of unequal rank
 - c) Root morphemes
 - d) Phonemes
73. The English *verb phrase* differs from Uzbek *fe'l birikmasi* because:
- a) Uzbek allows suffixal chaining of meaning
 - b) English verbs are inflectional
 - c) Uzbek verbs require particles
 - d) English verbs cannot form phrases
74. A **simple sentence** contains:
- a) Two clauses
 - b) One subject and one predicate
 - c) No verb
 - d) Several predicates
75. The typological similarity in sentence structure across English, Uzbek, and Russian is:
- a) Presence of subject–predicate relationship
 - b) Use of tones
 - c) Absence of verb phrases
 - d) Identical word order

Unit 9: Typology of Different Layers of the Lexicon

76. The **lexicon** of a language is:
- a) Its grammatical structure

- b) Its vocabulary system
 - c) Its sound inventory
 - d) Its syntax
77. Borrowed words in English mainly come from:
- a) Turkish and Arabic
 - b) French and Latin
 - c) Finnish
 - d) Chinese
78. Uzbek has borrowed many words from:
- a) Arabic, Persian, and Russian
 - b) Japanese and Korean
 - c) Spanish
 - d) Greek
79. *Telephone*, *kompyuter*, and *интернет* are examples of:
- a) Native words
 - b) Internationalisms
 - c) Dialectisms
 - d) Archaisms
80. The most stable lexical layer is:
- a) Borrowings
 - b) Neologisms
 - c) Core/native vocabulary
 - d) Archaisms
81. Lexical gaps occur when:
- a) Two words mean the same thing
 - b) A concept in one language has no direct equivalent in another

- c) Borrowed words are absent
 - d) Grammar changes
82. The word *choy* (tea) in Uzbek came from:
- a) Persian
 - b) Chinese
 - c) Arabic
 - d) English
83. English *ballet* is borrowed from:
- a) Russian
 - b) French
 - c) Latin
 - d) German
84. Lexical typology studies:
- a) Word meanings and relations across languages
 - b) Only pronunciation
 - c) Syntax patterns
 - d) Morphological forms

Unit 10: Typology of the Lexical Level

85. Polysemy means:
- a) One word with several related meanings
 - b) Two words with opposite meanings
 - c) Similar forms, different meanings
 - d) Same meaning, different forms
86. Homonymy refers to:
- a) Words with identical spelling but unrelated meanings

- b) Synonyms
 - c) Antonyms
 - d) Inflections
87. The English pair *buy – sell* represents:
- a) Synonymy
 - b) Antonymy (conversive)
 - c) Polysemy
 - d) Homonymy
88. Synonymy in language shows:
- a) Words with identical meaning and stylistic value
 - b) Words with similar meaning and varying usage
 - c) Opposite meanings
 - d) Word order differences
89. The word *bank* (riverbank, money bank) shows:
- a) Homonymy
 - b) Polysemy
 - c) Antonymy
 - d) Derivation
90. The Uzbek *katta – kichik* illustrates:
- a) Polysemy
 - b) Antonymy
 - c) Homonymy
 - d) Derivation
91. Lexical universals refer to:
- a) Borrowed terms
 - b) Concepts found in all languages

- c) Idioms
 - d) Local dialect words
92. The process *book* + *store* → *bookstore* is an example of:
- a) Compounding
 - b) Derivation
 - c) Borrowing
 - d) Inflection
93. The Uzbek compound *mehmonxona* means:
- a) Guest room / hotel
 - b) Library
 - c) School
 - d) Bookshop
94. The English *unhappy* shows:
- a) Prefixation
 - b) Conversion
 - c) Compounding
 - d) Reduplication

Unit 11: Comparative Analysis of Word Stock and Word-Formation Types

95. Word formation is:
- a) The process of creating new words and meanings
 - b) The pronunciation of borrowed words
 - c) The study of sound changes
 - d) The act of translation

96. The English process *write* → *writer* is:
- a) Prefixation
 - b) Suffixation
 - c) Compounding
 - d) Conversion
97. The Uzbek process *yoʻz* → *yoʻzuvchi* is an example of:
- a) Prefixation
 - b) Suffixation
 - c) Reduplication
 - d) Borrowing
98. Russian *предписывать* is formed by:
- a) Prefixation and suffixation
 - b) Reduplication
 - c) Borrowing
 - d) Conversion
99. The English process *to email* → *an email* is:
- a) Derivation
 - b) Conversion
 - c) Inflection
 - d) Borrowing
100. The process of combining *sun* + *light* = *sunlight* is:
- a) Compounding
 - b) Suffixation
 - c) Prefixation
 - d) Borrowing

101. In Uzbek, the suffix *-chi* often denotes:
- a) Negation
 - b) Profession or agent
 - c) Plurality
 - d) Case
102. The word *blogger* in all three languages is an example of:
- a) Archaism
 - b) Neologism
 - c) Derivation
 - d) Internationalism
103. In Russian, *водитель* (driver) is derived from:
- a) Вода (water)
 - b) Вести (to lead, drive)
 - c) Вой (war)
 - d) Вдох (breath)
104. Which process is **least common** in Uzbek word formation?
- a) Suffixation
 - b) Prefixation
 - c) Compounding
 - d) Agglutination

Unit 12: Typology of Phraseological Units

105. A *phraseological unit* is:
- a) A free word combination
 - b) A fixed multi-word expression with figurative meaning

- c) A single morpheme
 - d) A sentence fragment
106. The idiom *kick the bucket* means:
- a) To start working
 - b) To die
 - c) To give up
 - d) To relax
107. According to Vinogradov, *spill the beans* is a:
- a) Phraseological unity
 - b) Phraseological fusion
 - c) Phraseological collocation
 - d) Free combination
108. *Strong tea* is an example of:
- a) Phraseological unity
 - b) Phraseological fusion
 - c) Phraseological collocation
 - d) Proverb
109. The idiom *to kill two birds with one stone* has:
- a) Partial equivalence across languages
 - b) Full equivalence across English, Uzbek, and Russian
 - c) No equivalence
 - d) Zero translation
110. The Uzbek equivalent of *when pigs fly* is:
- a) *Tuyaning dumi yerga tekkanda*
 - b) *Oltin baliq*

- c) *Yurakni eritmoq*
 - d) *O‘zini tutmoq*
111. The Russian equivalent of *break the ice* is:
- a) *Расстопить лёд*
 - b) *Положить конец*
 - c) *Иметь зуб на кого-то*
 - d) *Зарыть талант*
112. Phraseological fusions are characterized by:
- a) Transparent literal meaning
 - b) Complete loss of motivation
 - c) Word-for-word translation
 - d) Syntactic flexibility
113. The English idiom *under the weather* means:
- a) To feel ill
 - b) To be outside
 - c) To get caught in the rain
 - d) To feel nervous
114. Which of the following shows full idiomatic equivalence?
- a) *When pigs fly*
 - b) *Kill two birds with one stone*
 - c) *Let the cat out of the bag*
 - d) *Piece of cake*
115. In Uzbek, the idiom *tilini tishlamoq* corresponds to Russian:
- a) *Держать язык за зубами*
 - b) *Взять себя в руки*

- c) *Дать слово*
d) *Терять голову*
116. The cultural imagery in idioms often depends on:
a) Sound laws
b) National worldview and traditions
c) Grammar
d) Stress position
117. Phraseological units are important in typology because they:
a) Show historical borrowing
b) Reflect cultural and cognitive parallels
c) Have one universal meaning
d) Are easy to translate literally
118. Which is an example of a proverb rather than idiom?
a) *Don't count your chickens before they hatch*
b) *Spill the beans*
c) *Break the ice*
d) *Piece of cake*
119. Phraseological unities differ from fusions because:
a) They are semantically transparent
b) Their meaning is partly motivated
c) They are grammatical rules
d) They consist of one word
120. The study of idioms across English, Uzbek, and Russian helps identify:
a) Typological equivalence and cultural universals
b) Dialect differences

- c) Word formation
- d) Syntax patterns

Section II – True or False (20 items, 2 points each)

1. Comparative typology focuses only on historically related languages.
→ _____
2. Linguistic universals are features found across many unrelated languages.
→ _____
3. The comparative method and typological method are identical in scope and purpose.
→ _____
4. Phonetics deals with the physical production of sounds, while phonology studies their function.
→ _____
5. Uzbek and Russian both exhibit vowel harmony.
→ _____
6. The English language lacks vowel length contrast completely.
→ _____
7. In typology, morphology refers to how words are formed and inflected.
→ _____
8. Agglutinative languages often use multiple affixes that each express a single grammatical meaning.
→ _____

9. In fusional (inflectional) languages, one affix can express several grammatical meanings simultaneously.
→ _____
10. English expresses grammatical relationships primarily through word endings.
→ _____
11. Uzbek and Russian rely more on case endings than English to show syntactic relations.
→ _____
12. English word order is flexible because of its rich case system.
→ _____
13. The lexicon includes both native and borrowed words of a language.
→ _____
14. Lexical gaps occur when there is no direct equivalent for a concept in another language.
→ _____
15. Polysemy is the phenomenon where one word has multiple related meanings.
→ _____
16. The process *teacher* → *teaching* demonstrates derivation.
→ _____
17. In Uzbek, prefixation is a highly productive word-formation process.
→ _____

18. Phraseological fusions have completely transparent meanings.
→ _____
19. The idiom *kill two birds with one stone* has full cross-linguistic equivalence in Uzbek and Russian.
→ _____
20. The comparative study of phraseological units reveals cultural and cognitive similarities between nations.
→ _____

Section III – Matching (20 items, 2 points each)

Match the term or example in Column A with the correct definition or category in Column B.

1–5: General and Historical Typology

Column A	Column B
1. Joseph Greenberg	a. Comparative-historical linguist, 19th century
2. Wilhelm von Humboldt	b. Proposed language universals based on word order
3. Edward Sapir	c. Emphasized language as a dynamic, creative process
4. Comparative Method	d. Identifies genetic relations between languages
5. Typological Method	e. Studies universal structural patterns across languages

6–10: Phonetic and Phonological Systems

Column A	Column B
6. Phoneme	a. Smallest contrastive sound unit in a language
7. Prosody	b. Features like stress, rhythm, and intonation
8. Uzbek vowel harmony	c. Agreement of vowels by frontness or backness
9. Palatalization (Russian)	d. Softening of consonants before front vowels
10. Minimal pair	e. Two words differing by one sound (e.g., <i>ship/sheep</i>)

11–15: Morphological and Grammatical Typology

Column A	Column B
11. Agglutinative Language	a. One morpheme = one meaning (e.g., Uzbek)
12. Fusional Language	b. One affix conveys multiple meanings (e.g., Russian)
13. Analytic Language	c. Few inflections; relies on word order (e.g., English)
14. Case Category	d. Marks grammatical relations (subject, object, etc.)
15. Aspect	e. Expresses completed vs. ongoing action

16–20: Lexical and Phraseological Typology

Column A	Column B
16. Internationalism	a. Word common to many languages (e.g., <i>internet</i>)
17. Polysemy	b. One word with several related meanings
18. Conversion	c. Change of word class without affix (e.g., <i>to email</i> → <i>an email</i>)
19. Phraseological Fusion	d. Idiom with completely non-motivated meaning (e.g., <i>kick the bucket</i>)
20. Phraseological Unity	e. Idiom partially motivated by its components (e.g., <i>spill the beans</i>)

Section IV – Short Applied / Analytical Questions (20 items, 3 points each)

Unit 1: Comparative Typology as a Branch of Linguistics

1. Define *comparative typology* in your own words and explain how it differs from *comparative-historical linguistics*.
2. Give one example of a **linguistic universal** that applies to English, Uzbek, and Russian.

Unit 2: Historical Background of Typological Investigations

3. Briefly describe Joseph Greenberg's contribution to linguistic typology.
4. Explain how Wilhelm von Humboldt's philosophy of language influenced typological studies.

Unit 3: Typological Characteristics of Phonetic Systems

5. Compare the **articulatory base** of English and Uzbek speech using one phonetic feature.
6. Give an example of a sound or feature present in Uzbek but absent in English.

Unit 4: Typological Characteristics of Phonological Systems

7. Provide an example of a **minimal pair** in English and explain what phonological contrast it illustrates.
8. Describe one typological difference in phonological systems between Russian and English.

Unit 5: Typology of Morphological Level

9. Write one example of an **agglutinative word** in Uzbek and break it down into its morphemes.
10. Compare **word formation** in English and Russian using one derived word from each.

Unit 6: Typology of Grammatical Categories

11. Explain how English and Uzbek express the **category of tense** differently.
12. Give one example from Russian showing the **category of aspect** and identify its meaning.

Unit 7: Typology of the Syntactic Level

13. Compare the **word order** of English and Uzbek in a simple sentence example.
14. Explain how **case endings** allow Russian to have more flexible syntax than English.

Unit 8: Typology of Phrases, Word Combinations, and Sentences

15. Provide an example of an **adjective + noun phrase** in each of the three languages and explain their order.
16. Write one **simple** and one **compound sentence** in English, labeling the clauses.

Unit 9: Typology of Different Layers of the Lexicon

17. Give one example each of a **native, borrowed, and international word** in English, Uzbek, and Russian.
18. Explain how **historical contact** has influenced the Uzbek lexicon.

Unit 10: Typology of the Lexical Level

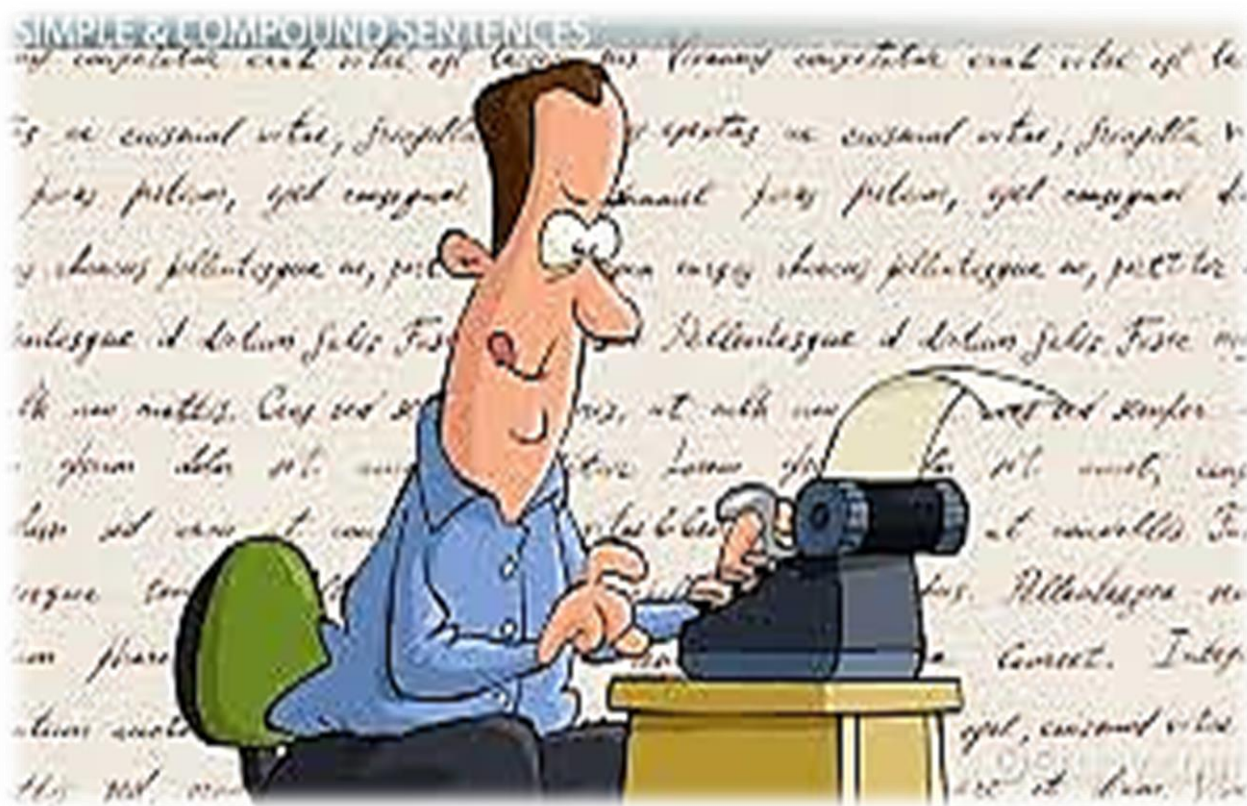
19. Identify and classify the lexical relation in each pair:
 - a) *hot – cold*
 - b) *bank (river) – bank (money)*
 - c) *big – large*
20. Explain how **polysemy** and **homonymy** differ, using examples from English or Russian.

Unit 11: Comparative Analysis of Word Stock and Word-Formation Types

21. Create a word using **affixation** in Uzbek and a **compound word** in English, then explain their structure.
22. Identify one **neologism** in any of the three languages and describe how it was formed.

Unit 12: Typology of Phraseological Units

23. Choose one idiom common to English, Uzbek, and Russian, and analyze whether it has **full**, **partial**, or **zero equivalence**.
24. Explain how phraseological units reveal **cultural worldview** differences among English, Uzbek, and Russian speakers.



GLOSSARY OF KEY TERMS

A

Affixation — The process of forming new words by adding prefixes or suffixes to a root or base form (e.g., *teach* → *teacher*, *yoʻz* → *yoʻzuvchi*, *работать* → *работник*).

Agglutinative Language — A type of language (such as Uzbek or Turkish) where words are formed by joining morphemes together, each expressing one grammatical meaning.

Allomorphy — The phenomenon of having language-specific differences in form or structure across languages. Opposite of *isomorphism*.

Analytic Language — A language type (like English) that relies on word order and auxiliary words rather than inflection or affixation to express grammatical relations.

Antonymy — The semantic relationship between words of opposite meaning (e.g., *hot–cold*, *issiq–sovuq*, *тёплый–холодный*).

B

Borrowed Word (Loanword) — A word adopted from another language, often adapted phonologically or morphologically (e.g., *hotel*, *kompyuter*, *интернет*).

C

Case — A grammatical category indicating the relationship of a noun or pronoun to other words in a sentence (e.g., nominative, genitive, dative).

Clause — A grammatical unit containing a subject and predicate; may be independent or dependent.

Compounding — The process of forming words by combining two or more roots (e.g., *blackboard*, *kitobdo* ‘*st*, *napoxod*).

Conversion — A word-formation process in which a word changes its grammatical category without any morphological change (e.g., *to email* → *email*).

Cultural Semantics — The study of how cultural values and worldviews influence meaning and vocabulary use in a language.

D

Derivation — A word-formation process that creates a new word by adding affixes and often changing the grammatical category (e.g., *kind* → *kindness*).

Dependent (in Syntax) — A word that modifies or depends on the head word in a phrase (e.g., *red* in *red flower*).

E

Etymology — The study of word origins and historical development across languages.

F

Fusion (Fusional Language) — A morphological type where a single affix can express multiple grammatical meanings simultaneously (e.g., Russian *па́рочаю* = root + person + number).

Functional Category — A linguistic unit that contributes grammatical meaning (e.g., tense, number, gender, case) rather than lexical meaning.

G

Grammatical Category — A system of contrastive features (such as tense, aspect, mood, number, gender, or case) used to express grammatical relations.

Head (in Syntax) — The central element of a phrase that determines its grammatical type and function (e.g., the noun *book* in *the red book*).

Hyponymy — The semantic relation where one word's meaning is included within another's (e.g., *rose* is a hyponym of *flower*).

I

Idiom — A fixed expression whose meaning cannot be inferred from its individual words (e.g., *kick the bucket*, *ko 'z yumdi*, *сыграть в ящик*).

Inflection — The modification of a word to express grammatical information such as tense, number, or case (*walk* → *walked*, *kitab* → *kitoblar*).

Isomorphism — The presence of structural or functional similarity across languages (e.g., all languages having verbs to express actions).

L

Language Universals — Common structural or semantic features found in all human languages (e.g., all languages distinguish nouns and verbs).

Lexical Typology — The study of how words and meanings are organized across languages, including patterns of synonymy, antonymy, and polysemy.

Lexicon — The total stock of words and expressions in a language, including their meanings and relationships.

M

Morpheme — The smallest unit of meaning in a language (e.g., *un-*, *-ness*, *yo-*, *-chi*).

Morphological Typology — The classification of languages based on how they form words — analytic, agglutinative, fusional, or polysynthetic.

Morphology — The branch of linguistics that studies word structure and formation.

P

Phrase — A group of words functioning as a unit within a sentence, without a complete predication (e.g., *in the house*, *stol ustida*).

Phraseological Unit (PU) — A fixed or semi-fixed word combination whose meaning is partially or fully figurative.

Phoneme — The smallest unit of sound that can distinguish meaning (e.g., /p/ vs. /b/ in *pat*–*bat*).

Polysemy — The phenomenon where a single word has multiple related meanings (e.g., *head* → of a person, a company, a table).

Prefixation — The addition of a prefix before a base word (*rewrite*, *qayta yozmoq*, *переписать*).

Proverb — A short, commonly known saying expressing general truth or wisdom (*No pain, no gain*, *Mehnat qilgan to'yadi*, *Без труда не вытащишь и рыбку из пруда*).

S

Semantics — The study of meaning in language, including word meanings, sentence meaning, and context interpretation.

Semantic Field — A group of words related by meaning within a conceptual area (e.g., colors, emotions, family).

Sentence — The largest grammatical unit expressing a complete thought.

Suffixation — The process of adding a suffix to a root word (*teach* → *teacher*, *bilim* → *bilimdon*).

Synonymy — The semantic relation of similar or identical meaning between words (*big*–*large*, *katta*–*ulkan*, *большой*–*огромный*).

Syntactic Typology — The comparative study of sentence and phrase structure across languages.

Syntax — The branch of linguistics dealing with how words combine to form phrases and sentences.

T

Typological Feature — A structural or functional characteristic used to classify and compare languages.

Typological Universals — Cross-linguistic generalizations about how languages are structured or function (e.g., all languages have nouns and verbs).

U

Universals of Language — Features or patterns common to all human languages, such as hierarchical phrase structure or basic word classes.

W

Word Formation — The process by which new words are created, including derivation, compounding, conversion, abbreviation, and blending.

Word Order — The sequence in which subject, verb, and object appear in a sentence (e.g., English SVO, Uzbek SOV, Russian SVO but flexible).

Word Stock — The total vocabulary of a language, including native and borrowed elements.

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