

**МИНИСТЕРСТВО НАУКИ, ВЫСШЕГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И  
ИННОВАЦИЙ КЫРГЫЗСКОЙ РЕСПУБЛИКИ**

**НАУЧНО-УЧЕБНЫЙ ПРОИЗВОДСТВЕННЫЙ КОМПЛЕКС**

**ЖАЛАЛ-АБАДСКИЙ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ имени БЕКМАМАТА  
ОСМОНОВА**

**Жумабекова Насиба Акимжановна  
Арсланбекова Насыйкат Эркинбаевна**

**Сравнительная типология английского, русского и родного языков  
(курс лекции)**

**Comparative Typology of English, Russian, and the Native Languages  
(lecture course)**

**МАНАС - 2026**

Рассмотрено на заседании кафедры английского языка и литературы

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Редактор: З.А.Жумабеков

Рецензент: Г.А. Орозбаева кандидат филол.наук, доцент

Составители: Жумабекова Насиба Акимжановна старший преподаватель, Арсланбекова Н.Э. кандидат филологических наук

Сравнительная типология английского, русского и родного языков (курс лекции) =  
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Цель курса — сформировать у студентов системное научное представление о типологических сходствах и различиях английского, русского и кыргызского языков на всех уровнях языковой структуры (фонологическом, морфологическом, синтаксическом и семантическом), а также развить навыки контрастивного анализа, предупреждения интерференции и применения типологических знаний в преподавательской и переводческой деятельности.

## **Введение**

Дисциплина «Сравнительная типология английского, русского и кыргызского языков» направлена на изучение типологических сходств и различий трёх языков на фонологическом, морфологическом, синтаксическом и лексико-семантическом уровнях. В курсе рассматриваются языковые универсалии, морфологические типы (аналитический, флективный, агглютинативный), особенности грамматических категорий и порядка слов. Особое внимание уделяется проблемам межъязыковой интерференции и их учёту в преподавании и переводе. Дисциплина формирует навыки контрастивного анализа и исследовательской работы у студентов 4 курса филологического направления.

Дисциплина направлена на изучение теоретических и методологических основ сравнительной типологии и контрастивной лингвистики на материале английского, русского и кыргызского языков. Курс формирует системное представление о типологических сходствах и различиях языков на фонологическом, морфологическом, синтаксическом и лексико-семантическом уровнях.

В рамках курса рассматриваются основные типологические параметры языков, морфологическая классификация (аналитический, флективный, агглютинативный тип), языковые универсалии, проблемы аналитизма и синтетизма, особенности категории вида, времени, падежа, порядка слов, а также вопросы межъязыковой интерференции.

### **Цель дисциплины**

Формирование у студентов системного представления о типологических сходствах и различиях английского, русского и кыргызского языков на фонологическом, морфологическом, синтаксическом и семантическом уровнях, а также развитие навыков контрастивного анализа и предупреждения интерференции.

### **Актуальность курса**

Современная филологическая подготовка требует формирования у студентов не только описательных знаний о системе языка, но и способности к аналитическому сопоставлению языковых структур. В условиях многоязычной образовательной среды Кыргызстана сравнительная типология английского, русского и кыргызского языков приобретает особую значимость, поскольку позволяет выявить системные различия языков различных морфологических типов (аналитического, флективного и агглютинативного) и предупредить межъязыковую интерференцию.

Курс способствует развитию научного мышления, формированию исследовательских навыков и профессиональной компетентности будущих преподавателей английского языка и переводчиков.

### **Задачи курса:**

- ❖ раскрыть основные понятия и методы лингвистической типологии;
- ❖ охарактеризовать типологические параметры трёх языков;

- ❖ выявить сходства и различия на фонологическом, морфологическом и синтаксическом уровнях;
- ❖ проанализировать явления межъязыковой интерференции;
- ❖ развить навыки исследовательской и аналитической работы.

### **Место дисциплины в структуре образовательной программы**

Курс относится к дисциплинам профессионального цикла и изучается на завершающем этапе подготовки бакалавров-филологов. Он базируется на знаниях по общему языкознанию, теоретической грамматике английского языка, русскому и кыргызскому языкознанию, и обеспечивает методологическую основу для дальнейшей педагогической и научной деятельности студентов.

### **Организация учебного процесса**

Общий объем дисциплины составляет 120 часов, включая: 30 часов лекций; 30 часов практических занятий; 60 часов самостоятельной работы студентов.

Практические занятия ориентированы на выполнение контрастивных заданий, анализ языкового материала, подготовку презентаций и мини-исследований. Самостоятельная работа включает изучение научных источников, составление сравнительных таблиц и выполнение исследовательского проекта.

### **Ожидаемые результаты освоения дисциплины**

- ❖ В результате изучения курса студент должен:
- ❖ знать основные типологические классификации языков;
- ❖ уметь проводить сопоставительный анализ языковых явлений;
- ❖ выявлять причины интерференционных ошибок;
- ❖ применять полученные знания в преподавательской и переводческой практике;
- ❖ владеть навыками научного анализа и оформления исследовательских работ.

### **Результаты обучения**

После успешного завершения курса студенты смогут: объяснить основные понятия и методы лингвистической типологии, определить типологические особенности английского, русского и кыргызского языков, проведение сопоставительного анализа на разных лингвистических уровнях, анализ межъязыковых интерференционных явлений, применение типологических знаний в преподавании языков и переводческой практике, проведение небольших исследований в области сравнительной лингвистики.

### **Компетенции выпускника**

После освоения курса студент должен:

- ❖ владеть методикой типологического анализа
- ❖ уметь выявлять интерференцию
- ❖ применять знания в преподавании
- ❖ использовать научные источники
- ❖ проводить мини-исследование

Lecture 1

**Subject and Aims of Contrastive Typology of English, Russian and Kyrgyz**

**1. Subject of Contrastive Typology**

Contrastive Typology attempts to find out similarities and differences in both philogenically related and non-related languages.

Contrastive analysis grew as the result of the practical demands of language teaching methodology where it was empirically shown that the errors, which are, made recurrently by foreign language students can be often traced back to the differences in structures between the target language and the language of the learner. This implies the necessity of a detailed comparison of the structure of a native and a target language, which has been named contrastive analysis.

Contrastive linguistic analysis has a three-leveled structure:

**1. Phonological; 2) Grammatical; 3) Lexical.**

The Typological Method deals with the functional contents of the languages. Contrastive Typology is considered to be a special branch of linguistics nowadays.

Contrastive Typology takes into consideration all the general features of the structure of different languages.

The very important general problem of linguistic system, of systematic description or arrangement of linguistic facts, also stands to gain from studies of this kind, for only by contrasting grammatical categories of different languages can the researcher really penetrate into the specific character of this or that language and understand its internal basic regularities. At the same time, the practical significance of this kind of research is paramount: the teaching of foreign languages, translation, and many other aspects of applied linguistics should be based on overall analysis of the respective language.

Separate mention should also be made of the translation problems. So far, the number of translations, which were made directly from a foreign language, into the national languages, is very limited. The non-Russian reader, who wants to read foreign classics in his own language, and not in the Russian translation, very often has put up with a translation “of the second order” – a text retranslated from the Russian translation.

We mention these facts because we believe that systematic contrastive analysis of, for instance, English and Kyrgyz and so on, will help to stimulate direct translations from European languages into the national ones.

Last, but not means least, the importance of contrastive linguistics becomes ever greater also because of the growing political, economic and cultural contacts with foreign countries.

## 2. Aims of Linguistic Typology

There are nearly 3,500 languages the world over. These languages differ in different ways: a) by their social functions; b) by their usage; c) by their phonetical, lexical, morphological and syntactical features.

General linguistics classifies all the languages and works out their linguistic typology.

There are different classifications of languages. The most important are the following ones:

- 1) Areal or geographical
- 2) Genealogical
- 3) Typological
- 4) Functional

Typological classification deals with the types of languages and gives their typological features.

Typological investigations began in the second part of the nineteenth century when so-called “comparative philology” studies were to establish the historical or genetic connections between languages on the basis of their manifest similarities or more general correspondences, particularly between the forms of words having similar meanings, or cognate word forms. From these studies developed the notions of language families, groupings of languages, which were more or less distantly related on the grounds of having developed over time from common origins.

The historical development of two languages from single common is no guarantee that formal characteristics will in all, or indeed most respects, be similar. Languages, which are unrelated, may resemble each other in respect of some features of their systematic structure, while genetically related languages may differ quite markedly in the same features.

The comparative-historical method investigates cognate words in different languages. E.g. *Cordia* (Greek) – *сердце* (Russian) - *жүрөк* (Kyrgyz).

So we see the differences between the comparative-historical method and the typological one – the first deals with the material relationship and the second with the functional one.

Thus, Linguistic Typology does not investigate single cases or similarity and difference in the structure of languages but deals with those which are of general character, i.e. such similarities and differences, which are typical and consist of homogeneous features.

## 3. Parts of Linguistic Typology

Linguistic Typology is divided into two parts – **general** and **special**. General Typology deals with the general classification of types of languages on the basis of such general

features: 1) quantity and quality of vowels and components; 2) necessity of the category of case; gender, etc.

Special Typology deals with the specific problems of two or more languages. Special Typology falls into two parts: a) genetic; b) aspectual.

Genetic typology studies the periods of the history of a language while Aspectual typology deals with different levels of language (phonemes, morphemes, words, word combinations and sentences).

As far as the phonematic plan is concerned English has a two-leveled structure – open and closed vowels. Pronouncing of English vowels is the most difficult thing on the phonetic level. There are subsystems, e.g. the category of Aspect. Russian has “совершенный – не совершенный вид” “Я прочитал книгу”. Kyrgyz has no aspect but in some grammars, it is transformed. Russian is rich in aspects; English – in Tenses. The English make mistakes in the use of Russian aspects (Я получал письмо).

#### **4. Contrastive Typology of a Foreign and a mother tongue as one of the parts of special Typology**

A teacher of English must know the Structural typological similarities and differences of the target language and the mother tongue. The mother tongue works out the difficulties and henceforth the typical mistakes while learning a foreign language. In this case we have no typology as a whole but typological features of the language under study in comparison with the mother tongue.

Thus, Contrastive Typology is a branch of special typology, which studies the functional peculiarities of the structures of the two languages in contact. In our case English-Kyrgyz-Russian linguistic contacts.

#### **TASKS FOR CONTROL**

##### **1. Definition Task**

Define the term contrastive typology. Explain what aspects of languages it studies and why it is important for linguistics and language learning.

##### **2. Identification Task**

Read several linguistic definitions and identify which of them refer to typology and which refer to comparative linguistics. Explain your choice.

##### **3. Concept Explanation**

Explain the subject of contrastive typology in your own words. What linguistic phenomena does it analyze when comparing English, Russian, and Kyrgyz?

##### **4. Terminology Matching**

Match the following terms with their definitions:

a) Linguistic typology

b) Contrastive typology

c) Universal features

d) Language family

1. Study of structural similarities and differences between languages
2. Classification of languages according to their structure
3. Features common to all human languages
4. Group of languages with a common historical origin

## 5. Comparative Analysis Task

Compare the word order in the following languages:

- English
- Russian
- Kyrgyz

Determine the typological type of word order (SVO, SOV, etc.) and give examples.

## 6. Discussion Question

Why is contrastive typology important for teaching foreign languages? Provide at least three reasons.

## 7. Table Completion Task

Complete the table comparing typological features of the three languages.

| Feature | English | Russian | Kyrgyz |
|---------|---------|---------|--------|
|---------|---------|---------|--------|

Language type

Word order

Morphology

## 8. Classification Task

Classify the following branches into general typology or special typology:

- Morphological typology
- Phonological typology
- Contrastive typology
- Areal typology

## 9. True or False

Determine whether the following statements are true or false.

1. Linguistic typology studies similarities and differences between languages.
2. Contrastive typology studies only historical relations between languages.
3. English is mainly an analytic language.
4. Kyrgyz belongs to the Turkic language family.

## 10. Short Essay Task

Write a short paragraph (6–8 sentences) explaining the aims of linguistic typology.

## 11. Analytical Task

Give two grammatical features that distinguish English from Kyrgyz and Russian from Kyrgyz.

## 12. Example Task

Provide three examples of sentences in English, Russian, and Kyrgyz and analyze their syntactic structure.

## 13. Terminology Explanation

Explain the difference between:

- General typology
- Special typology

Give examples.

## 14. Application Task

Explain how contrastive typology helps translators and language teachers when working with English, Russian, and Kyrgyz.

## 15. Research Task

Prepare a short presentation (5–7 minutes) about contrastive typology of English and Kyrgyz focusing on one linguistic level (phonetics, morphology, or syntax).

### ***В результате освоения лекции формируется ряд компетенций:***

- способен самостоятельно анализировать и интерпретировать с лингвистической (и литературоведческой) точки зрения различные типы текстов (ПК-13);

### ***Литература:***

1. Лисс А. Н. и др. Обзорные лекции по сравнительной типологии английского, русского, кыргызского языков. Фрунзе: 1988.

2. Аракин В. Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков -2-е изд. -П.: Просвещения, 1989

3. Аракин В. Д. Типология языков и проблема методического прогнозирования. М.. Высшая школа, 1989

## Lecture 2

### Linguistic Typology and Types of Languages

The process of language development was marked with special changes of some categories and changes in qualities i.e. changes of the whole language structure. The Middle Eng. Period is called the period of leveled inflexions as the lang. has lost the case and the verb inflexions.

The Modern Eng. Period is known as the period of lost inflexions. Grammatical agreement was replaced by adjoining. Eg:

1. В нашей стране много больших городов.
2. Өлкөбүздө көптөгөн чоң шаарлар бар.
3. In our country we have many large towns.
4. Wir haben vielegrosse stadte in unserem Lande.

In the first Russian word combination “в нашей стране” we see agreement in number gender and case. In the second “больших городов” we have agreement too, but adjoining in «много».

The Kyrgyz word “өлкөбүздө” shows adjoining but in the word combination “көптөгөн шаарлар” we have agreement in number. In English word combination “in our country”, there is neither case nor number agreement. We see only adjoining. The connection between the subject and the Predicate in “we have” is expressed by adjoining too. “Large” is not connected with “towns” as, “large” doesn’t show the number. So we see that agreement is peculiar for the Russian language adjoining for English and Kyrgyz.

In German “wir haben” we see agreement in number and person which is lacking in Eng. In the case “viele grosse Stadte” we have also agreement in number and case. “In unserem Lande” we see agreement in case and number. Russians do not use “иметь”. And this very fact brings to some typical mistakes. In the Kyrgyz language we use “бар”.

**The term, “typology” has three meanings in linguistics:**

1. Teaching of types of languages which are studied by means of comparison.
2. Description of the structure of one lang. or its Microsystems
3. The principle of organizing the lang. material to systematize the

typical features of one lang. and find its place in the typical classification.

**The term “language Type” means** a steady combination of typological peculiarities common to some languages united into diff-t groups. The term “Type of language” means a comb-n of typological features of a given language: which opens the way to refer the lang. under study to one or another “Language Type.” e.g.: Eng. Has lost the category of case. It is a negative feature but it has a strict order of words and it is a positive feature. French has the same features.

The Turkish and Finnish languages have no prepositions (a negative feature), but they have special cases (a positive feature). While characterizing a lang. type we shall take into consideration the flectional peculiarities because English and German with some variations belong to this type. We shall pay attention to the peculiarities of an agglutinative type as some of our mother tongues belong to the Turkish, Mongol, Finno-Ugric languages and refer to this type.

V. Skalichka, a well-known chesh linguist classifies all the languages into the following five lang. Types:

**1. Agglutinative languages.** From the Latin verb “agglutinare” “to stick”. The term was introduced by Franz Bopp, a German philologist. To this group of languages belong such as Turkish and Finish. The main characteristic features of these languages are a large number of so –called “stickers”-suffixes which are added to the unchangeable root of the word. The suffixes are of great importance as they express the relations within the sentence. They are usually arranged in a strictly prescribed order and are subjected to certain regular phonetic changes (vowel or vocalic harmony) according to which the vowel of the preceding syllable influences thee vowel of the following one as in Turkish “degill mi-dir’ (kyrgyz эмес-би)” is it not?”, “soguk-mu-dur’ (kyrgyz суук-пу?) “is it cold?”, “bu sut-mu-dur?” (kyrgyz.бул сүт-пү?),”is this milk?” Vowel harminy is also found in some African languages. In agglutinative languages each suffix has its definite strictly limited meaning i.e. each suffix must express one definite grammatical meaning and each grammatical meaning is expressed by the same affix in whatever word it is required.

A typical example is the Turkish verb “de” which means “say” (imperative). “Di-yor” (kyrgyz айтып жатат) means “he is saying” The suffix “yor” expresses the aspect. In “di-yor-lar” (kyrgyz айтып жатышат) “they are saying” the suffix-lar signifies plurality. In the Russian word “руки” – “hands” the suffix “у” expresses the idea of plurality and the nominative case simultaneously. In the Tatar ward “kul-lar” (kyrgyz колдор), the “lar” conveys only the plural, but the nominative case which is expressed by another suffix. In Russian the same case of the same number of a diff-t word often has a diff-t gram-l ending- “в городе” (in the town) but “в степи” (in the

steppe). In the agglutinative languages one gram-l meaning is always expressed by a certain affix though the words are different, in these languages suffixes can go on being piled up on a word one after another and these complexes may be very long like the Turkish “dusdugumden yurugemem” because I fell, I cannot walk (kyrgyz Жыгылганымдан баса). Some more examples: Turkish “jolarda” (на дорогах); kyrgyz «жолдордо» (на дорогах); көлдөрдө (на озерах).

**2. The essential characteristic of flexional languages** is the inner flexion which has a gram-l meaning in many flexional languages; compare: “foot-feet”; the German “kommen”-to come-kam-came; the Arabic “gild”-skin; gulud-skins; the Russian “избегать-to avoid(imperfective aspect)- избежал (perfective aspect). Every affix expresses various meanings:-ing in English. The continuous tense form with the auxiliary verb and indicates the pres. Participle. Flexional languages are divided into synthetic (from Greek synthesis- combination) and analytic (from Greek analysis-separation). In the synthetic languages the grammatical relations between words are expressed by forms of the words themselves. In analytic languages the sentence is prime importance and gram-l meanings are expressed by words arranged in a fixed order.

But this does not mean that one group of languages is purely flexional and the other purely analytic. In flexional languages we sometimes observe analytic tendencies and vice versa. In no single do language we find either synthetic or analytic tendencies manifested purely and consistently. It is a relative question. Russian is synthetic in comparison with English but if we investigate it thoroughly we can certainly find many analytic features: the future tense of the verb “читать” (to read) in its imperfective aspect is expressed analytically-Я буду читать (I shall read) by means of an auxiliary verb.

**3. The isolating languages** are sometimes called amorphous (from Greek “a” (not) and morpheme (form) or formless) and grammatical relations are expressed in these languages by word order. The words in these languages do not depend upon one another because they are invariable in themselves and so to speak “isolated” in the sentence. The best specimen of isolating languages is the Chinese, monosyllabic and invariable. Every concept or relation is expressed by a word. These words are linked in a sentence without any changes in the form. Chinese words have a complete freedom of moving from one category to another, depending upon their use and position in the sentence. There are no formal distinctions between parts of speech, but Chinese is a tonal language the meaning of the words of the same structure is distinguished by tones which indicate the part of speech to be understood.

**4. These languages are more than ordinarily synthetic.** Sometimes these languages are called incorporating because the incorporation of affixes expressing different gram-l meaning into the verb is carried to such an extent that whole expression

forms one inseparable unity which can hardly be called either a word or a sentence into which several elements enter in hardly recognizable shape. Sapir a great specialist in polysynthetic languages gives the following example. The idea expressed in English by the sentence “I came to give to her” is rendered in Chinook (an Indian language of the Columbia river) by “i-n-i-a-l-u-d-am». This word consists of the root –d- to give);-i- indicates recently past time;-n- the pronominal subject “I”; the other –i- the pronominal object “it”: -a-the second pronominal object “her”;-l-is a prepositional element indicating that the preceding pronominal element indicating that the preceding pronominal prefix is to be understood as an indirect object (“her-to”, i.e. “to her”) and –u-indicates movement away from the speaker. The suffix-am-modifies the verbal content in a local sense (E. Sapir: Language, New York, p.73).

**5. Semite languages** belong to this language type. Vowels fulfill grammatical functions as the consonants fulfill lexical functions (teik-tuk). So we see that each language belongs to a definite language Type but it has some inner features of other language Types and we consider therefore a phenomenon typical when its general peculiarities are displayed in specific ones.

#### TASKS FOR CONTROL

##### 1. Definition Task

Define the term linguistic typology and explain its role in modern linguistics.

##### 2. Terminology Task

Explain the three meanings of the term “typology” in linguistics.

##### 3. Identification Task

Identify which of the following statements relate to historical typology:

1. Study of language development through historical stages.
2. Comparison of modern language structures.
3. Analysis of language changes across time.

Explain your choice.

##### 4. Matching Task

Match the terms with their correct definitions.

Terms

Definitions

- |                        |  |
|------------------------|--|
| a) Language type       | 1. Structural classification of languages                |
| b) Historical typology | 2. Study of language development through periods         |
| c) Linguistic typology | 3. Study of similarities and differences among languages |

##### 5. Table Completion Task

Complete the table by describing the typological characteristics of the languages.

| Language | Language Type | Example | Feature |
|----------|---------------|---------|---------|
| English  |               |         |         |
| Russian  |               |         |         |
| Kyrgyz   |               |         |         |

##### 6. True or False

Determine whether the statements are true or false.

1. Linguistic typology studies structural similarities between languages.
2. All languages belong to the same typological group.
3. Historical typology analyzes language changes over time.

4. Kyrgyz is an agglutinative language.

#### 7. Classification Task

Classify the following languages according to their morphological type:

- English
- Russian
- Kyrgyz
- Chinese

(analytic, synthetic, agglutinative, isolating)

#### 8. Short Essay Task

Write 6–8 sentences explaining the importance of historical typology in linguistics.

#### 9. Concept Explanation

Explain the difference between language type and type of language.

#### 10. Comparative Task

Compare analytic and agglutinative languages. Provide at least two examples of each type.

#### 11. Analytical Task

Analyze the following Kyrgyz word and explain its agglutinative structure:

Example: *үйлөрүбүздөн*

#### 12. Discussion Question

Why do linguists divide the history of a language into periods?

#### 13. Example Task

Give two examples of each morphological language type:

- Analytic
- Synthetic
- Agglutinative
- Isolating

#### 14. Research Task

Prepare a short report (5–7 minutes) about typological classification of the world's languages.

#### 15. Application Task

Explain how knowledge of linguistic typology helps in language learning and translation.

***В результате освоения лекции формируется ряд компетенций:***

- способен применять методы, приемы анализа, интерпретации, обработки, создания и трансформации различных типов и видов текстов (ПК-12);

#### **Литература:**

1. Лисс А. Н. и др. Обзорные лекции по сравнительной типологии английского, русского, кыргызского языков. Фрунзе: 1988.
2. Аракин В. Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков -2-е изд. -П.: Просвещения, 1989
3. Аракин Б. Д. Типология языков и проблема методического прогнозирования. М.. Высшая школа, 1989

## **Lecture 3**

### **Levels of typological investigations**

Most of the typological investigations are considered to be the typology of subsystems (i.e. part of the whole system). Linguistic levels are as follows: **1. Phonological; 2. Morphological; 3. Syntactical; 4. Lexical;**

**1. Phonological level.** The main unit of this level is the phoneme. The phoneme is the smallest general representation of the given language which is able to associate with the meaning representation and to differentiate words.

Although the phonemes of English, Russian, Kyrgyz, differ considerably in their qualities, their number is about the same: there are 39 phonemes in Russian, 40 in English, 39 in Kyrgyz.

According to N. S. Trubetskoy a famous linguist who knew many languages, the number phonemes has been to range from little more than 20 in some Polynesian languages to about 75 certain Caucasian dialects. In French and German, although the qualities of phonemes differ widely, their quality is about the same too, 35 phonemes in French and 36 in German.

**2. Morphological level.** This level deals with the structure of words with the forms word changing: with the ways of expressing of grammatical meaning, with the part of speech. The main unit of this level is the morpheme. The morpheme is the elementary meaningful part of the word. It is built up by phonemes, so that short phonemes include only one phoneme. E.g. ros-y [i], fire, come-s [z]. The morpheme expresses abstract significative meanings which are used constituents for the formation of more concrete nominative meanings of words. There are two kinds of morphemes root and affixial morphemes. Affixial morphemes are subdivided into a) word changing b) word building.

In all Germanic languages word changing and word building morphemes coincide (speaks- book, the verb morpheme –ing and the noun morpheme –ing-coincide too). The root morpheme and affixial word-changing morpheme make up a word form (e.g. cag-cagy-caga). A morpheme usually has more than one meaning. All lexical meanings one word fall into one group called a **lexeme**. All the grammatical meanings of a word fall into one group **grammeme**. So each word of a lexeme represents a certain grammeme and each word of a grammeme represents a certain lexeme. The set of a grammemes represented by all the words of a lexeme forms a paradigm. Grammatical categories are generalized grammatical meanings characteristic of a certain language that are expressed in changes in the form of words and combinations of words and in sentences.

Each grammatical category is a generalized character. This means that it embraces a whole group of words that is larger in number with higher degree of abstraction. The degree of abstraction is different in various grammatical categories. Some are very abstract such as mood, others are influenced by the lexical meanings of words. The degree of abstraction depends on the range of the grammatical category. For instance, the grammatical category of genitive case in particular in the context of the case in general. That's why we have grammatical categories of general tense and

particular tenses of a verb: of aspects in general, and perfective and imperfective aspects in particular and so on.

**3. The main units of this level are:** a) a word-combination b) the sentence a word combination is a combination two or more notional words built up according to a definite syntactic pattern and fulfilling a nominative function (e.g. **НОВЫЕ ЧАСЫ** - a new watch - **ЖАҢЫ СААТ**). The sentence is immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose. Any coherent connection of words having an informative destination is effected within the frame fork of the sentence. Therefore the sentence is the main object of syntax as part of the grammatical theory. The sentence being composed of words may in certain cases include only one word of various lexico-grammatical standing

**4. The word is the main typological unit** of the word stock of a language. A group of words united by some common features is defined as lexeme. All the lexical meanings of the word “runs” inherent in the morpheme “run”- unite this word with “to run” running will run, shall run, has run, had run, is running, was running etc. into one group called a lexeme. The number of words in an English lexeme may vary from one (must, milk, woolen, always) to several dozen (writes, wrote, will write, shall write, am writing, was writing, were writing). The lexeme represents by “write” contain 94 words expressed by 64 forms of these only 10 words have synthetic forms, five in number. Here they are:

1. write (infinitive, indicative, subjunctive, imperative):
2. writes (indicative):
3. wrote (indicative, subjunctive):
4. writing (gerund, participle 1):
5. written (participle 2).

Words are used independently sometimes English has many words with an indefinite meaning (meals, to have a meal, to assume a meal). English and French are not aware of a such word as “сутки”. Every language has its own system of word formation, consisting of derivation and word-composition, e.g. Many English words are formed without affixes (**cordial-сердечный**, a **cordial- лекарство для сердце**).

The phenomenon of likening was called isomorphism in typology (from Greek – “iros” - equal; and “marph”- “form”- equal formed). Allomorphism shows the differences in the structure of language units of one level. Thus for instance: “I shall read.”- «Я буду читать « (allomorphism) “I shall read.” – Jag skall laza (isomorphism).

We can also see identical processes of the phoneme development in some languages. Thus for instance:

1. [k] changed into [z]; [k]-[ts]- cild (O.E.) – child (M.E.)
2. [s] changed into [h] lat. “sal;” Russ. “соль” - Greek – Hals (галоиды).  
Tatar Суз - Bashkir хуз (слово) \_\_\_\_ “\_\_сүт\_\_” \_\_ hym.

3. Typology investigates all the languages of the world. Universals (lat. “universus – всеобщий”) are general phenomena for all the languages. Thus, for instance, a sentence is a universal unit. A word combination is not a universal unit. Vowels and consonants are universals. But on the one hand the phenomenon consonant is universal on the other hand it is single or no universal, as finish has no siblings. So universals are called those phenomena which qualitatively prevail or predominate in many languages.

4. There are two ways of carrying out contrastive investigations of languages. Firstly comparison of two or more languages with so called language standard. Thus for example English, German, French, Latin, Greek may be compared with the old Indo- European language which is considered to be the language standard (Sanskrit). Secondly comparison of two languages without the language standard our mother tongue (Russian, Kyrgyz).

**5. Contrastive Typology** is based on all the theoretical courses;

1. The history of the English language gives the possibility to understand the development of English diachronically and synchronically.
2. Practical and Theoretical grammars describe the language system consisting of general and specific features.
3. Theoretical course of phonetics shows the phonetic structure of languages.
4. The course of lexicology describes 1. the word formation system of a language; 2. the productive means of a word – combination.

### **TASKS FOR CONTROL**

#### 1. Definition Task

Define the term typological investigation and explain what linguistic aspects it studies.

#### 2. Identification Task

List the main levels of typological investigations in linguistics (phonological, morphological, lexical, syntactic, etc.) and briefly describe each level.

#### 3. Matching Task

Match the concepts with their correct definitions.

Concepts

Definitions

- |                        |  |
|------------------------|--|
| a) Isomorphism         | 1. Differences in language structures            |
| b) Allomorhism         | 2. Similar structural features between languages |
| c) Language universals | 3. Features common to all human languages        |

#### 4. True or False Task

1. Isomorphism refers to similarities between languages.
2. Allomorhism refers to structural differences between languages.
3. Language universals are features present in all languages.
4. Typology is not related to other linguistic disciplines.

#### 5. Table Completion Task

Complete the table by describing the typological levels.

| Level         | Object of Study | Example |
|---------------|-----------------|---------|
| Phonological  |                 |         |
| Morphological |                 |         |
| Syntactic     |                 |         |
| Lexical       |                 |         |

#### 6. Comparative Task

Give two examples of isomorphic features and two examples of allomorphic features when comparing English, Russian, and Kyrgyz.

#### 7. Short Essay Task

Write 6–8 sentences explaining the concept of language universals and their importance in linguistics.

#### 8. Discussion Question

Why are language universals important for understanding the structure of human languages?

#### 9. Classification Task

Classify the following examples as isomorphic or allomorphic features:

- Presence of vowels and consonants in languages
- Different word order in English and Kyrgyz
- Use of nouns and verbs in all languages

#### 10. Analytical Task

Explain the difference between absolute universals and statistical universals in linguistics.

#### 11. Terminology Task

Explain the meaning of language standards and their role in linguistic research.

#### 12. Application Task

Explain how typology is connected with other linguistic disciplines, such as phonetics, grammar, and lexicology.

#### 13. Example Task

Provide two examples of language universals found in the world's languages.

#### 14. Research Task

Prepare a short presentation (5–7 minutes) about theories of isomorphism and allomorphism with examples from English, Russian, and Kyrgyz

#### 15. Problem-Solving Task

Analyze the following sentences in English, Russian, and Kyrgyz and determine whether their grammatical structure shows isomorphism or allomorphism.

Example sentences:

- English: *I read the book.*
- Russian: *Я читаю книгу.*
- Kyrgyz: *Мен китепти окуйм.*

Explain your answer.

#### ***В результате освоения лекции формируется ряд компетенций:***

- способен самостоятельно анализировать и интерпретировать с лингвистической (и литературоведческой) точки зрения различные типы текстов (ПК-13);

#### ***Литература:***

1. Лисс А. Н. и др. Обзорные лекции по сравнительной типологии английского, русского, кыргызского языков. Фрунзе: 1988.
2. Аракин В. Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков -2-е изд. -П.: Просвещения, 1989
3. Аракин Б. Д. Типология языков и проблема методического прогнозирования. М.. Высшая школа, 1989

## **Lecture 4**

### **History of typological investigations**

**I.** The period from 1600 to 1800 was the period of comparison of old and modern cognate languages. Then language of different types were (part) put forward. Wilhelm von Humboldt (1767-1835), a prominent German linguist and philosopher with a considerable knowledge of languages, tried to discover general laws of linguistic development. He became the founder of linguistic Typological investigations and proposed a typological classification of languages based on the structural principle denying the genealogical one. His classification was as follows:

1. Isolating Languages;
2. Agglutinative languages;
3. Flexional languages;
4. Incorporating or polysynthetic languages.

His classification was called the morphological classification of languages. Humboldt thought that language types exist because of the so-called “national psychology”. He was sure of the fact that all the amorphous languages will develop into flexional ones. He treated all these 4 groups as various logical stages of a single linguistic development.

**II.** As long ago as the beginning of the 19<sup>th</sup> century linguists were trying to classify different types of languages. Friedrich Schlegel (1772-1829) considered that there was a sharp dividing line between flexional and non-flexional languages into three groups:

1. Languages with put any grammatical structure (grammatical relations are expressed by word-order).
2. Languages which use offixes.
3. Languages without inflexions.

August Schleicher (1821-1868), also a German linguist, who founded a naturalistic theory of language, accepted the three-fold classifications. He insisted that linguistics was a natural science, and language an object of nature, just as much as a plant is. It is true that he claimed to be a follower of Humboldt with regard to the division of languages; but as a matter of fact he was not. He was a fine follower of the German philosopher Hegel, and as a Hegelian, he wanted to keep the three fold classification. His scheme of classification runs as follows:

Class I – Isolating or root languages (Chinese, Burmese).

Class II – Agglutinative languages (Turkish, Finish, Tibetan).

Class III – Flexional languages (Gemitic, Indo-European).

The most important point about Schleicher theory is its idolisms, manifesting itself in two periods of linguistic development, a prehistoric period of progress, solution or construction with the richness of forms, and a historical period of decay or destruction. Schleicher's theory, in the form in which it was expounded, says that an originally isolating language, consisting of formless roots passed through an agglutinative stage, the main part of the word was unchanged, while formal elements could be added as prefixes or suffixes. According to Schleicher, this period of the life of a language is characterized by the perfection and wealth of forms. The third stage was flexion, the root being subject to change to express modifications of the meaning, specialty for grammatical purposes. So, three types of languages as the starting point. The grammatical forms of the modern languages have become shorter, fewer, simpler, more abstract and more regular.

F. F. Fortunatov (1348-1914), a prominent Russian linguist and professor of the Moscow University, put forward his own morphological classification of languages based on the form and structure of word.

To his mind, all the languages of the world may be classified into the following five types:

1. Flexional languages (Indo- European).
2. Flexional-agglutinative (Semantic languages)
3. Agglutinative languages, were affixes with one particular meaning are stuck on to an unchangeable root (Turkish)
4. Isolating languages (absence of conjugation and any word-form).
5. Polysynthetic (American Indian Languages).

The Fortunatov's classification is very logical but its main drawback is that it leaves such languages as Greenlandic, Georgian, Malayan, and some others out of all theoretical consideration.

**III.** The Czech linguist V. Mathezius – the founder of the Prague circle – tried to work out typological characteristics of all the languages but he couldn't bring them together. All the features were alienated from each other. The German linguist P. Hartman while describing modern languages, especially non-Indo-European ones compares them with Indo-European languages, opening some additional features of flexional languages.

**IV.** Ivan Ivanovich Meshchaninov (1883-1967) investigated the Urartu language (old Armenian), Caucasian languages and some languages of Asia.

Some languages have an ergative structure. The actor (agens) is not used in the nominative case in these languages. The ergative case is sometimes called "actor's case" and it is used with the nominative one simultaneously. The object of the action

can be expressed by the Nominative case. Georgian, Adigey and the languages of Dagestan (Lack, Dargin) have the ergative case.

Thus, for instance, Нашего соседа сбило машиной. Here the actor is «машиной» (instrumental case); «сбило» (neuter, past tense); Мне жалко (больно). Es tut mir weh (German). English has no expressions of such a kind (me thinks).

Academician Meshchaninov distinguishes 3 groups of languages:

- I. Languages with a passive structure (Мне хочется – me is wanted) in which the actor is passive.
- II. Ergative languages (Caucasian and the languages of the Pamirs).
- III. Nominative languages (when the nominative case coincides with the actor).

Meshchaninov classified the types of languages on the basis of word combinations. A.V. Isachenko distinguished two types of languages on the quantitative basis of vowels and on the basis of musical stress:

1. Vocalic Type which has the following features:
  - a) the tendency to vocalize the consonants. “Byk” (Serbo - Croation) “BZJKЪ” (slavik).
  - b) the use of consonant phonemes in the syllably function – “TpГ” (serbo-croatian) – «Topr» (slavic).
  - c) Insertion of vowels into groups of consonants and formation of new syllables – ‘nerav’ (serbo-croatian) – heps (slavic).
  - d) Simplification of double consonants.
2. Consonant Type which has the following features:
  - a) correlation of consonants on hardness-softness;
  - b) preservation of double consonants. The Russian language belongs to the consonant type.

### **TASKS FOR CONTROL**

#### 1. Definition Task

Define linguistic typology and explain its role in the study of language structures.

#### 2. Historical Question

Explain why Wilhelm von Humboldt is considered the founder of linguistic typology. What were his main ideas about language classification?

#### 3. Identification Task

List the main stages in the development of typological investigations in linguistics.

#### 4. Matching Task

Match the concepts with their correct explanations.

| Concepts                     | Explanations  |
|------------------------------|---|
| a) Classificational typology | 1. Classification of languages according to structural features         |
| b) Linguistic characterology | 2. Study of individual characteristics of languages                     |
| c) Gradual opposition        | 3. Comparison of linguistic features according to degrees of difference |

#### 5. True or False Task

1. Wilhelm von Humboldt contributed to the development of linguistic typology.
2. Classificational typology studies only vocabulary.
3. Linguistic characterology analyzes unique features of languages.
4. Modern typology studies similarities and differences between languages.

#### 6. Short Essay Task

Write 6–8 sentences about the contribution of Wilhelm von Humboldt to linguistic typology.

#### 7. Table Completion Task

Complete the table describing typological approaches.

| Typological Approach        | Main Idea | Example |
|-----------------------------|-----------|---------|
| Classificational typology   |           |         |
| Characterological typology  |           |         |
| Gradual opposition typology |           |         |

#### 8. Discussion Question

What is meant by grouping of separate linguistic phenomena, and why is it important in typological research?

#### 9. Analytical Task

Explain the difference between classificational typology and characterological typology.

#### 10. Example Task

Give examples of linguistic features that can be grouped in typological research (phonological, morphological, syntactic).

#### 11. Concept Explanation

Explain the concept of gradual opposition in typology and provide an example.

#### 12. Comparative Task

Compare the typological features of English, Russian, and Kyrgyz according to their morphological structure.

#### 13. Research Task

Prepare a short presentation (5–7 minutes) about modern trends in linguistic typology.

#### 14. Critical Thinking Task

Why has typological research become more important in modern linguistics?

#### 15. Application Task

Explain how the history of typological investigations influences modern comparative linguistic studies.

***В результате освоения лекции формируется ряд компетенций:***

- способен самостоятельно анализировать и интерпретировать с лингвистической (и литературоведческой) точки зрения различные типы текстов (ПК-13);

#### **Литература:**

1. Лисс А. Н. и др. Обзорные лекции по сравнительной типологии английского, русского, кыргызского языков. Фрунзе: 1988.

2. Аракин В. Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков -2-е изд. -П.: Просвещения, 1989

3. Аракин В. Д. Типология языков и проблема методического прогнозирования. М.. Высшая школа, 1989

## **Lecture 5**

### **Methods of contrastive typological analysis**

In contrast with genetic and a real linguistics “typological comparison” is not based on concrete linguistic data, or careful investigations of factors of time and space.

Its starting point is the idea of general linguistic isomorphism, abstract systems of linguistic invariants. The historical comparative method proceeds from the possibility for different languages to have been originated from the same source, from a parent language. Such features of resemblance between languages that clearly prove their common origin. These features belong to the most stable component parts of language – to the basic word stock and, above all, to the fund of grammatical affixes, because grammatical forms, as a rule, are never borrowed by one language by another.

If one knows the forms of one unit in different languages, one can find out rules of the development of a proper word. We are not interested in meaning in this case. This can be illustrated by the following example: “to twenty”, zu-zwanzig; Eng. (t) will always correspond to German (z).

But the development in each language was going on using its own laws-In English. “tide” meant “прилив, отлив”; in German “zeit ”-время: In old English and old German they were alike: “tide-zeit ”-“tid-zit”: ut even nowadays the word “tide” has its original meaning; “spring tide”- весенняя пора(поводок); “jule tide”- святочное время!

The historical comparative method has certain limitations:

1. It can be chiefly applied to languages with ancient writing that is to languages having a long written tradition or history.
2. It is applied only to the comparative study of kindred languages.

But to understand the innermost nature of language, all the languages must be studied in comparison and not only kindred ones. To bridge the gap, modern linguistics is developing the typological study of languages, both- kindred and non –kindred. Typological comparison differs from that of historical. Typology compares related and non-related languages Typology is interested in the community of functions of difficult languages.

Thus, for instance: a- singular: Turkish- ev; Kyrghyz- үй; Russian- дом; English- houses; In plural they have a general feature- the morpheme of number. C) Turkish- kardesimden bir mektup aldim; Kyrghyz- Агамдан бир кат алдым; Russian- Я получил письмо от своего брата; English I’ve got a letter from my brother. In the Turkish language, we have one word. In English and Russian –three. Kyrghyz variant coincides with the Turkish one.

The morpheme “im” corresponds to the English possessive pronoun “my”. The morpheme “den” to the preposition “from”. So, we see here general functions. The variable value is the means of expression. The permanent value- the community of thought.

2. Ch. Fries in his book “The structure of English” describes the distributional pattern of the sentence. This pattern expresses a definite sequence of words (part of

speech used in difficult forms). In other words by this term we understand the position which lexical units occupy in the text or in the flow of speech. Thus, for instance, the sentence “The old man saw a black dog there” has the following distribution:

$$D \begin{matrix} 3 \\ \frac{1a}{he} \end{matrix}, \text{ where } D \begin{matrix} - \\ \pm \end{matrix}, D \begin{matrix} 3 \\ \frac{1b}{he/she/it} \end{matrix} 4,$$

where D- determiner; 3-adjective; 1-he- noun, singular, masculine; -verb, past tense, singular or plural. 1-he, she, it-noun, singular, neuter or feminine; 4-adverb; F-preposition; a, b-denote different objects or persons.

Distributional analysis is not confined to the analysis of the part of speech level or in general on the grammatical level but is extended to the lexical level. Ch.C.Fries gives his pattern as a simple linear succession of words of definite classes in definite forms. It is impossible to differ such simple different constructions which correspond to one distributional pattern.

Thus, for instance, the following two sentences: “The police shot the man in the red cap”. And: “The police shot the man in the right arm ” have one and the same structural character.

$$D \begin{matrix} 1a \\ + \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} 2 \\ + \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} - \\ d \end{matrix} D \begin{matrix} 1b \\ he \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} t \\ f \end{matrix} D \begin{matrix} 3 \\ \frac{1c}{it} \end{matrix} .$$

We can say the same about these two word combinations: “English verbs and adverbs” and “Old man and children ”

**3.** The theory of Immediate Constituents (IC) was originally elaborated as an attempt to determine the way in which words in the sentence are relevantly related to one another. It was discovered that combinations of such units are usually structured into hierarchically arranged sets of binary constructions. Thus, the sentence- division of “The old man saw a black dog there” according to immediate Constituents Analysis goes as follows:

The old man/ saw a black dog there.

The// old man /saw a black dog //there.

The //old/// man/ saw ///a black dog// there

The //old ///man /saw ///a ///black dog //there

The //old ///man /saw ///a ///black ////dog there

The IC model is more powerful than the linear model. It has certain advantages as a generative model because it indicates the groupings of the IC and it shows the order in which the generating of a sentence must proceed. In spite of certain merits it is open to the criticism. First, if the sentence is expanded, then the rewrite rules become too numerous to hold and the generation of the sentence hinders. The interrogative and passive sentence-structures must have different sets of rules, which are difficult or impossible to work out on the dichotomous scheme. There is another demerit in the IC

model: the model cannot sometimes show that the relations between the elements of the two sentences are different. Thus for instance: “John is easy to please”, and “John is eager to please”, have the same derivation tree showing the IC of the sentences. Only the transformations of the two sentences can show the difference of the relations of their elements that is that “John” is subject of please in “is eager to please”, but object in “is easy to please”. The following transformations will prove it: “It easily pleases John”, “We can (easily) please John”, “For us to please John is easy”, and “John eagerly pleases everybody”, “John can please people”, “For John to please people is a pleasure”.

4. The fundamental problems of the T-grammar are:

1. The establishment of the domain of the kernel sentences
2. The establishment of the set of transformation rules for deriving all the other sentences as their transforms.

Some transformations are operated not upon one of the kernel sentences, but they may be operated upon some “underlying” sentence, which is a transform of the kernel sentence. Thus, a third and less important problem of the T-grammar is the establishment of the order in which the transformations occur.

Transformational pattern includes the IC pattern and is wider in its investigation. It investigates relations between sentences of different structures, where one pattern derives from another. Kernel structures come out on the syntactical level. There are 7 kernel structures.

1. NV- John came
2. NV p N-John looked at Marry
3. NVN- John saw Marry
4. N is N – John is a teacher
5. N is p N-John is in bed
6. N is D-John is out
7. N is A-John is angry

The nouns (N) may be extended by means of difficult determiners (article, pronouns, etc.); the verbs (v) by means of adverbs and adverbial groups. By means of combinations of these kernel sentences and different transformations with them, one can make out other structures of English sentences.

Thus, for example, the sentence “The old man saw a black dog there”. May be constructed out of the three kernel structures by means of transformation.

1. The //man/saw///a////dog//there
2. The //man/was//old
3. The//dog/ was// black

t // N / V /// + ///N //D

t // N / was // A

t // N / was // A

## TASKS FOR CONTROL

### 1. Definition Task

Define contrastive analysis and explain its importance in typological investigations.

### 2. Concept Explanation

Explain the main principles of distributional analysis in linguistics

### 3. Terminology Task

What is meant by Immediate Constituents (IC) Analysis? Describe its main purpose in syntactic studies.

### 4. Analytical Task

Explain the concept of transformational analysis and its role in studying sentence structure.

### 5. Matching Task

Match the methods with their descriptions.

| Methods                            | Descriptions  |
|------------------------------------|---|
| a) Contrastive analysis            | 1. Study of sentence transformations                          |
| b) Distributional analysis         | 2. Comparison of linguistic structures in different languages |
| c) Immediate Constituents analysis | 3. Analysis of language units according to their distribution |
| d) Transformational analysis       | 4. Division of sentences into their structural components     |

### 6. True or False Task

1. Contrastive analysis compares linguistic systems of two or more languages.
2. Distributional analysis studies the position of language units in speech.
3. Immediate Constituents analysis divides sentences into smaller structural parts.
4. Transformational analysis examines sentence transformations.

### 7. Table Completion Task

Complete the table describing methods of typological analysis.

| Method                    | Object of Study | Example |
|---------------------------|-----------------|---------|
| Contrastive analysis      |                 |         |
| Distributional analysis   |                 |         |
| IC analysis               |                 |         |
| Transformational analysis |                 |         |

### 8. Example Task

Provide an example of contrastive analysis comparing a sentence in English, Russian, and Kyrgyz.

Example:

English: *She reads a book.*

### 9. Structural Analysis Task

Using Immediate Constituents analysis, divide the sentence into its main components:

*The students are reading an interesting book.*

### 10. Distributional Task

Analyze the distribution of adjectives in English and Kyrgyz sentences.

Example:

- English: *a beautiful house*
- Kyrgyz: *кooз yŭ*

### 11. Transformational Task

Transform the sentence into different grammatical forms using transformational analysis.

Example sentence:

*They study English.*

Transform into:

- Negative form
- Interrogative form
- Passive form

#### 12. Short Essay Task

Write 6–8 sentences explaining the importance of contrastive analysis in foreign language teaching.

#### 13. Comparative Task

Explain how distributional analysis and transformational analysis differ in their methods and objectives.

#### 14. Discussion Question

Why is it important to use different analytical methods in typological investigations?

#### 15. Research Task

Prepare a short report (5–7 minutes) describing the main methods used in contrastive typological research with examples.

#### ***В результате освоения лекции формируется ряд компетенций:***

- способен самостоятельно анализировать и интерпретировать с лингвистической (и литературоведческой) точки зрения различные типы текстов (ПК-13);

#### **Литература:**

1. Лисс А. Н. и др. Обзорные лекции по сравнительной типологии английского, русского, кыргызского языков. Фрунзе: 1988.

2. Аракин В. Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков -2-е изд. -П.: Просвещение, 1989

3. Аракин Б. Д. Типология языков и проблема методического прогнозирования. М.. Высшая школа, 1989

## **Lecture 6**

### **Typology of phonological systems**

It was observed a long that all the sounds in any language have the same valley. The difference lies much deeper than the difference in the acoustic pronunciation of sounds. Sometimes sounds differ slightly in pronunciation but this difference is quite irrelevant. In English, for instance, the (t) of “time” is distinctly different from that of “sting”, but the difference is not important. In such English words as “back” and “bag” the meaning is different. What makes it different? Probably, the two ending sounds.

All these considerations lead us to the conclusion that in language, not all sounds have equal values sounds must be classified according to the function they perform in the language, and from this point of view speech sounds and phonemes ought to be distinguished. Russian linguistics regard a phoneme as the smallest unit of a sound, which serves to distinguish the significant units of language: words and morphemes.

The phoneme and the speech sound do not coincide; the phoneme, may consist not only of one speech – sound (Russian “ura” – “hurrah” English “cot”), but of two speech sounds (English “house”, German “heute” to-day“).

Two phonemes may be combined in one sound as in the Russian “ṣit”, perceptive aspect of the verb “ṣit-to sow”, where the two phonemes s and ṣ are combined into one phoneme [S] which is long here.

The same feature of a phoneme in different languages may have a different functional character: in Russian the voiced\voiceless feature is neutralized at the end of a word as, for example. In the words “prut” (twig) and “prud” (pronounced as a prut), whereas in English. This feature distinguishes between the meaning of such words as “bat” and “bad”. Although the phonemes of English and Russian differ considerably in their qualities, their number is about the same; there are 39 phonemes in Russian and 40 in English.

The phonology of any language is not a chaotic enumeration of speech sounds and sound combinations but a system embracing the quantity and pattern of phonemes, different kinds of distinctive features, and their distribution. The phonological level consists of:

1. Phonemes which form the linear row in language
2. Supra – segmental elements: a) stress; b) intonation

There are 12 monophthongs in English, 6 in Russian and 14 in Kyrghyz language. English has 8 diphthongs while Russian and Kyrghyz have no diphthongs at all. In English we can discover 4 long and 8 short vowels. The Kyrghyz language has 8 short and 6 long vowels. Russian vowels are not divided into short and long ones. English vowels are divided according: a) to the position of the tongue; b) the quality of rises; c) the position of the lips; d) to the place of articulation. Kyrghyz vowels are divided according the position of the tongue and the participation of the lips. The other two principles are of no importance for the Kyrghyz language.

English, Russian, Kyrghyz consonants are classified according to:

1. The degree of noise;
2. The manner of articulation;
3. The work of vocal cords;
4. The force of articulation.

English has 24 consonants; Russian – 35, Kyrghyz – 25. There are no consonants of such type as we have in English. [w], [Ø], [È] [dʒ] in Russian and Kyrghyz. But English has no [ɯ], [ɰ]. The voiceless Russian and Kyrghyz [n], [m], [c], [ɰ], [k] correspond to English [p], [t], [s], [ʃ], [k]. the difference is that the English ones are pronounced with aspiration.

Assimilation’s widely used in Kyrghyz language. Thus for instance “чык+ба=чыкпа”, «ак+гүл= ак күл», «так+га=такка». In English we have the same phenomena but not very often - “does she?”

The typical peculiarities of phonological systems of the compared languages include the definition of typical qualities of supra – segmental phonological means – such as “Stress and Intonation”. Phono – linguistically word – stress may be defined as a definite system of intensity distribution in the syllabic structure of simple and compound words of a certain language, thanks to which the word functions in speech as a semantic unit.

It is stress that helps us to differ the words [ə'blakbo:d] from the free word combinations [ə'blak'bo:d]. In English by means of stress we can distinguish sometimes parts of speech ([im'po:t] - noun; to [im'po:t] - verb). In Russian by means of stress we can distinguish words and some forms of a word. As for example, in zamok [zamok] and zamok [zamok]; ruki (nominative case, plural) and ruki (genitive case, singular).

Stress in English and Russian is free. It means that different syllables can be under stress, though each words different forms of the same word are stressed on a definite syllable. Stress in Kyrghyz is fixed on the final syllable. Languages differ from one another in principal means by which the special prominence of speech sounds is achieved and word accent thus effected. Therefore types of word accent are distinguish first of all according to the articulatory means by which it is effected.

One of such means is the pronunciation of a syllable in a word with greater force of utterance as compared with that of the other called dynamic, or force stress. English and Russian belong to the languages with a dynamic stress. Kyrghyz belongs to the languages with a strict stress. Let's pass over to word stress. In Russian the vowel in an unstressed syllable differs qualitatively from the stressed one. So, the vowel [o] in an unstressed position changes into [ɫ], the vowel [ə] in an unstressed syllable is pronounced as [b], e.g. god [got], goda [gada] etc.

In English together with the neutral vowel [ə] which is usually unstressed some vowels of full formation in an unstressed syllable are pronounced without any changes in their quality, as in; [a:tistik] - artistic; [ai'die] - idea etc. Thus, Russians make mistakes while pronouncing such English words: [,eksplɔi'teishn] - exploitation. Vowels being unstressed are not changed qualitatively. In accordance with the rules of pronunciation in Russian students pronounce [eksple'teishn].

As far as the Kyrghyz language is concerned loan words are stressed as in the language from which they were borrowed. Sentence stress is also of great importance for typical investigations. In comparing word stress and sentence we see that their functions are different/ the function of word – stress is to mark the word by indicating the strongest syllable in a word.

The function of sentence – stress is different and more complicated:

1. Sentence – stress indicates the end of the syntagm by means of strengthening the last stress by a definite pitch-pattern and sometimes by a pause.

2. Sentence – stress is used to indicate the important words in a syntagm. In accordance with these functions we may distinguish three types of sentence – stress: 1) unemphatic or normal sentence – stress; 2) logical sentence – stress;

3) emphatic sentence stress. In Russian, for example, not only notional words are under stress (nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs), but structural too (personal, possessive pronoun, auxiliary verbs and prepositions; «Он по’шел до’мой. ‘Вот ‘наша ‘школа, ‘мы ‘будем, ‘читать»). We don’t see any opposition of words here - Он по’шел до’мой but English personal and possessive pronouns being under sentence stress must be in opposition. Prepositions are very seldom under stress. Auxiliary verbs are under stress at the beginning of the sentence: ‘have you been to London? ‘ shall we read this lesson? Compare the above-mentioned Russian sentence with English ones where personal and possessive pronouns, auxiliary verbs prepositions are not stressed: ‘he ‘went ‘home; ‘That is our school’; ‘We shall ‘read; ‘He ‘looked at the floor. Divergences of sentences – stress in English and Russian cause mistakes of Russian students in the use of sentence – stress in English. In the Kyrgyz language sentence – stress fulfills the same function.

Intonation is complex unity of four components formed by communicatively relevant variations in: a) voice pitch or speech melody; b) the prominence of words or their accent; c) the tempo, rhythm and pausation of the utterance; d) voice timbre. This complex unity serves to express adequately, on the basis of proper grammatical structure and lexical composition of the sentence, the speaker’s or writer’s thoughts, volition, emotions, feelings and attitudes towards reality and the contents of the sentence.

The importance of intonation can be seen in the case of pronouncing this sentence, for example:

- 1) Ты ‘едешь в Мо’скву. Сен Москвага барата’сың
- 2) Ты ’едешь в Москву? Сен Москвага ’баратасың’бы?
- 3) ’’Ты ’’едешь в Мос’кву. ’Сен Москвага баратасың.
- 4) ’’Ты едешь в Москву?! Сен Москвага баратасың,?!’

Some of the components of intonation constitute their minimal distinctive features, such as sense group and sentence tonemes and accertemes. They are minimal distinctive features of intonation because they are capable of performing certain distinctive functions by themselves, independently from other components of intonations. It is affected by the combined action of two or more components of intonation or by a combination may be called an intoneme. Suppose, we hear the

announcement “The heroes have arrived” if we know nothing about them we may ask an ordinary special question. “What heroes,?” or “What, heroes”

This sentence differs from the first of all components of intonation. The range of the terminal tone is much wider, the overall pitch level is higher and the pitch range wider, the sentence stresses are much greater. The rate of utterance is slower, the total duration greater and the voice-timber is different.

In short, it is a different intonation, which is the hierarchically highest phonological unit of language having the same three functions as all the other phonological units and enabling the adequate functioning of language as the most important means of human intercommunication.

**Table of Intonational Syntagms**

| <b>Types of syntagms</b> | <b>Sybtypes of Syntagms</b> | <b>Russian</b> | <b>English</b> | <b>Kyrgyz</b> |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------|----------------|---------------|
| Descending scale         | a) falling terminal term    | +              | +              | +             |
|                          | b) rising terminal term     | +              | +              | +             |
|                          | c) leveled terminal term    | +              | +              | +             |
| Ascending scale          | a) rising terminal term     | +              | -              | -             |
|                          | b) falling terminal term    | +              | -              | -             |
| Leveled scale            |                             | +              | -              | -             |

**TASKS FOR CONTROL**

1. Definition Task

Define the following terms based on the text:

- a) phoneme
- b) speech sound
- c) suprasegmental elements

2. True or False

Decide whether the following statements are true or false:

1. All sounds in a language have the same linguistic value.
2. A phoneme is the smallest unit that distinguishes meaning.
3. English has 12 monophthongs.
4. Russian vowels are divided into long and short.
5. Kyrgyz language has diphthongs.

### 3. Comprehension Question

Explain the difference between a phoneme and a speech sound.

### 4. Identification Task

Find examples from the text that show how different phonemes change the meaning of words (minimal pairs).

### 5. Table Completion

Complete the table using information from the text.

| Language | Number of Phonemes | Number of Vowels | Number of Consonants |
|----------|--------------------|------------------|----------------------|
| English  |                    |                  |                      |
| Russian  |                    |                  |                      |
| Kyrgyz   |                    |                  |                      |

### 6. Analytical Task

Explain what is meant by neutralization of voiced and voiceless consonants in Russian.

### 7. Comparative Task

Compare vowel systems in English, Russian, and Kyrgyz. Identify two main differences.

### 8. Classification Task

List the four principles used for classifying consonants in English, Russian, and Kyrgyz.

### 9. Example Task

Give two examples of assimilation in Kyrgyz mentioned in the text.

### 10. Short Answer Question

What are the two main components of the phonological level?

### 11. Stress Analysis

Explain the difference between stress systems in:

- English
- Russian
- Kyrgyz

### 12. Practical Exercise

Identify the difference in meaning caused by stress in English words:

- 'import (noun)
- im'port (verb)

Explain how stress changes the grammatical category.

### 13. Discussion Question

Why do Russian-speaking learners often make pronunciation mistakes in English unstressed vowels?

### 14. Intonation Analysis

List the four components of intonation mentioned in the text.

### 15. Interpretation Task

Explain the three types of sentence stress:

1. Unemphatic (normal) sentence stress
2. Logical sentence stress
3. Emphatic sentence stress

Give a short example for each.

***В результате освоения лекции формируется ряд компетенций:***

- способен самостоятельно анализировать и интерпретировать с лингвистической (и литературоведческой) точки зрения различные типы текстов (ПК-13);

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## **Lecture 7**

### **Typology of nominal categories**

Russian nouns, pronouns, adjectives, and numerals are declined, that is they change according to a certain system of cases and numbers. For example, the noun “стол” in the sentence “книга на столе”. The form “стол” the nominative case of the singular “стол” the prepositional of the same number. The Russian system of declension is constituted by 6 cases: Nominative, Accusative, Genitive, Dative and Instrumental and Prepositional and two numbers: Singular and Plural. English has only two forms: The common (unmarked) and the possessive cases.

The Kyrgyz language has 6 cases:

1. Атооч – Ким? Эмне? (Nominative)
2. Илик- Кимдин? Эмненин? (Genitive)
3. Барыш- Кимге? Эмнеге? (Dative)
4. Табыш- Кимди? Эмнени? (Accusative)
5. Жатыш- Кимге? Эмнеге? (Local)
6. Чыгыш- Кимден? Эмнеден? (Initial)

Thus we see that 4 cases coincide in Russian and Kyrgyz.

The case in the Russian language is expressed by a large quantity of different forms in accordance with different declensions. The only marked form of the English case is possessive case which is always formed by means of the suffix “s”. The endings of the different cases in Russian are identical, e.g.: Genitive “сирени”, Dative “сирени”, Prepositional “о сирени”. But in Kyrgyz different cases have different affixes: i.e. each case has its own form which differs not only in meaning but in morphological indicate:

1. Атооч- алма – яблоко- apple
2. Табыш- алманын
3. Барыш- алмага
4. Илик – алманы
5. Чыгыш- алмадан
6. Жатыш- алмада

Case form in plural differ from that of singular in the Russian language:

**Singular:**

И. дом, река, окно,

Р., реки, окна,

Д. дома дому, реке, окну,

В. дом, реку, окно,

Т. домом, рекой, окном

П. о доме, о реке, окном.

**Plural:**

И. дома, реки, окна,

Р. домов, рек, окон,

Д. домой, рек, окон,

В. дома, реки, окна,

Т. домами, реками, окнами

П. о домах, о реках, об окнах.

In Kyrgyz language they are identical but the plural form postfix “лар” is added:

**Singular; Plural;**

А. шаар(город) А. шаарлар

И. шаардан И. шаарлардын

Б. шаарга Б. шаарларга

Т. шаарды Т. шаарларды

Ч. шаардан Ч. шаарлардан

Ж. шаарда Ж. шаарларда

Russian cases express syntactical of the same number.

In English Possessive case expresses possession in word combinations like “my father’s house”. In this function the English case has syntactical synonyms – prepositional phrases. e.g., “my father’s house- the house of my father”. English is characteristic of a group- Possessive – a phrase in which the affix “s” is added not to a single noun but to a word combination. e.g. “somebody else’s business”, “the son of a England’s king”. Thus, we can see the main qualities of the category of case in English, Russian, and Kyrgyz.

| № | English  | Russian   | Kyrgyz   |
|---|--|---|--|
| 1 | absence of the category of case in the nominal system and existence of 2 | six cases in the system of nouns, pronouns and adjectives and numerals. | There are 6 cases which have different affixes |

|   |  |  |   |
|---|--|--|---|
|   | cases in the system of personal pronoun  |  |   |
| 2 | Absence of the agreement with other parts of speech                              | Agreement in the category of case in the adjective, pronouns (except personal pronoun and ord. numeral). | Absence of the agreement with other parts of speech                       |
| 3 | The category of Possessiveness in the form of the morpheme «s «                  | Absence of the Category of Possessiveness  | There are special affixes of possessiveness.                              |
| 4 | The distinction of the class of living beings by means of the possessive suffix. | The distinction of the class of living beings by means of the prepositional case.                        | The distinction of the class of living beings by means of Nominative case |

The category of number is expressed by the opposition of the noun plural form to the noun singular form. The ancient Indo-European had apart from the singular and plural a dual number including two persons or things. The dual number was used especially for things and persons that come in pairs, like: “eyes, hands, feet etc.” Many languages repeat the singular form two times (Bushman “tu”- mouth; “tu-tu- mouths”).

The present notion of number has undergone a very complex development and some linguistics consider, that it was connected with parts of the speaker’s body. The remnants of this system may be found in some modern European language, in which the decimal system is based on the usage of the fingers of two hands. This fact leads us to the conclusion that counting was originally demonstrative and the system of numerals depended upon the body parts.

English, Russian and Kyrgyz have words which are used only in the singular or in the plural. Russian has the only morpheme-the morpheme of number-case-gender. In English the morpheme of number exists independently from that of the case morpheme, e.g. oxen's, children's men's, where's the morpheme of case but the expressed by "-en"; "-ren"; by vowel graduation (man-men).

Only in such phrases as "the boys meeting" plural and possessive case are expressed by one form in pronunciation [z]; but in writing the morphemes of number and case are different "s"-is for plural; - for possessive case.

Russian has many ways of formation of the plural connected with the type of declension. In English there is only one way adding the suffix -(e)s".

Some words in English belong to the group singularia Tantum whereas the same words in Russian may belong to Pluralia Tantum.

But English nouns "clock-clocks"; "sledge- sledges" have plural and singular forms; Russian they belong to the group Pluralia Tantum. English nouns "money, ink, whiting" belong to singularia Tantum. The same nouns in Russian belong to Pluralia Tantum (деньги, чернила, белила) English "billiards" belongs to Pluralia Tantum but Russian "бильярд" belongs to Singularia Tantum.

In Russian the form of Singular is used when the numeral ends in "один, два, три, четыре". In the first case the noun is used in the nominative in other in the Genitive: "один дом, два три дома". In English after "one" the noun is used in the Singular: in other cases in the Plural; "one house," but "two houses, three houses, twenty one houses".

All the nouns in the Kyrgyz languages are capable of forming the Plural. But there are some groups of nouns which can be used only in the Singular. They are as follows:

1. Names of materials – сүт (milk), алтын (gold), темир (iron);
2. Abstract nouns denoting actions, states, or qualities – сүйүнүч (happiness), сулуулук (beauty), жумуш (movement).
3. Collective nouns which denote a number of things collected together so that they may be regarded as a single object. They are formed by means of a complex affix – чылык, дыйканчылык (крестьянство, peasantry). But as the rule collective nouns are used in the plural, e.g. студенттер (студенчество), мугалимдер (учительство), though they have singular forms.

Nouns denoting the parts of the body in pairs are used in the singular; көз (глаз и глаза одного человека)

| № | Russian    |            | English            |                  |
|---|------------|------------|--------------------|------------------|
|   | Singular   | Plural     | Singular<br>Tantum | Plural<br>Tantum |
| 1 | совет      | советы     | advice             | 0                |
| 2 | сведение   | сведения   | information        | 0                |
| 3 | новость    | новости    | 0                  | news             |
| 4 | знание     | знания     | knowledge          | 0                |
| 5 | разрешение | разрешения | permission         | 0                |
| 6 | окраина    | окраины    | 0                  | outskirts        |
| 7 | овощ       | овощи      | 0                  | vegetables       |

кол (рука и руки одного человека); канат (крыло и крылья одной птицы). But the same nouns may be used in Plural form if they denote parts of the body of different persons, e.g. пионерлердин колдорунда Кызыл туулар (В руках у пионеров красные знамена). There are no nouns used in the Pluralia Tantum in the Kyrgyz language. Concrete nouns in English and Kyrgyz have singular and plural forms: сани (чана, чаналар; sledge, sledges).

3. In nouns the grammatical category of gender is basic. We divide nouns into “masculine”, “feminine”, and “neuter”. According to whether they denote males, females, and inanimate objects. Man, woman, and table are respectively masculine, feminine and neuter by reason of their meaning but not of their termination. Of course the Gender doesn’t have to correspond to natural sex. Some languages often give an excellent clue to gender in the endings of their nouns in Latin and Russian, for instance, nouns ending in –a are normally feminine though there are some exceptions and adjectives used with them must agree in gender that is they also take on a feminine ending.

Some languages like Latin, Greek, German and Russian divide nouns into gender and sometimes without any logic, make many inanimate objects neuter. The differences between languages in this respect are striking. In German “Person (person), waise (orphan), wacht (guard) are all feminine, whereas” kunde (customer), kamerad (comrade), Diensbote (servant) are masculine, regardless of sex. “Drohne” (drone, трутень, тунядец) is feminine and weises (queen bee) masculine (матка).

Some languages of the Indo-European group have no neuter gender, only in the masculine and feminine as is the case in French and Italian.

It is impossible to say what it was in particular that gave rise to the category of gender but the best hypothesis which explains how the gender system arose is that the original distinction was made between animate and inanimate objects.

English and Russian have 3 grammatical gender: masculine feminine and neuter  
 Kyrgyz has no grammatical category of gender: some living things were named by the different lexical units.

In Russian the grammatical category of gender expressed by means of agreement (этот зверь – эта дверь– старое платье – старый шимпанзе) and the correction of nouns with the personal pronouns (зверь –он, дверь – она, платье - оно). Dependent words in Russian are under the influence of the noun gender. But there is no influence of such a kind in English and Kyrgyz. Thus for example:

| Russian                       | Kyrgyz                     | English                 |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------|
| Эта маленькая книга лежала    | Бул кичине китеп жаткан    | This little book lay.   |
| Этот маленький карандаш лежал | Бул кичине карандаш жаткан | This little pencil lay. |
| Этот маленькое перо лежало    | Бул кичине калем уч жаткан | This little pencil lay. |

### TASKS FOR CONTROL

#### 1. Definition Task

Define the term nominal categories and explain their role in grammar

#### 2. Identification Task

List the main nominal categories studied in linguistic typology.

#### 3. Matching Task

Match the grammatical categories with their definitions.

##### Categories

##### Definitions

- |                                |   |
|--------------------------------|---|
| a) Case                        | 1. Distinction between one and more than one object           |
| b) Number                      | 2. Grammatical form showing relation of a noun to other words |
| c) Gender                      | 3. Grammatical classification of nouns                        |
| d) Definiteness/Indefiniteness | 4. Distinction between specific and non-specific objects      |

#### 4. True or False

- Case shows the grammatical relationship of a noun in a sentence.
- English nouns have more case forms than Russian nouns.
- Gender is a grammatical classification of nouns.
- Definiteness in English is expressed mainly by articles.

#### 5. Table Completion Task

Complete the table comparing nominal categories in English, Russian, and Kyrgyz.

| Category | English | Russian | Kyrgyz |
|----------|---------|---------|--------|
|----------|---------|---------|--------|

Case

Number

Category English Russian Kyrgyz

Gender

Definiteness

6. Short Essay Task

Write 6–8 sentences explaining the category of case and its function in language.

7. Comparative Task

Compare the case systems of English, Russian, and Kyrgyz. Identify at least two differences.

8. Analytical Task

Explain how the category of number is expressed in English nouns. Provide examples.

9. Example Task

Give examples of singular and plural forms of nouns in English, Russian, and Kyrgyz.

10. Discussion Question

Why does the English language not have grammatical gender for most nouns, while Russian does?

11. Concept Explanation

Explain how definiteness and indefiniteness are expressed in English.

12. Comparison Task

Compare the expression of definiteness and indefiniteness in English and Kyrgyz.

13. Classification Task

Classify the following nouns according to gender in Russian:

- стол
- книга
- море
- учитель

14. Practical Task

Analyze the following English sentence and identify the nominal categories expressed:

*The students are reading the book.*

15. Research Task

Prepare a short presentation (5–7 minutes) about typological differences in nominal categories between English, Russian, and Kyrgyz.

**В результате освоения лекции формируется ряд компетенций:**

- способен самостоятельно анализировать и интерпретировать с лингвистической (и литературоведческой) точки зрения различные типы текстов (ПК-13);

**Литература:**

1. Лисс А. Н. и др. Обзорные лекции по сравнительной типологии английского, русского, кыргызского языков. Фрунзе: 1988.

2. Аракин В. Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков -2-е изд. -П.: Просвещение, 1989

3. Аракин Б. Д. Типология языков и проблема методического прогнозирования. М.. Высшая школа, 1989

## Lecture 8

### Typology of verbal Categories

The Indo-European languages the verb has grammatical categories of person, aspect, tense, mood and voice because the verb is the part of speech shows whether the subject acts itself or is acted upon the part of another subject (voice) expresses the time of the action (tense), how the action is regarded by the speaker (mood), the particular

manifestation of the action (aspect) and classifies actions according to who has performed them (person).

Of all the verbal grammatical categories tense is the most typical showing the speaker determines the time relation of the utterance to the moment of speech. The notion of the moment of speech is very important because in some languages tenses are arranged to express the time of an action past, present and future as in Russian «Я писал – I wrote, «Я пишу – I write», «Я буду писать – I shall write», but in other languages the relation of the speaker to the moment of speech is conveyed indirectly, e.g. through intermediate points like the past perfect and future perfect (as in English “I had written my exercises before he came”).

The English “He has come” bears on the present situation while the Russian “он пришел” may mean, “He has come” “He came”, e.g. it refers to the action as taking place in the past without any reference to the present. Some languages are extremely poor in time distinctions between uncompleted and completed actions. It follows from these that tense and aspect are grammatical categories, which are closely connected to each other.

The main divisions of time – present, past and future are expressed in two aspect forms: the common and continuous. The common aspect represents an action as simply occurring. It may refer to concrete actions and to actions of a more abstract, general character as well.

The interrelation between the tense and the aspect of the verb are seen distinctly in Slavonic languages especially in Russian. A perfective verb in Russian in the present tense: “Я сделаю – I shall do”, i.e. the present perfective refers to a definite future time. The present imperfective refers to the present time, as in “Я пишу – I am writing”. So perfective verbs are not used in the present tense and imperfective verbs have only an analytical future as (in Russian “Я буду писать- I shall write”). The English common aspect is rendered in Russian by the perfective or imperfective aspects which are associated in such a way as to cover the time scale.

Sometimes the Russian imperfective aspect is compared with the English continuous aspect but the English continuous aspect has a much narrower meaning than the Russian imperfective aspect. The continuous aspect in English expresses a concrete action in its development at a given moment whereas the Russian imperfective shows an action in its development without concretizing it.

In Russian, the verb possesses a more developed grammatical aspect category and tense categories denote aspect too. In English, German, which have special morphological means for conveying aspect forms, the latter are expressed either by tenses (he was speaking and he was spoken) or by specialized auxiliaries including lexical means (He smiled and he gave a smile). By means of these auxiliaries there may

be conveyed such aspect forms as duration or momentariness, reiteration or singleness of action, the beginning or the end of the action and so on : for example, to pity, “to take pity on”.

If the Russian language has only three tense with three means to express them, the Kyrgyz language as well as English has more than a dozen simple and complex forms, expressing present, future and past actions. For methods of teaching English similarities between grammatical notions of different languages are of great importance. So, firstly we shall have to determine similarities.

The present continuous tense corresponds to the Kyrgyz “узак учур чак”. This is evidently seen the table below:

| <b>English</b>  | <b>Kyrgyz</b>                              |
|---|--|
| I am playing football.                                  | Мен футбол ойноп жатам.                    |
| The man sitting on the sofa is not smoking a cigarette. | Диванда отурган киши тамеки чекпей отурат. |
| Is your sister reading a book in that room?             | Сенин эжең тиги бөлмөдө китеп окуп жатабы? |

We can find corresponding if we take Present Indefinite (белгисиз учур чак) and Past Indefinite (белгисиз откон чак). In the affirmative sentence these tenses are formed by means of suffixes in both languages

| <b>English</b>                     | <b>Kyrgyz</b>                     |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| He works at school                 | Ал мектепте иштейт                |
| Last summer she lived in Leningrad | Өткөн жылы ал Ленинградда жашады. |

But the same tenses have different interrogative and negative forms. In English they are formed analytically by means of auxiliary verbs; “do, does” for Present Indefinite and “did” for Past Indefinite. Kyrgyz uses suffixes.

| <b>English</b>                      | <b>Kyrgyz</b>                       |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| I don't play piano                  | Мен пианинодо ойнобойм.             |
| Nick didn't go to school last year. | Өткөн жылы Ник мектепке барган жок. |
| Do you ski well?                    | Сен лыжаны жакшы тебесиңби?.        |
| Did you go to the cinema yesterday? | Кечээ сен киного бардыңбы?          |

As far as aspect is connected, the Kyrgyz verb is neutral but in combinations with different auxiliary verbs may express many shades of aspect. Sometimes this shade may be expressed descriptively by means of the use of the numeral “бир”: бир секирдим Я пригнул (один раз), “to have a jump”.

The voice shows the relation between the subject and the predicate verb in the sentence. The active voice indicates that the subject of the sentence acts upon, that it is the recipient of an action. Constructions which designate natural phenomena (Russian Смеркается – It is going dark) are present in many languages.

In Russian some passive constructions are derived from the reflexive pronouns, “Я умываюсь- I wash” myself. Verbs of the emotion are also expressed by means of a passive form in Russian (Им хорошо живется – They live comfortably; Я хочу спать- I want to sleep).

Voice is connected with the transitive and intransitive character of a verb. Intransitive verbs (to work, to laugh, etc.) have no voice. Beside these two voices, there exist the middle voice and there is a strong reason to believe that Indo-European active and passive voices were originally an active voice and a middle voice. The Kyrgyz language is prolific in voices. There are 5 voices altogether:

1. the main voice (негизги мамиле)
2. the passive voice (туюк мамиле)
3. the reflexive voice (өздүк мамиле)
4. the reciprocal- joint voice (кош мамиле)
5. the compelling voice (аркылуу мамиле). The relations of English, Russian, Kyrgyz voice forms are as follows:

| <b>English</b>                   | <b>Russian</b>                   | <b>Kyrgyz</b>                                     |
|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|---|
| Unmarked form<br>Active voice    | Unmarked form<br>Active voice    | The main voice                                    |
| Analytical form<br>Active voice  | -ся form                         | The reflexive voice<br>The reciprocal-joint voice |
| Analytical form<br>Passive Voice | Analytical form<br>Passive Voice | Analytical<br>Synthetic<br>Passive Voice          |

In the Kyrgyz language, passive constructions are used even in sentences, which have no indication on the logical subject.

### 3. The Mood is the form of the verb presenting actions:

- ✓ as occurring (indicative), i.e. what the speaker affirms,
- ✓ conceived as possible (subjunctive),
- ✓ ordered (imperative)
- ✓ non- committal (infinitive)
- ✓ wished for (optative)
- ✓ made to take place (causative).

The category of Mood shows in what relations to reality the speaker places the action or state expressed by the verb. Thus, the category of mood expresses modality which is the relation of the action or state expressed by predicate to reality as it is regarded by the speaker. Modality may be expressed lexically- by modal verbs (she can easily do it); by parenthetical words and expressions (Perhaps he will come tomorrow); synthetically (German- “Sie Lesen”, “you read”, “Lesen Sie!”, “Read!”) and phonetically (“You do it”).

The English language expresses modality and unreality by means of the following verb forms:

- ✓ the old syntactical (be, were, have, take) and other forms of the third person singular without the ending –s.
- ✓ analytical forms of the subjunctive mood, by means of auxiliary verbs “should, would” and different forms of the infinitive of the finite verb.
- ✓ Past Indefinite (Indicative) and Past Perfect.
- ✓ Modal verbs “may- might; can- could+ infinitive” of the finite verb which obtain the meaning of unreality depending on the type of sentence.

In the Russian language, the modality of reality is expressed by the Indicative Mood. The Indicative Mood serves to present an action as a fact of reality (он написал письмо; Он пишет письмо; Он напишет письмо; или Он не написал письма; Он не напишет письма). The Indicative Mood is connected with the category of Tense, which is expressed in the forms of present, past and future. The Modality of unreality is expressed by the Subjunctive Mood. The Subjunctive Mood represents an action as a “non- fact” as something imaginary, desirable, problematic, contrary to reality. The Subjunctive (conditional) Mood in Russian is formed analytically by means of the past tense of the verb and particle “бы or б” which expresses imagination.

|                 |                  |                       |
|-----------------|------------------|-----------------------|
| <b>Singular</b> | <b>Masculine</b> | решил бы - решал бы   |
|                 | <b>Feminine</b>  | решила бы - решала бы |

|               |               |                       |
|---------------|---------------|-----------------------|
|               |               |                       |
|               | <b>Neuter</b> | решило бы - решало бы |
| <b>Plural</b> |               | решили бы - решали бы |

The particle “бы, б” is movable and may be placed after, before the verb, and even before other words. (Я пришел бы, если бы не был занят. Чтобы не случилось, во всем будешь ты виноват. Сколько бы его ни просили, он все равно не скажет.). but the main place of “бы, б” is after the first word in the sentence.

The category of Mood finds its expressions in the forms of the Imperative Mood. The Imperative Mood represents an action as a command urging, request, exhortation addressed to one’s interlocutor. It is a direct expression of one’s will. Therefore it is much more “subjunctive” than the indicative mood. Its modal meaning is very strong and distinct. English forms the Imperative Mood:

- ✓ For the 2<sup>nd</sup> person singular and plural one form is used which corresponds to the infinitive without the particle “to” (Go!- Иди! Идите! Take! - Возьми! Возьмите!).

| <b>Person</b> | <b>English singular</b> | <b>English plural</b> | <b>Russian singular</b> | <b>Russian plural</b> | <b>Kyrgyz singular</b> | <b>Kyrgyz plural</b> |
|---------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|
| 1             | Let me go               | Let us go             | Пойду-ка я              | Пойдите<br>Давайте    | Барайын                | Баралы               |
| 2 simple      | Go                      | Go                    | Пойди                   | Пойдите               | Бар                    | Баргыла              |
| 2 polite      | Do go!                  | Do go                 | Пойдите                 | Пойдите               | Барыңыз                | Барыңыздар           |
| 3 polite      | Let him go              | Let them go           | Пусть он пойдет         | Пусть они пойдут      | Барсын                 | Барышсын             |

- ✓ (Do come tomorrow! Обязательно приходите завтра!).

The Russian language forms the Imperative Mood by means of the Present Tense:

1. for the 2<sup>nd</sup> person singular the inflexional ending “u” is used or no ending (пиши, иди; сядь, встань, читай).
2. for the 1<sup>st</sup> person plural the ending “ем” is used (понесем, пойдём).
3. for the 2<sup>nd</sup> person plural the ending “ме”, “име” are used (читайте, несите).
4. for the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular and plural the Present or Future of the Indicative Mood with the particle “пусть” are used (Пусть он сделает; Пусть они придут).

Кыргыз possesses the following Moods;

1. The Indicative
2. The Imperative
3. The Conditional
4. The Suppositional- desirable. Кыргыз forms the Imperative Mood by special affixes. The table below shows the similarities and differences of the Imperative forms in English, Russian and Кыргыз:

The category of person serves to present an action as associated by the speaking person with himself (or a group of persons including the speaker), the person or persons addressed, and the person or thing (persons or things) not participating, in the process of speech. Thus, in Russian it is represented in sets of three- member opposemes such as; читаю-читаешь; читаем-читаете-читают. In Кыргыз it is expressed by special predicate affixes, which express neither tense nor mood.

In Modern English the category of person has certain peculiarities:

1. the 2<sup>nd</sup> member of the opposemes (speak- speakest- speaks; am artist) is not used colloquially. It occurs in Modern English only in poetry, in solemn or pathetic prose with a distinct archaic flavor, e.g.: Kind nature, thou art, to all a bountiful mother (Carlyle).
2. Person opposemes are neutralized when associated with the “plural” meaning (We know- you know-they know).
3. Person distinctions do not go with meaning of the “past tense” in the English verb (I asked...).
4. As regards all those groups of gramemes where the word- morphemes “shall and should” are opposed to the word- morphemes “will, would”, one has to speak of the non- first person expressed by the forms with “will (would)”. The person distinctions in such opposemes (shall come- will come) are not connected with number meanings. These distinctions, however, are being gradually obliterated through the spreading of “ll” and the extensive use of “will and would” for “shall and should”.

## TASKS FOR CONTROL

### 1. Definition Task

Define the term verbal categories and explain their role in the grammatical system of a language.

### 2. Identification Task

List the main verbal categories studied in contrastive typology.

### 3. Matching Task

Match the verbal categories with their definitions.

Categories

Definitions

- a) Tense 1. Shows the attitude of the speaker toward the action
- b) Voice 2. Indicates the time of an action
- c) Mood 3. Shows the relationship between the subject and the action
- d) Person 4. Shows who performs the action

### 4. True or False

- 1. Tense indicates the time of an action.
- 2. Voice expresses the relationship between subject and action.
- 3. Mood expresses the speaker's attitude toward the action.
- 4. Person indicates the number of objects in a sentence.

### 5. Table Completion Task

Complete the table comparing verbal categories in English, Russian, and Kyrgyz.

| Category | English | Russian | Kyrgyz |
|----------|---------|---------|--------|
|----------|---------|---------|--------|

Tense

Voice

Mood

Person

### 6. Short Essay Task

Write 6–8 sentences explaining the category of tense and its role in expressing time relations.

### 7. Comparative Task

Compare the tense systems of English and Russian. Identify two main differences.

### 8. Analytical Task

Explain how the category of voice is expressed in English. Provide examples of active and passive voice.

### 9. Example Task

Give examples of verbs in different tenses in English, Russian, and Kyrgyz.

### 10. Concept Explanation

Explain the category of mood and name the main moods in English.

### 11. Discussion Question

Why is the subjunctive mood important in expressing hypothetical or unreal actions?

### 12. Practical Task

Identify the person and tense in the following sentences:

- I write a letter.
- She wrote a letter.
- They will write a letter.

### 13. Transformation Task

Transform the following sentence into passive voice:

*The teacher explains the lesson.*

### 14. Comparative Analysis

Explain how the category of person is expressed in English verbs compared with Kyrgyz verbs.

### 15. Research Task

Prepare a short presentation (5–7 minutes) about typological differences in verbal categories between English, Russian, and Kyrgyz.

**В результате освоения лекции формируется ряд компетенций:**

- способен самостоятельно анализировать и интерпретировать с лингвистической (и литературоведческой) точки зрения различные типы текстов (ПК-13);

**Литература:**

1. Лисс А. Н. и др. Обзорные лекции по сравнительной типологии английского, русского, кыргызского языков. Фрунзе: 1988.

2. Аракин В. Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков -2-е изд. -П.: Просвещение, 1989

3. Аракин Б. Д. Типология языков и проблема методического прогнозирования. М.. Высшая школа, 1989

## **Тексты семинарских занятий**

### **Theme: Comparative Typology: subject matter, types, tasks, approaches**

Comparative typology is a branch of linguistics that studies languages by comparing their structures and features. It aims to identify similarities and differences between languages, allowing us to understand how languages are categorized and how they function.

**Subject Matter:**

The subject matter of comparative typology encompasses all aspects of language structure, including:

- **Phonetics and Phonology:** Sounds, sound systems, and how sounds are organized in a language.
- **Morphology:** Word formation and the internal structure of words.
- **Syntax:** Sentence structure and how words are combined to form sentences.
- **Lexicon and Semantics:** Vocabulary and the meaning of words and sentences.

By comparing these elements across languages, typologists can identify patterns and categorize languages into different types.

Comparative typology delves into the fascinating world of language structures by comparing and contrasting them across different languages. It doesn't just identify similarities and differences, but aims to categorize languages based on these features, revealing underlying patterns and universals. Here's a detailed breakdown of the subject matter within comparative typology:

1. **Phonetics and Phonology:**

- **Sounds:** This area compares the inventories of sounds (phonemes) used by different languages. For example, English has a "th" sound not found in Spanish, while Japanese lacks the "l" sound present in English.
- **Sound Systems:** The organization of sounds within a language is compared. Are consonant clusters common, or are syllables restricted in structure? For instance, Hungarian allows complex consonant clusters, while Hawaiian syllables typically have a consonant-vowel structure.
- **Phonological Processes:** How sounds are modified in connected speech is analyzed. Do languages have vowel harmony, where vowels within a word must be

similar (e.g., Turkish)? Are there sound alternations depending on the grammatical context (e.g., English "sing" vs. "sang")?

## 2. Morphology:

- **Word Formation:** Comparative typology examines how words are built in different languages. Are prefixes and suffixes used extensively (e.g., Turkish)? Do languages rely on internal modifications to express grammatical information (e.g., Arabic)?

- **Morphological Complexity:** The level of complexity in word structure is compared. Are words typically simple and uninflected (e.g., Vietnamese), or do they carry a lot of grammatical information within the word itself (e.g., Finnish)?

## 3. Syntax:

- **Sentence Structure:** The order of words and phrases in a sentence is compared. Do languages have a subject-verb-object (SVO) order like English or a subject-object-verb (SOV) order like Japanese? Is word order flexible or relatively fixed?

- **Grammatical Relations:** How grammatical roles like subject and object are expressed in a sentence is analyzed. Do languages rely on prepositions (e.g., English) or case marking on nouns (e.g., Russian) to indicate these roles?

## 4. Lexicon and Semantics:

- **Lexical Similarities and Differences:** This area compares vocabulary across languages. Are there cognates (words with a common origin) that shed light on historical relationships? How are basic concepts like color or kinship expressed in different languages?

- **Semantic Fields:** The organization of meaning within a language domain is explored. For instance, how are color terms categorized in different languages (e.g., basic vs. complex color systems)?

Beyond these core areas, comparative typology can also delve into:

- **Discourse Analysis:** Comparing how languages structure and organize information within a text.

- **Pragmatics:** How language is used in context, considering cultural norms and speaker intention.

By delving into these areas, comparative typology offers a deeper understanding of:

- **Language Universals:** Features that are common to most or all languages (e.g., the existence of nouns and verbs).

- **Language Variation:** Why languages differ in their structure and how these variations might relate to historical development, geographical proximity, or functional demands.

- **Language Change:** Comparative typology can shed light on how languages evolve by comparing features in related languages.

Overall, comparative typology provides a powerful tool for appreciating the remarkable diversity and complexity of human languages, while also revealing underlying patterns that connect them.

## **Types of Comparative Typology:**

- **Genetic Typology:** This type compares languages that share a common ancestor (e.g., Romance languages like French, Spanish, and Italian).

- **Areal Typology:** This type compares languages spoken in geographical proximity, regardless of their genetic relationship (e.g., languages spoken in Southeast Asia).

- **Typological Typology:** This type focuses on identifying universal features across languages and classifying them based on these features (e.g., classifying languages as analytic, synthetic, or agglutinative based on their morphology).

Comparative typology isn't a one-size-fits-all approach. Depending on the focus, there are three main approaches to comparative typology, each offering valuable insights:

#### 1. Genetic Typology:

- **Focus:** This type compares languages that share a common ancestor, belonging to the same language family.

- **Example:** Examining Romance languages like French, Spanish, and Italian reveals shared features like verb conjugations and vocabulary derived from Latin.

- **Benefits:**

- o Helps reconstruct ancestral languages and understand language evolution.

- o Identifies innovations and sound changes that occurred within the family.

- o Provides a historical context for understanding current typological features.

- **Limitations:**

- o Only applicable to languages with a demonstrably shared ancestry.

- o Ignores typological similarities that might arise due to other factors.

#### 2. Areal Typology:

- **Focus:** This type compares languages spoken in geographical proximity, regardless of their genetic relationship.

- **Example:** Analyzing languages spoken in Southeast Asia, like Thai and Vietnamese, might reveal similar tones or word order patterns, despite belonging to different language families.

- **Benefits:**

- o Identifies typological convergence, where languages in contact develop similar features due to borrowing or interaction.

- o Provides insights into language contact and historical migrations.

- o Helps understand the influence of geography and cultural exchange on language.

- **Limitations:**

- o Similarities might not necessarily be due to geographical proximity.

- o Requires careful consideration of historical factors and potential genetic links.

#### 3. Typological Typology:

- **Focus:** This type focuses on identifying universal features across languages and classifying them based on these features.

- **Example:** Classifying languages as analytic (e.g., English), synthetic (e.g., Russian), or agglutinative (e.g., Turkish) based on how they express grammatical meaning (using separate words, inflections, or suffixes).

- **Benefits:**

- o Provides a broader framework for understanding language variation.

- o Helps identify typological universals and potential explanations for them.

- o Offers insights into the relationship between language structure and thought processes.
- Limitations:
- o Oversimplification can occur, as languages often exhibit characteristics of multiple types.
- o Focus on universals might overlook the richness and complexity of individual languages.

#### Choosing the Right Approach:

The choice of approach depends on the specific research question at hand. Here's a simplified guide:

- To understand historical relationships and language evolution: Genetic Typology
- To explore the influence of geography and language contact: Areal Typology
- To develop a broader classification system based on structural features: Typological Typology

In conclusion, each type of comparative typology offers a unique lens for analyzing languages. By combining these approaches, linguists gain a more comprehensive picture of the fascinating world of language variation and universals

#### **Tasks of Comparative Typology:**

- Developing typological universals: Identifying features that are common to most or all languages.
- Explaining language variation: Understanding why languages differ in their structure and how these differences arise.
- Building typological classifications: Categorizing languages based on shared features.
- Informing historical linguistics: Comparative typology can shed light on the relationships between languages and how they have evolved over time.
- Enhancing language learning: By understanding how languages are similar and different, learners can develop better strategies for acquiring new languages.

Comparative typology delves deeper than simply identifying similarities and differences between languages. It aims to uncover underlying patterns and universals that govern human language. Here's a breakdown of the key tasks that comparative typology undertakes:

##### 1. Developing Typological Universals:

- This core task involves identifying features that are common to most or all languages. These universals might be:
  - o Structural Universals: Shared features in the way languages are built, like the existence of noun and verb categories.
  - o Functional Universals: Similarities in how languages achieve communicative goals, like the expression of negation or questions.
- By identifying universals, comparative typology sheds light on:
  - o Cognitive constraints: These universals might reflect limitations of the human mind when it comes to language processing.

- o Biological foundations: Some universals might be rooted in our biological makeup, like the way we perceive and categorize the world.

- The search for universals is an ongoing process, as new discoveries and analyses of languages can refine existing theories or reveal previously unknown universals.

## 2. Explaining Language Variation:

- Comparative typology doesn't just identify differences, it seeks to explain them. Why do some languages rely heavily on inflections (synthetic languages) for grammatical meaning, while others use separate words (analytic languages)?

- Explanations might involve:

- o Historical factors: Languages might inherit certain features from their ancestors, while others might develop innovations over time.

- o Functional pressures: The need for clarity, efficiency, or expressiveness might shape language structure.

- o Social and cultural factors: Language variation can be influenced by social interactions, cultural practices, or the environment in which a language is spoken.

## 3. Building Typological Classifications:

- Comparative typology aims to categorize languages based on shared features. This classification helps us understand the big picture of language variation and identify clusters of languages with similar structures.

- Common typological classifications include:

- o Morphological Typology: Classifies languages based on how they express grammatical meaning (analytic, synthetic, agglutinative).

- o Word Order Typology: Classifies languages based on the typical order of subject, verb, and object (SVO, SOV, VSO).

- o Syntactic Typology: Classifies languages based on their clause structure and how they handle dependencies between words.

- These classifications are not rigid, and languages can exhibit features of multiple types. However, they provide a valuable framework for understanding language diversity.

## 4. Informing Historical Linguistics:

- Comparative typology can be a powerful tool for historical linguists. By comparing features in related languages, it can:

- o Help reconstruct ancestral languages and identify sound changes that occurred over time.

- o Shed light on language contact and borrowing between languages in the past.

- o Provide evidence for historical migrations and language families.

- Comparative typology, along with historical methods, allows us to piece together the fascinating puzzle of how languages evolve and change.

## 5. Enhancing Language Learning:

- Understanding how languages are similar and different can be immensely helpful for language learners.

- Comparative typology can reveal:

- o Common patterns across languages, making it easier to transfer knowledge from one language to another.

- o Specific challenges posed by a particular language's typology compared to the learner's native language.
- o Strategies for learning languages that are typologically different from the learner's native language.

By understanding the tasks undertaken by comparative typology, we gain a deeper appreciation for its role in:

- Unveiling the hidden patterns and universals that govern human language.
- Providing explanations for the fascinating diversity of languages across the globe.
- Informing various fields of linguistics, from historical studies to language acquisition.

### **Approaches to Comparative Typology:**

- **Formal Approach:** This approach focuses on the formal properties of languages, such as the rules that govern their grammar.
- **Functional Approach:** This approach emphasizes the communicative function of language and how different languages achieve similar communicative goals through different means.
- **Cognitive Approach:** This approach explores the relationship between language and thought, examining how typological features might reflect underlying cognitive processes.

By utilizing these various approaches, comparative typology provides a comprehensive framework for understanding the rich diversity of human languages.

Comparative typology delves into language comparison not with a one-size-fits-all approach, but with a toolbox of methodologies. Here's a closer look at the three main approaches and how they contribute to our understanding of languages:

#### 1. Formal Approach:

- **Focus:** This approach emphasizes the formal properties of languages, the rules and structures that govern their grammar.
- **Methodology:** Formalists analyze languages through a rule-based lens. They might use generative grammar frameworks to compare how languages handle phenomena like negation, passivization, or relative clauses.

The formal approach in comparative typology delves into the rule-governed structures of languages, offering a precise and systematic way to compare them. Here's a more detailed look at its key aspects:

#### Core Tenets:

- **Languages as Rule-Based Systems:** This approach views languages as sets of rules that govern how words are combined to form sentences and how meaning is expressed.
- **Focus on Universals and Variation:** Formalists aim to identify both universal grammatical principles shared by all languages (e.g., the existence of phrase structure) and the ways languages differ in how these principles are implemented (e.g., word order variations).

#### Methodologies:

- **Formal Frameworks:** Generative grammar, with its emphasis on syntactic rules and constraints, is a popular framework used in the formal approach. Other frameworks like Lexical Functional Grammar (LFG) or Head-Driven Phrase Structure Grammar (HPSG) might also be employed.
- **Comparative Analysis:** Languages are compared by analyzing how they handle specific grammatical constructions within the chosen framework. For example, linguists might compare how different languages generate passive voice constructions, focusing on the rules that govern word order, verb morphology, and argument movement.

#### Benefits:

- **Rigor and Precision:** Formal frameworks provide a clear and well-defined way to analyze complex grammatical phenomena.
- **Cross-Linguistic Comparisons:** The rule-based approach allows for systematic comparisons across diverse languages, revealing similarities and differences in how they express grammatical relations and meaning.
- **Theoretical Insights:** The formal approach contributes to the development of theoretical models of language universals and the parameters that govern language variation. These models help us understand the underlying mechanisms of human language.

#### Limitations:

- **Focus on Form over Function:** The emphasis on rules and structures can sometimes overshadow the functional aspects of language use, such as the communicative intent or the influence of context.
- **Complexity of Formal Frameworks:** Understanding and applying formal frameworks can be challenging, especially for those without a background in linguistics.
- **Limited Scope:** The formal approach might not be suitable for analyzing all aspects of language, such as discourse structure or pragmatic features.

#### Examples:

- Comparing how languages express negation using movement rules or the placement of negation markers within a sentence.
- Analyzing how different languages handle relative clauses by examining the rules governing the relationship between the head noun and the relative pronoun.
- Studying how languages express passivization through verb morphology and the movement of the object to subject position.

Overall, the formal approach offers a valuable tool for comparative typology, providing a rigorous and systematic foundation for analyzing language structure and variation. However, it's important to acknowledge its limitations and consider combining it with other approaches for a more comprehensive understanding of language.

#### 2. Functional Approach:

- **Focus:** This approach shifts the spotlight from formal rules to the communicative function of language. It explores how different languages achieve similar communicative goals through different means.

- Methodology: Functionalists analyze languages based on how they express meaning in context. They might compare how languages convey politeness, modality (possibility or obligation), or topic structure.
- Benefits:
  - o Provides insights into the real-world use of language and how languages adapt to communicative needs.
  - o Highlights the importance of social context and intention in language use.
  - o Contributes to understanding language universals related to communication.
- Limitations:
  - o Can be less precise than the formal approach when dealing with complex grammatical structures.
  - o Relies heavily on analyzing discourse and pragmatic features, which can be subjective.

### 3. Cognitive Approach:

- Focus: This approach explores the relationship between language structure and thought processes. It delves into the question of how the way we think is reflected in the way we speak.
- Methodology: The cognitive approach draws on disciplines like psychology and neuroscience to analyze how languages encode concepts, categorize objects, or express spatial relationships.
- Benefits:
  - o Provides insights into the link between language and human cognition.
  - o Helps us understand how language shapes our perception of the world.
  - o Offers potential explanations for typological universals rooted in cognitive limitations or preferences.
- Limitations:
  - o The relationship between language and thought is complex and not fully understood.
  - o Research methods in cognitive linguistics are still evolving.

### Choosing the Right Approach:

The choice of approach in comparative typology depends on the specific research question at hand:

- For analyzing the technical rules of grammar: Formal Approach
- For understanding how languages function in communication: Functional Approach
- For exploring the link between language and thought: Cognitive Approach

### Complementary Approaches:

These approaches are not mutually exclusive. In fact, combining them can lead to a richer understanding of language. For example, a linguist might use a formal framework to analyze a grammatical construction, while also considering its functional role in communication and its potential cognitive implications.

By employing these diverse approaches, comparative typology paints a multifaceted picture of human language. It allows us to appreciate the intricate interplay between

form, function, and cognition that shapes the remarkable diversity of languages across the globe.

## TASKS FOR CONTROL

### 1. Definition Task

Define comparative typology and explain what aspects of languages it studies.

### 2. Identification Task

Identify the main subject matter of comparative typology.

### 3. Terminology Task

Explain the following terms:

- a) comparative typology
- b) typological classification
- c) language universals

### 4. Matching Task

Match the concepts with their definitions.

#### Concepts

#### Definitions

- |                               |  |
|-------------------------------|--|
| a) Comparative typology       | 1. Study of similarities and differences between languages |
| b) Language universals        | 2. Features common to all languages                        |
| c) Typological classification | 3. Grouping languages according to structural features     |

### 5. True or False

1. Comparative typology studies only historical relationships between languages.
2. Typology compares the structures of different languages.
3. Language universals exist in all languages.
4. Comparative typology is connected with other linguistic disciplines.

### 6. Table Completion Task

Complete the table describing types of typology.

| Type of Typology | Object of Study | Example |
|------------------|-----------------|---------|
|------------------|-----------------|---------|

General typology

Special typology

Contrastive typology

### 7. Short Essay Task

Write 6–8 sentences explaining the main tasks of comparative typology.

### 8. Comparative Analysis

Explain the difference between general typology and special typology.

### 9. Analytical Task

Describe the main approaches used in comparative typology.

### 10. Discussion Question

Why is comparative typology important for foreign language learning and translation?

### 11. Example Task

Provide examples of typological similarities and differences between English, Russian, and Kyrgyz.

### 12. Classification Task

Classify the following linguistic phenomena according to typological approaches:

- word order
- phonological structure
- grammatical categories

### 13. Application Task

Explain how comparative typology helps linguists understand language universals.

### 14. Research Task

Prepare a short report (5–7 minutes) about modern approaches in comparative typology.

#### 15. Critical Thinking Task

Explain how comparative typology contributes to the development of modern linguistic theory.

***В результате освоения лекции формируется ряд компетенций:***

- способен самостоятельно анализировать и интерпретировать с лингвистической (и литературоведческой) точки зрения различные типы текстов (ПК-13);

#### **Литература:**

1. Лисс А. Н. и др. Обзорные лекции по сравнительной типологии английского, русского, кыргызского языков. Фрунзе: 1988.

2. Аракин В. Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков -2-е изд. -П.: Просвещения, 1989

3. Аракин Б. Д. Типология языков и проблема методического прогнозирования. М.. Высшая школа, 1989

### **Theme: Historical background of typological investigations**

The quest to understand and categorize languages based on their similarities and differences has a long and fascinating history. Here's a glimpse into the key milestones and figures that shaped the field of comparative typology:

Early Influences (Pre-1800s):

- **Philosophical Foundations:** Ancient thinkers like Aristotle laid the groundwork by exploring the structure of language, particularly the concept of parts of speech.
- **Universal Grammar Search:** Philosophers like John Locke and Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz attempted to identify universal features common to all languages.
- **Descriptive Grammars:** The development of descriptive grammars for various languages provided a foundation for comparative analysis.

19th Century: The Rise of Comparative Philology:

- **Franz Bopp:** This German scholar is often considered the founder of comparative philology, demonstrating the genetic relationship between Indo-European languages.
- **The Grimm brothers:** Jacob and Wilhelm Grimm explored sound changes in Germanic languages, contributing to the understanding of language evolution.
- **August Schleicher:** He developed the family tree model to represent the relationships between related languages based on shared features.

Late 19th and Early 20th Centuries: Shift Towards Typology:

- **Friedrich von Schlegel and Wilhelm von Humboldt:** These German linguists emphasized the importance of comparing languages beyond genetic relationships, laying the groundwork for typology.
- **The Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis:** This hypothesis, proposed by Edward Sapir and Benjamin Lee Whorf, suggested a link between language structure and thought patterns, influencing the cognitive approach in typology.

Mid-20th Century and Beyond: The Formal Approach Emerges:

- **Noam Chomsky:** His generative grammar framework provided a formal system for analyzing language structure, impacting the formal approach in comparative typology.
- **Joseph Greenberg:** This influential linguist conducted groundbreaking work on typological universals, identifying features common across diverse languages.

- **Rise of Functional and Cognitive Approaches:** The latter half of the 20th century saw the development of functional and cognitive approaches, enriching the field with a focus on communication and cognition.

Current Trends:

- **Cross-linguistic Databases:** The development of large-scale databases of typological features allows for more comprehensive and statistically robust comparisons.
- **Integration with Other Fields:** Comparative typology is increasingly integrated with fields like cognitive science and neurolinguistics, leading to a more holistic understanding of language.
- **Focus on Universals and Explanations:** The search for typological universals and the explanations for language variation remains a central theme in contemporary comparative typology.

The historical background of typological investigations reveals a continuous pursuit of understanding the diversity and structure of human languages. From early philosophical inquiries to the development of formal frameworks and the rise of functional and cognitive approaches, the field has evolved significantly. Comparative typology continues to be a vibrant field, with ongoing research shedding light on the fascinating world of language and its connection to thought and communication.

The questions of timing the history of linguistic comparison are quite complicated and are the ones, which have not found their final solution yet. The history of linguistic comparison is an integral part of linguistic science development, which is bound with the history of thenation and cognition. That is why there are no generally accepted criteria for timing this problem yet. We will see Dr. Buranov's viewpoint.

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

The first grammars for the European languages were based on the Latin Grammars. The second period is characterized as a period of establishing the first scientific comparison of languages and this period is related to the General and Rational Grammar: Port-Royal Grammar by Arnauld A., Lancelot C, (XVII c.) in Indo-European languages. Port-Royal Grammar can be considered one of the most precious contributions to the development of Comparative Typology. It was developed by 2 French monks in the small abbey Port-Royal in the suburbs of Paris (published in 1660). It is the synthesis of linguistic and philosophic

ideas of that time. The languages (French, Latin, Greek and ancient Jewish/ Ides) with the different genealogic origin and typological structure were compared based on the criteria and principles elaborated by Arnauld A. and Claude Lancelot.

Comparative study of Turkic language has its own history. Divan-Lugat At-Turk by Mahmud Kashgariy is considered the most solid work on the linguistic comparison of Turkic languages.

Mahmud Kashgariy analyzed phonetic, grammatical and lexical units of a group of Turkic languages and defined the level of their genetic relation to each other. Further development of comparative study can be traced in the appearance of glossaries and dictionaries, e.g. Turkic-Mongol-Persian dictionary compiled in Egypt (1245), Latin-Persian Kypchak dictionary (XII c), and other works.

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

The fourth period is related to establishing of Comparative Typology as a separate science with the bulk of General Linguistics. It coincides with the XX century.

The science of linguistic comparison was developing quite slowly and a number of factors played an important role to foster that process. They were also suggested by Dr. Buranov.

## **TASKS FOR CONTROL**

### 1. Definition Task

Define typological investigations and explain their importance in linguistics.

### 2. Historical Question

Explain the contribution of Wilhelm von Humboldt to the development of linguistic typology.

### 3. Identification Task

List the main stages in the historical development of typological investigations.

### 4. Terminology Task

Explain the difference between comparative linguistics and typological linguistics.

### 5. Matching Task

Match the concepts with their definitions.

#### Concepts

#### Definitions

- |                            |   |
|----------------------------|---|
| a) Linguistic typology     | 1. Study of structural similarities and differences between languages |
| b) Language classification | 2. Grouping languages according to their structural features          |
| c) Historical linguistics  | 3. Study of language development through time                         |

### 6. True or False

1. Typological investigations focus only on the vocabulary of languages.
2. Linguistic typology studies similarities and differences between languages.
3. The development of typology began in the 19th century.
4. Typological studies help classify languages.

### 7. Short Essay Task

Write 6–8 sentences describing the origin and development of typological investigations.

### 8. Table Completion Task

Complete the table describing the historical development of typology.

#### Period

#### Main Characteristics Key Scholars

Early typological studies

Classical typology

| Period | Main Characteristics | Key Scholars |
|--------|----------------------|--------------|
|--------|----------------------|--------------|

Modern typology

9. Discussion Question

Why did linguists begin to classify languages according to their structural features?

10. Comparative Task

Compare historical linguistics and typological linguistics in terms of their objectives.

11. Analytical Task

Explain how typological investigations contributed to the classification of world languages.

12. Example Task

Give examples of languages belonging to different morphological types.

13. Research Task

Prepare a short presentation (5–7 minutes) about the development of typological linguistics in the 20th century.

14. Critical Thinking Task

Explain why typological investigations remain important in modern linguistic research.

15. Application Task

Discuss how the historical development of typology influences modern comparative linguistic studies.

***В результате освоения лекции формируется ряд компетенций:***

- способен самостоятельно анализировать и интерпретировать с лингвистической (и литературоведческой) точки зрения различные типы текстов (ПК-13);

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## **Theme: Typology of Phraseological Systems and Language Teaching**

The term phraseological units were introduced by Russian linguists to denote a specific group of phrases and is generally accepted in our country. Attempts have been made to approach the problem of phraseology in different ways. Up till now, however, there is a certain divergence of opinions as to the essential feature of phraseological

units distinguished from other word groups and the nature of phrases that can be properly termed phraseological units.

Phraseological units are habitually defined as non-motivated word-groups that can not be freely made up in speech, but are reproduced as ready-made units.

Russian linguists have worked out the main features of the phraseology problem. They are as follows;

1. Phraseology is a self-contained branch of linguistics and not a part of lexicology.
2. Phraseology deals with a phraseological subsystem of language but not with isolated phraseological units.
3. Phraseology is concerned with all types of set expressions.
4. The method of phraseological identification helps to single out set expressions .According to this approach phraseology deals with all types of set expressions which are divided into three classes; phraseological units, phraseomatic units and border-line cases. We shall investigate Proverbial Phraseological Units.

## **2. Typology of Proverbial Phraseological Units**

Investigation of proverbial phraseological units is of great importance in revealing isomorphism and allomorphism in different languages. As far as the form of the proverb is concerned, it is a sentence. So the proverbial units belong to the system of language.

Language typology covers 5 main levels; 1. phonological; 2. syllable; 3. word; 4. word-combination; 5. sentence.

So the proverbial units belong to language typology.

But one shouldn't forget that they are communicative units as well as belong to the speech system. It means that they have extralinguistic features, such as differences in culture, labour, mode of life, etc.

Language-level typology studies the main principles of sentence-structure but speech-level studies the same sentence but from the point of view of active grammar (i.e. from contents to the used forms).

3. Typological relations of Proverbial Phraseological Units in English, Russian and Kyrghyz.

According to the contrastive typological analysis we can distinguish, on the one hand, proverbs expressing general human experience and original proverbs which are used only in English, or Russian, or Kyrghyz.

The following relations of the content plane are fixed between English, Russian, Kyrghyz proverbs:

1. Proverbs based on the general image in three languages.
2. Proverbs based on the general image in two languages (native and foreign).
3. Proverbs based in the general image in two languages (Russian and foreign).
4. Proverbs based on different images in two languages (native and foreign).

## **Types of relations may take the following character:**

### **1. Equivalentents in 3 languages**

English: Health is above wealth. Health is better than wealth. Wealth is nothing without health. Crows do not pick out crow's eyes.

Russian: Здоровье дороже денег. Здоровье дороже всякого богатства. Ворон ворону глаз не выклюет.

Kyrgyz: Биринчи байлык ден соолук. Карга карганын көзүн чокубайт.

### **2. Equivalentents in two languages**

English and Russian and an adequate translation into Kyrgyz by means of a roverb.

English: Like priest, like people.

Russian: Каков священник, такова и паства. Каков поп, таков и приход.

Kyrgyz: Бузулган элге бучуктан молдо болот.

### **3. Equivalentents in two languages**

English and Kyrgyz and an adequate translation in to Russian.

English: A word is enough to the wise.

Russian: Умный понимает с полуслова.

Kyrgyz: Акылдуу бир сөздөн түшүнөт.

### **4. Equivalentents in two languages.**

English and Russian and a descriptive translation into Kyrgyz.

English: Better to be the head of a dog than the tail of a lion.

Russian: Лучше быть головой собаки, чем хвостом льва.

Kyrgyz: Бирөөнүн элинде султан болгончо, өз элинде ултан бол - чем быть султаном у чужого народа, лучше быть подметкой у своего.

### **5. Equivalentents in two languages.**

English and Kyrgyz and a descriptive translation into Russian.

English: Every man has his faults.

Russian: На всякого мудреца довольно простаты.

Kyrgyz: Айыпсыз киши болбойт.

### **6. Equivalentents in two languages.**

(Russian and Kyrgyz and an adequate translation into English).

English: He who doesn't work neither does he eat. Confession is the first step to repentance.

Russian: Кто не работает, тот не ест. Повиную голову меч не сеча.

Kyrgyz: Иштебеген тиштебейт. Ийилген башты кылыч кеспейт.

### **7. Adequate proverbs in three languages.**

(English, Russian and Kyrgyz).

English: First come, first served.

Russian: Кто первый пришел, тому первому подали.

Kyrgyz: Мурун барсаң орун бар.

8. Adequate proverbs in two languages.

(English and Russian and a descriptive translation into Kyrgyz).

English: A penny saved is a penny gained.

Russian: Копейка рубль бережет. Сбережешь, что найдешь.

Kyrgyz: Аккан арыктан суу агат - вода течет по тому арыку, по которому текла; деньги к деньгам.

9. Adequate proverbs in two languages.

(English and Kyrgyz and a descriptive translation into Russian.)

English: A living dog is better than a dead lion.

Russian: Живой пес лучше мертвого льва.

Kyrgyz: Өлгөн жолборстон тирүү чычкан артык - живая мышь лучше мертвого тигра.

10. English proverbs which have neither correspondences in Russian nor in Kyrgyz.

You cannot judge a tree by its bark. An apple a day keeps the doctor away. Better one-eyed than stone blind. You can't eat your cake and have it. A cat in gloves catches no mice. Children are poor men's riches. An Englishman's home is his castle.

4. The Structure of Proverbial Phraseological Units.

English, Russian and Kyrgyz proverbs have almost the same structure.

They appear as simple and complex sentences. They come out as affirmative, interrogative, negative hortatory sentences. Below we shall investigate the morphological and the syntactic levels.

#### **a) Morphological level**

The following components of the morphological level can be distinguished. Such symbols will be used; N-noun; N-noun in the plural form; V-verb; V-ing-verb in the form of participle or gerund; V-en –verb in the form of past participle; to V-verb in the form of the Indefinite(with 'to'); V-the noun of the action (in the Kyrgyz language)-verbal noun (отглагольное существительное-the negative form of the verb; A-adjective; D-adverb; d-articles; I-pronoun; I's-possessive pronoun; In-substantive pronoun; Ip-personal pronoun; Im-personal pronoun in the objective case; Q-numeral; Pr-preposition; Post-postposition; Part-particle; & conjunction (coordinating); b-subordinating conjunction; c-comparative conjunction.

Simple sentences with the auxiliary verb 'to be'(narrative type).

### **1. Affirmative**

AN'be N''-Best defense is offence.

AN'-N''-Лучшая защита-нападение.

D'Vn ND''-Жакшы коргонуу чабуулга тең

### **2. Negative**

N'be no N''-Plenty is not plague.

N'HE N''-Изобилие-не чума.

N' N'' Vno-Артык дөөлөт баш жарбайт.

### **3. The structure of the sentence of place**

(d)N'be A'Pr I's A'' N''-A cock is valiant on his own dunghill.

N'A'Pr' I's A'' N''-Петух храбр на своей навозной куче.

N'I's N'' Post N''-Короз өзүнүн кычынын үстүндө эр.

### **4. Impersonal sentence**

I be D'D2 D''to V-It is never too late to learn.

D'HE D'' D'' 'V-Никогда не очень поздно учиться.

Vn D' D'' V-Окууга эч качан кеч болбойт.

### **5. The structure of a comparative sentence**

A-er D' c D''-Better late than never.

D'D'' c D'' '-Лучше поздно, чем никогда.

Ven Post D' Ven D''-Эч болбогондон көрө кеч болгону жакшы.

### **6. The structure of a sentence in Present Indefinite**

(d')Ven N'V (D'')-A burnt child dreads the fire.

Ven N'V N''-Обжегшееся дитя боится огня.

ANN'' V-Күйгөн бала оттон коркот.

### **7. The Structure of a sentence in Past Indefinite**

N'V(d)N''-Care killed the cat.

N'V N''-Забота убила кошку.

N'N''V-Камкордук мышыкты өлтүрүптүр.

### **8. The Structure of an affirmative sentence with a modal verb**

(d)N'may V Pr(d'')N''-A cat may look at a king.

N'может V Pr N''-Кошка может смотреть на короля.

N' N'' Part V-Королго мышык да карайт.

### **9. The Structure of a negative sentence with a modal verb**

Ip cannot V (d') N'Pr I's N''-You cannot judge a tree by its bark.

Ip не может Pr'N'Pr''I's N''-Вы не можете судить о дереве по его коре.

N'N''V Vn D-Даракты кабыгына карап баалоо кыйын.

### **10. The Structure of an interrogative sentence with a modal verb**

Can (d) N'V Is Ns-Can the leopard change his spots?

Может не N'V Vs N''s-Может ли леопард изменить свои пятно.

N'Ip N'' V?-Жолборс өзүнүн темгилдерин өзгөртө алабы.

### **11. The structure of a sentence with a passive construction**

(d)Ven N be D V''-A threatened blow is seldom given.

N b V'V'' dv'' '-Удар, который угрожает нанести, редко наносят.

A N D Part V-Коркунучтуу соку кээде гана берилет.

### **12. Nominalized transformation**

(d)Ven N' V I's N''s-The rotten apple injures its neighbours.

A N' V N''-Гнилое яблоко портит соседние.

Ven N'N'' V-Чириген алма калгандарын да чиритет.

### **13. The structure of a sentence with the action in the future**

N's V'be V'' N''-Fools will be fools.

N'V N''-Дура останется дураком.

N'N'' Post V-Акмак акмак бойдон калат.

## **II. Complex sentence of narrative type.**

### **14. Conjunctionless coordination**

In V'+I''n V''-Nothing venture, nothing gain.

In HE V'+I''n HE V-Ничем не рисковать,ничего не иметь.

N V' I V''-Тобокелге салбай эч нерсе ута албайсың.

### **15. Connective-consequitive bond**

N'V'N''s&N'' V'' Im-Prosperity makes friends and adversity tries them.

N'V'N''&N' V'Im-Процветание собирает друзей,а несчастье испытывает их.

A N N'' V' N' I V''-Жакшы мезгилин досторду жыйнайт, ал эми бактысыздык аларды сынайт.

### **16. Adversative bond**

(d)Ns V'b (d'')N'' V'' Post-The dogs bark,but the caravan goes on.

Ns'V'b N'' V''-Собаки лают, а караван идет.

N'V'-N''V''-Ит үрөт - кербен жүрөт.

## **III. Compound sentences.**

### **17. Subordinate subject clause**

N be Ven+cannot be V''-What is done cannot be undone.

N Ven+не может быть Ven ''-Что сделано, не может быть переделано.

Ven N D' Vn D''-Бүткөн ишти кайрадан оңдоо кыйын.

### **18. Subordinate attributive clause**

Ip V'D+b V'' A-He laughs best who laughs last.

In V'D+b V''A-Тот смеется лучше, кто смеется последним.

D'N D'' V-Акырында күлгөн жакшы күлөт.

### **19. Subordinate clause of time**

b Pr N'+Vc(d)N''s V''-When at Rome do as the Romans do.

B V'Pr N'+V'' с N'' V''- Когда находишься в Риме, поступай как римляне поступают.

N'V' V'' V''-Римде жүргөндө римдиктердин кылганын кыл.

## 20. Conditional clause

b Ip V' PR Q Ns+Ip V'' A-If you run after two hares you will catch neither.

B Ip V'Pr Q Ns+Ip Part V'' Part Q- Если вы погонитесь за двумя зайцами, вы не поймаете ни одного.

Q Ns V' Q Part V''-Эки коендун артынан түшсөң бирин да тута албайсың.

## 21. Subordinate clause of cause

C Ip V' Is V+b V Ip V''Pr I-As you make your bed so must you lie on it.

C V'+b & V''-Как постелешь, так и поспишь.

N I V' D V''-Төшөгүңдү кандай салсаң, ошондой жатасың.

IV Hortatory sentences.

## 22. V I's N'Pr Part I's N''-Cut your coat according to your cloth.

V I's N'Ving Pr Ving N''-Крой свою одежду, исходя из имеющегося материала.

N'V'N'' V'' N'' 'V'' '-Колунда бар материалга карап киймиңди быч.

b) Syntactical Level.

The following components of the syntactical level can be distinguished. Such symbols will be used:

S-substantive; P-simple predicate;

Pc-copula (глагол-связка).

Comp S-subjective filling.

O'- non-prepositional direct object.

O''- non-prepositional indirect object.

Comp o-objectival filling.

Attr-attribute; Adv.-adverbial modifier.

O'' '-prepositional object.

Par.-parenthetical element.

Sp-specification(уточнение).

We can distinguish 7 functional-positional models of proverbs:

1. (23) SP-The dogs bark(but the caravan goes on).

SP-Собаки (a) лают (e).

SP-Ит үрөт (кербен жүрөт).

2. (24) SPc Comp s-A living dog is better than a dead lion.

SP Comp- s-Живая собака лучше мертвого льва.

O'SP- Өлгөн жолборстон тирүү чычкан артык.

3. (25) SPO'-One drop of poison infects the whole turn of wine.

- SPO'-Одна капля яда заражает всю бочку вина.  
 SO'P-Бир кумалак бир карын майды булгайт(чиритет).
4. (26) SPO''-You must pay the fiddler (if you dance).  
 SPO''-Ты должен платить скрипачу(за музыку).  
 O''P-Кыякчыга төлөшүң керек.
5. (27) SpcO'' '-One word is enough to the wise.  
 SPO'' -Одно слово достаточно для умного.  
 SO'P-Акылдуу бир сөздөн түшүнөт.
6. (28) SPO'Comp o-A lazy sheep thinks its wool heavy.  
 O'' SP-Ленивой овце собственная шерсть тяжела.  
 SO'P-Жалкоо кой өзүнүн жүнүн оор көрөт.
7. (29) There PS-There is no fire without smoke.  
 He PS-He бывает огня без дыма.  
 O'SP-Төгүн жерден өрт чыкпайт.

### **5. Typology of Proverbial Phraseological Units and Language Teaching.**

Contrastive Typology attempts to find out similarities and differences in both philologically related and non-related languages.

It is now universally recognized that contrastive typology is a field of particular interest to teachers of foreign languages. Contrastive analysis has a part to play in evaluation of errors and avoiding them.

Another criterion of interest to language teaching which has been used for classifying languages is the preferred sequential ordering of the main functional elements of their sentences; Subject, predicate and object.

Thus English and Russian belong to the class SPO languages, while Kyrghyz to SOP. Linguistic similarity and difference can not be asserted for "Languages as wholes" but only level by level, system by system, category by category.

The teacher must discover not only the differences between languages but similarities as well.

Contrastive Typology gives way to solving the following problems of language Teaching:

- ✓ The problem of predicting difficulties on different levels (phonological, syllabic, morphological, syntactic).
- ✓ The problem of choice of language and speech material based on the structures of two languages in accordance with the sequence of teaching material.
- ✓ The problem of methodological forecasting and working out an effective system of teaching methods and teaching techniques.
- ✓ The problem of founding a scientifically valid system of textbooks.
- ✓ The problem of teaching in different national republics.

## Typical mistakes are to be taken into consideration.

### 1) Russian learners:

- a) use instead of [ ]- [ ] (bad[bed]-[b d] have[hɛf]-[h 'v];
- b) of [ ]-[e]= (her[hɛ:]-[h :];
- c) do not use articles;
- d) mispronounce interdental consonants [ ], [ ], [ ];

### 2) Kyrghyz learners:

- a) make the same error a as the Russians;
- b) do not use the articles properly  
(I am a pupil. Asan lives in the Osh. I am a young.)
- c) do not use prepositions at all  
(I school V go; My sister lives V Moscow).
- d) use the prepositions erroneously  
(I go to home; I work in the collective farm)
- d) Distort the order of words (At the factory works he "instead of" He works at the factory". "I not go to school everyday" instead of "I do not go to school every day", "You go to school every day?" instead of "Do you go to school every day?").

## TASKS FOR CONTROL

### 1. Definition Task

Define phraseology and explain what is meant by a phraseological unit.

### 2. Identification Task

List the main types of phraseological units found in languages.

### 3. Terminology Task

Explain the following terms:

- a) phraseological unit
- b) idiom
- c) set expression

### 4. Matching Task

Match the terms with their definitions.

#### Terms

#### Definitions

- a) Idiom                      1. A stable word combination with figurative meaning
- b) Phraseological unit    2. A fixed expression used in language
- c) Set expression         3. A group of words functioning as a single semantic unit

### 5. True or False

- 1. Phraseological units have a fixed structure.
- 2. Idioms can be translated word for word.
- 3. Phraseology studies stable word combinations.
- 4. Phraseological expressions often have figurative meanings.

### 6. Table Completion Task

Complete the table comparing phraseological systems.

## Language Example of Phraseological Unit Meaning

English

Russian

Kyrgyz

### 7. Short Essay Task

Write 6–8 sentences explaining the importance of phraseological units in language learning.

### 8. Comparative Task

Compare phraseological expressions in English, Russian, and Kyrgyz. Identify at least two similarities or differences.

### 9. Example Task

Provide three examples of idioms in English and explain their meanings.

### 10. Analytical Task

Explain why phraseological units are difficult for foreign language learners.

### 11. Translation Task

Translate the following idioms into your native language and explain their meanings:

- *Break the ice*
- *Spill the beans*
- *Once in a blue moon*

### 12. Discussion Question

How can phraseological units help learners understand the culture of a language?

### 13. Teaching Application Task

Suggest two methods for teaching phraseological units in a foreign language classroom.

### 14. Research Task

Prepare a short presentation (5–7 minutes) about the role of phraseology in language teaching.

### 15. Critical Thinking Task

Explain why contrastive analysis of phraseological systems is important for translation and language teaching.

***В результате освоения лекции формируется ряд компетенций:***

- способен самостоятельно анализировать и интерпретировать с лингвистической (и литературоведческой) точки зрения различные типы текстов (ПК-13);

#### **Литература:**

1. Лисс А. Н. и др. Обзорные лекции по сравнительной типологии английского, русского, кыргызского языков. Фрунзе: 1988.

2. Аракин В. Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков -2-е изд. -П.: Просвещения, 1989

3. Аракин В. Д. Типология языков и проблема методического прогнозирования. М.. Высшая школа, 1989

## **Theme: Typology of Word-Combinations in English, Russian, and Kyrgyz**

The study of word-combinations occupies an important place in linguistic typology because word-combinations represent one of the fundamental units of syntax. They show how words interact with each other to form meaningful structures in speech. The typological analysis of word-combinations helps linguists understand both the universal and language-specific principles of syntactic organization. When comparing

languages such as English, Russian, and Kyrgyz, researchers pay attention to the structural, semantic, and functional characteristics of word-combinations.

A word-combination is a syntactic unit consisting of two or more words which are grammatically and semantically connected but do not constitute a complete sentence. Unlike a sentence, a word-combination does not express a finished thought. It usually includes a head word and one or more dependent words. For example, in the English combination beautiful house, the noun house functions as the head word, while beautiful acts as a modifier.

In typological linguistics, word-combinations are often classified according to several criteria. One of the most common classifications is based on the part of speech of the head word. According to this principle, word-combinations may be divided into substantive (noun) combinations, verbal combinations, adjectival combinations, and adverbial combinations. Noun combinations usually consist of a noun with modifiers, such as a large building in English, большой дом in Russian, and чоң үй in Kyrgyz. Verbal combinations include a verb and its complements or modifiers, for example read a book, читать книгу, and китеп окуу.

Another important typological classification is based on the type of syntactic relation between the components of a word-combination. Linguists usually distinguish three main types of syntactic relations: agreement, government, and adjacency. Agreement occurs when the dependent word changes its grammatical form according to the head word. This phenomenon is very common in languages with rich inflectional systems, such as Russian and Kyrgyz. For instance, in Russian the adjective agrees with the noun in gender, number, and case: большой дом, большого дома. In Kyrgyz, similar agreement patterns can be observed in certain constructions.

Government refers to a syntactic relation in which the head word requires the dependent word to appear in a particular grammatical form. This type of relation is especially typical of verbs that govern certain cases or prepositions. For example, in Russian the verb ждать requires the genitive case: ждать друга. In English, government is often expressed through prepositions, such as depend on somebody or listen to music.

The third type of syntactic relation is adjacency, also called juxtaposition. In this case, the connection between words is expressed mainly through word order rather than morphological changes. Adjacency plays a particularly important role in analytic languages like English, where grammatical relations are often indicated by word order. For example, the phrase very interesting book demonstrates adjacency because the words are connected primarily through their position in the phrase.

Typological comparison of word-combinations also involves the study of word order patterns. English generally follows a relatively fixed word order, which is important for maintaining grammatical relations. For instance, adjectives usually precede nouns (a beautiful city). In Russian and Kyrgyz, however, word order can be more flexible due to the presence of grammatical endings. Nevertheless, typical patterns still exist. In Kyrgyz, modifiers usually precede the noun, as in жакшы китеп (“a good book”).

Another important aspect of typology is the distinction between free word-combinations and phraseological units. Free combinations allow substitution of components without significant changes in meaning, such as read a book or write a letter. Phraseological units, on the other hand, are stable expressions with a fixed structure and often figurative meaning, for example kick the bucket in English.

In language teaching, the typological study of word-combinations plays a significant role. Understanding the similarities and differences between languages helps teachers predict potential difficulties for learners. For example, students whose native language is Kyrgyz or Russian may encounter problems with English word order because English relies more heavily on syntactic position rather than inflection.

The typology of word-combinations studies how words combine with each other in different languages and what structural, grammatical, and semantic relations exist between them. Word-combinations are syntactic units consisting of two or more words connected grammatically and semantically but not forming a complete sentence. In comparative typology, analyzing word-combinations helps reveal similarities and differences between languages such as English, Russian, and Kyrgyz.

### 1. Structural Types of Word-Combinations

Word-combinations in the three languages may be classified according to the part of speech of the head word.

#### 1. Noun (Substantive) Word-Combinations

These combinations contain a noun as the head word and one or more modifiers.

| English             | Russian          | Kyrgyz         | Meaning          |
|---------------------|------------------|----------------|------------------|
| a beautiful house   | красивый дом     | кооз үй        | beautiful house  |
| an interesting book | интересная книга | кызыктуу китеп | interesting book |

Typological observation:

- In English, adjectives usually precede nouns.
- In Russian, adjectives agree with nouns in gender, number, and case.
- In Kyrgyz, modifiers also precede the noun, but there is no grammatical gender.

#### 2. Verbal Word-Combinations

These consist of a verb as the head word with objects or modifiers.

| English        | Russian       | Kyrgyz     | Meaning           |
|----------------|---------------|------------|-------------------|
| read a book    | читать книгу  | китеп окуу | to read a book    |
| write a letter | писать письмо | кат жазуу  | to write a letter |

Typological observation:

- English relies mainly on word order.
- Russian uses case endings (e.g., *книгу* – accusative).
- Kyrgyz often uses case suffixes (e.g., *китепти*).

#### 3. Adjectival Word-Combinations

These contain an adjective as the head element.

| English           | Russian              | Kyrgyz                 |
|-------------------|----------------------|------------------------|
| very happy        | очень счастлив       | абдан бактылуу         |
| proud of his work | гордый своей работой | иши менен сыймыктанган |

Typological observation:  
English often uses prepositions, while Russian and Kyrgyz may use case forms or postpositions.

#### 4. Adverbial Word-Combinations

| English      | Russian         | Kyrgyz      |
|--------------|-----------------|-------------|
| very quickly | очень быстро    | абдан тез   |
| quite well   | довольно хорошо | абдан жакшы |

## 2. Types of Syntactic Relations in Word-Combinations

### 1. Agreement

The dependent word changes according to the grammatical form of the head word.

Examples

| English     | Russian   | Kyrgyz       |
|-------------|-----------|--------------|
| this book   | эта книга | бул китеп    |
| these books | эти книги | бул китептер |

Typological observation:

- Agreement is strongly developed in Russian.
- In Kyrgyz, agreement mainly occurs in number.
- In English, agreement is limited.

### 2. Government

The head word requires a specific grammatical form of the dependent word.

| English         | Russian          | Kyrgyz                |
|-----------------|------------------|-----------------------|
| listen to music | слушать музыку   | музыка угуу           |
| depend on him   | зависеть от него | ага көз каранды болуу |

Observation:

Russian and Kyrgyz use cases or suffixes, while English uses prepositions.

### 3. Adjacency (Word Order)

Words are connected mainly by position in the sentence.

| English               | Russian                | Kyrgyz               |
|-----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|
| very interesting book | очень интересная книга | абдан кызыктуу китеп |

Observation:

Adjacency is especially important in English because it is more analytic, while Russian and Kyrgyz use more inflection or suffixation.

## 3. Word Order in Word-Combinations

Typical modifier + noun structure:

| English          | Russian           | Kyrgyz           |
|------------------|-------------------|------------------|
| a good student   | хороший студент   | жакшы студент    |
| a new university | новый университет | жаңы университет |

Important typological differences:

- English word order is fixed.
- Russian word order is more flexible because of case endings.
- Kyrgyz usually follows the modifier + head pattern but allows flexibility.

#### 4. Free Word-Combinations vs Phraseological Units

##### Free Word-Combinations

Meaning comes from the meanings of individual words.

Examples:

| English       | Russian       | Kyrgyz     |
|---------------|---------------|------------|
| read a book   | читать книгу  | китеп окуу |
| open the door | открыть дверь | эшик ачуу  |

##### Phraseological Units

| English         | Russian         | Kyrgyz       | Meaning             |
|-----------------|-----------------|--------------|---------------------|
| break the ice   | растопить лёд   | музду эритүү | start communication |
| spill the beans | раскрыть секрет | сырды ачуу   | reveal a secret     |

The typological comparison of word-combinations in English, Russian, and Kyrgyz shows both similarities and differences. All three languages use similar structural patterns such as noun, verb, and adjectival combinations. However, they differ significantly in the means of expressing grammatical relations. English relies mainly on word order and prepositions, Russian uses rich inflection and agreement, while Kyrgyz uses agglutinative suffixes. Studying these differences is important for linguistic research, translation, and foreign language teaching because it helps learners understand how syntactic structures function in different languages.

In conclusion, the typology of word-combinations provides valuable insights into the structural organization of languages. By comparing different languages, linguists can identify universal principles of syntactic structure as well as language-specific features. This comparative approach contributes not only to theoretical linguistics but also to practical fields such as translation and foreign language teaching.

#### TASKS FOR CONTROL

##### 1. Definition Task

Define the term word-combination and explain its role in syntax. Give examples in English, Russian, and Kyrgyz.

##### 2. Identification Task

Identify the head word and dependent word in the following combinations:

- English: *beautiful city*
- Russian: *красивый город*
- Kyrgyz: *кооз шаар*

##### 3. Classification Task

Classify the following word-combinations by part of speech of the head word (noun, verb, adjective, adverb):

- English: *read a book, very quickly, a new teacher*
- Russian: *читать книгу, очень быстро, новый учитель*
- Kyrgyz: *китеп окуу, абдан тез, жаңы мугалим*

##### 4. Matching Task

Match the type of syntactic relation with examples.

| Type of Relation | Example                  |
|------------------|--------------------------|
| a) Agreement     | 1. красивый дом          |
| b) Government    | 2. listen to music       |
| c) Adjacency     | 3. very interesting book |

#### 5. True or False

Decide whether the statements are true or false:

1. Word-combinations always express a complete thought.
2. English relies more on word order than Russian.
3. Kyrgyz modifiers usually follow the noun.
4. Phraseological units are fixed and often figurative.

#### 6. Table Completion Task

Complete the table comparing word-combinations.

| Category               | English | Russian | Kyrgyz |
|------------------------|---------|---------|--------|
| Noun combinations      |         |         |        |
| Verbal combinations    |         |         |        |
| Adjective combinations |         |         |        |
| Adverbial combinations |         |         |        |

#### 7. Analytical Task

Explain how agreement works in Russian and compare it with English and Kyrgyz. Give examples.

#### 8. Comparative Task

Compare government in English, Russian, and Kyrgyz using verbs that require objects or prepositions. Examples:

- English: *depend on him*
- Russian: *ждать друга*
- Kyrgyz: *ага көз каранды болуу*

#### 9. Word Order Task

Analyze the word order in the following combinations and explain typological differences:

- English: *a very interesting book*
- Russian: *очень интересная книга*
- Kyrgyz: *абдан кызыктуу китеп*

#### 10. Free vs Phraseological Units

Classify the following as free word-combinations or phraseological units:

- English: *kick the bucket, read a book*
- Russian: *раскрыть секрет, читать книгу*
- Kyrgyz: *музду эритүү, китеп окуу*

#### 11. Stress and Emphasis Task

Explain how stress in English, Russian, and Kyrgyz affects the meaning of multi-word units (e.g., sentence stress, phrase stress).

#### 12. Translation Task

Translate these word-combinations from English to Russian and Kyrgyz and comment on syntactic differences:

- *open the door*
- *make a decision*
- *bright red apple*

#### 13. Short Essay Task

Write 6–8 sentences explaining why typological analysis of word-combinations is important for language teaching.

#### 14. Practical Application Task

Create three examples of noun + adjective combinations in English, Russian, and Kyrgyz, and show agreement, government, or adjacency.

#### 15. Research Task

Prepare a short report (5–7 minutes) comparing word-combination patterns in English, Russian, and Kyrgyz, focusing on syntactic relations, word order, and typological features.

***В результате освоения лекции формируется ряд компетенций:***

- способен применять методы, приемы анализа, интерпретации, обработки, создания и трансформации различных типов и видов текстов (ПК-12);

#### **Литература:**

1. Лисс А. Н. и др. Обзорные лекции по сравнительной типологии английского, русского, кыргызского языков. Фрунзе: 1988.
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3. Аракин Б. Д. Типология языков и проблема методического прогнозирования. М.. Высшая школа, 1989

### **Theme: Types of language comparison**

Language comparison can be broadly divided into two main categories:

#### **1. Genetic Comparison:**

This type of comparison focuses on languages that share a common ancestor and belong to the same language family. It aims to identify historical relationships between languages and reconstruct their ancestral forms. Here are some key aspects of genetic comparison:

- **Methods:** Examining shared vocabulary (cognates), sound changes (regular sound correspondences), and grammatical features across languages in a family.
- **Examples:** Comparing Romance languages like French, Spanish, and Italian to reveal their shared Latin roots. Analyzing similarities between Slavic languages like Polish, Russian, and Czech to reconstruct Proto-Slavic.
- **Benefits:** Provides insights into language evolution and historical migrations of people. Helps understand how languages diverge from a common ancestor.
- **Limitations:** Only applicable to languages with a demonstrably shared ancestry. Ignores typological similarities that might arise due to other factors like contact or borrowing.

#### **2. Typological Comparison:**

This type of comparison focuses on identifying similarities and differences in the structure of languages, regardless of their genetic relationship. It aims to categorize languages based on shared features and understand the diversity of human language systems. Here's a breakdown of typological comparison:

- **Focus:** Analyzing features like morphology (word formation), syntax (sentence structure), and lexicon (vocabulary) to classify languages.
- **Types:** There are various subcategories within typological comparison, such as:
  - **Morphological Typology:** Classifies languages based on how they express grammatical meaning (e.g., analytic like English, synthetic like Russian, agglutinative like Turkish).
  - **Word Order Typology:** Classifies languages based on the typical order of subject, verb, and object (e.g., SVO like English, SOV like Japanese, VSO like Arabic).
  - **Syntactic Typology:** Classifies languages based on clause structure and how they handle dependencies between words.
- **Benefits:** Provides a broader framework for understanding language variation. Helps identify typological universals and potential reasons for them. Offers insights into the relationship between language structure and thought processes.
- **Limitations:** Oversimplification can occur, as languages often exhibit characteristics of multiple types. Focus on universals might overlook the richness and complexity of individual languages.

### Choosing the Right Approach:

The choice of approach depends on the specific research question at hand:

- **To understand historical relationships and language evolution:** Genetic Comparison
- **To explore language variation and typology:** Typological Comparison

Remember, languages can be compared using both genetic and typological approaches, offering a more comprehensive picture of their characteristics and relationships.

### TASKS FOR CONTROL

#### 1. Definition Task

Define language comparison and explain its importance in linguistics.

#### 2. Identification Task

List the main types of language comparison.

#### 3. Classification Task

Classify the following types of comparison: genetic, typological, contrastive, synchronic, diachronic.

#### 4. Matching Task

Match the type of comparison with its definition.

| Type of Comparison | Definition   |
|--------------------|--|
| a) Genetic         | 1. Studies languages to find their historical relationship                     |
| b) Typological     | 2. Studies structural similarities and differences without considering history |
| c) Contrastive     | 3. Compares a foreign language and a native language for practical purposes    |
| d) Synchronic      | 4. Studies a language at a particular point in time                            |
| e) Diachronic      | 5. Studies changes in a language over time                                     |

## 5. True or False

1. Contrastive comparison is useful for language teaching.
2. Typological comparison only focuses on historical relationships.
3. Synchronic comparison studies languages at a single point in time.
4. Genetic comparison examines the evolution of languages.

## 6. Short Essay Task

Write 5–7 sentences explaining the difference between synchronic and diachronic comparison.

## 7. Analytical Task

Explain how contrastive analysis can help identify difficulties for foreign language learners.

## 8. Example Task

Give examples of genetically related languages and languages compared typologically.

## 9. Comparative Task

Compare typological comparison and contrastive comparison in terms of aims and methodology.

## 10. Application Task

Identify the type of comparison in the following research topics:

1. *The use of tense in English and Russian*
2. *The evolution of the English past tense system*
3. *Structural similarities between Japanese and Turkish*

## 11. Table Completion Task

Complete the table:

| Type of Comparison | Object of Study | Example |
|--------------------|-----------------|---------|
|--------------------|-----------------|---------|

Genetic

Typological

Contrastive

Synchronic

Diachronic

## 12. Research Task

Prepare a short report (5 minutes) on the importance of typological comparison in linguistic studies.

## 13. Discussion Question

Why is contrastive analysis especially important in foreign language teaching?

## 14. Practical Exercise

Analyze the following pairs of languages and determine the type of comparison most appropriate:

- English – German
- Russian – Kyrgyz
- French – Japanese

## 15. Critical Thinking Task

Explain how combining different types of language comparison (genetic, typological, contrastive) can give a more complete understanding of language structure and usage.

**В результате освоения лекции формируется ряд компетенций:**

- способен самостоятельно анализировать и интерпретировать с лингвистической (и литературоведческой) точки зрения различные типы текстов (ПК-13);

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### **Theme: Phonetics and phonology as different branches of Linguistics**

Phonetics and phonology are two closely related, but distinct branches of linguistics that deal with speech sounds. Here's a breakdown of the key differences:

#### **Phonetics:**

- **Focus:** Phonetics is all about the **physical production, transmission, and perception of speech sounds**. It delves into the mechanics of how we articulate sounds using our vocal cords, tongue, lips, and other speech organs. It also explores the acoustic properties of these sounds, how they travel through the air, and how they are perceived by the human ear.
- **Key Areas:**
  - **Articulatory phonetics:** Examines the movements of the vocal organs involved in sound production (e.g., bilabial sounds like /p/ and /b/ involve both lips).
  - **Acoustic phonetics:** Analyzes the physical properties of sound waves, such as frequency and amplitude, to distinguish between different sounds (e.g., vowels and consonants have different acoustic properties).
  - **Auditory phonetics:** Explores how the human auditory system perceives and interprets sound waves as speech sounds.

#### **Phonology:**

- **Focus:** Phonology, on the other hand, is concerned with the **organization and function of speech sounds within a particular language**. It deals with the **mental categories** (phonemes) that speakers use to distinguish words.
- **Key Concepts:**
  - **Phonemes:** These are the basic units of sound in a language that can differentiate meaning. For example, the difference between "pin" and "bin" lies in the initial phonemes /p/ and /b/.
  - **Allophones:** These are variations of a phoneme that occur in different phonetic contexts. For instance, the /p/ sound in "pin" might be slightly different from the /p/ sound in "spin," but they both belong to the same phoneme category in English.
  - **Phonological rules:** These are the rules that govern how phonemes can be combined within a language. These rules determine sound alternations, permissible sound sequences, and stress placement.

### Here's an analogy:

- Think of phonetics as the study of the **physical characteristics** of the letters of the alphabet (how they are produced, their sound waves).
- Phonology is like studying the **rules of spelling and grammar** in a language, using these letters to form meaningful words and sentences (phonemes and how they combine).

Phonetics provides the foundation for understanding how speech sounds are produced and perceived. Phonology builds upon this foundation to explore how these sounds are organized and function within a language system to create meaning. Both phonetics and phonology are crucial for understanding the building blocks of human spoken language.

Phonetics can be divided into several types like:

**General phonetics.** It studies universal positions of sound articulation (for instance, identification of sounds according to the position the differences of labial, tongue and throat consonants, according to the ways of articulation of plosive, fricative and plosive-fricative features), although, general acoustic features of sounds.

**Specific phonetics.** It investigates above mentioned issues in the samples of certain languages. Specific phonetics researches phonetics in the shapes of historical and modern, synchronic and diachronic, descriptive and experimental sides.

**Comparative phonetics** investigates vowel and consonant phonemes, their phonetic changes and others in the comparative aspect of several genetically related and non-related languages. **Phonology** (sometimes called phonemics or phonematics) is the study of how sounds are used in languages to convey meaning. The term of phonology (Greek phone - sound, logos – science) appeared in linguistics in the necessity of differentiating functional (linguistic) sides of speech sounds from the physiological-acoustic (physic) sides in the end of XIX century. It studies the rules governing the structure, distribution, and sequencing of speech sounds and the shape of syllables. It deals with the sounds systems of a language by treating phoneme as the point of departure.

With another word, phonetics deals with sounds and phonology deals with phonemes. Or else phonology deals with language sounds and phonetics deals with human speech sounds.

Phonetics and phonology have two levels: *segmental* and *suprasegmental*. **Segmental phonology** studies phonemes realized in a various speech sound. So it may be called phonemics. **Suprasegmental phonology** (prosodics) studies the distinctive features realized in syllables, stress, and intonation.

The fundamental concept of phonemics is the phoneme which is the smallest meaningless unit of a language and which forms, distinguishes words and morphemes. The linguistic form and content are described by other branches of linguistics.

At a given time, the set of phonemes in a language is a closed set (like function words and syntactic rules). The set of phonemes changes only over time. English, for instance, has lost the phonemes [x] and [Σ]. English has also gained phonemes by borrowing foreign words with the sounds [z] and [Z]. Neither of these sounds was phonemes in English until they entered the language in numerous words borrowed from Norman French after 1066. Similarly, the sound [t] was not part of Russian until after the Christianization in 988, when many Greek words containing [f] were borrowed by the Slavs.

The Phonological typology deals with the comparison of units of the phonological level of language. It engages in the allocation of phonological differential signs, defining their universality, study of the phonological structure of languages, classification of languages based on their phonological features (e.g. tonic and atonic languages), defining the phonemic structure of world languages and many others. For a long time, the Prague linguistic school was the centre of Phonological typology. A certain contribution to the development of Phonological typology was made by N.S.Trubetskoy who is considered the founder of Typology of Phonological systems.

### **TASKS FOR CONTROL**

#### 1. Definition Task

Define phonetics and phonology. Explain the main difference between them.

#### 2. Identification Task

Identify whether the following studies belong to phonetics or phonology:

1. Analysis of vowel articulation
2. Studying phonemes in English and Russian
3. Measuring speech sound frequency and duration
4. Explaining minimal pairs in English (*bat* vs *bad*)

#### 3. True or False

1. Phonetics studies speech sounds as physical phenomena.
2. Phonology studies how sounds function in a language.
3. Phonetics ignores the role of sounds in distinguishing meaning.
4. Phonology examines both the distribution and patterns of phonemes.

#### 4. Short Essay Task

Write 5–7 sentences explaining how phonetics and phonology complement each other in language study.

#### 5. Comparative Task

Compare the focus of articulatory phonetics, acoustic phonetics, and auditory phonetics.

#### 6. Example Task

Provide examples of minimal pairs in English that show phonological contrast:

- /p/ vs /b/
- /t/ vs /d/

#### 7. Table Completion Task

Complete the table:

Branch Object of Study Example

Phonetics

Phonology

8. Classification Task

Classify English, Russian, and Kyrgyz sounds into vowels and consonants and indicate which branch studies each type.

9. Analytical Task

Explain the difference between speech sounds (phones) and phonemes. Give examples in English and Russian.

10. Matching Task

Match the phonetic branch with its method:

| Branch                    | Method   |
|---------------------------|--|
| a) Articulatory phonetics | 1. Observing tongue and lip positions          |
| b) Acoustic phonetics     | 2. Measuring sound frequency and amplitude     |
| c) Auditory phonetics     | 3. Perception of sounds by the human ear       |
| d) Phonology              | 4. Analyzing distinctive features and phonemes |

11. Practical Exercise

Transcribe the following English words phonetically and indicate the phonemes:

- cat, ship, think

12. Research Task

Prepare a short presentation (5 minutes) explaining the roles of phonetics and phonology in foreign language teaching.

13. Discussion Question

Why can two languages have the same phonemes but different phonetic realizations? Give examples from English, Russian, and Kyrgyz.

14. Concept Explanation

Explain allophones and provide examples from English or Russian.

15. Critical Thinking Task

Discuss how understanding both phonetics and phonology can help learners improve pronunciation and comprehension in a foreign language.

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- способен самостоятельно анализировать и интерпретировать с лингвистической (и литературоведческой) точки зрения различные типы текстов (ПК-13);

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### **Theme: Typological characteristics of English and Kyrgyz languages phonetic system**

To analyze the typological characteristics of English and your native language's phonetics, we need some information about your native language. However, here's a general comparison of English phonetics with some common typological features:

## English Phonetics:

- **Consonant Inventory:** English has a relatively large consonant inventory compared to some languages, with around 24 consonants. It includes sounds like voiceless plosives (/p/, /t/, /k/), voiced plosives (/b/, /d/, /g/), fricatives (/f/, /v/, /s/, /z/), nasals (/m/, /n/, /ŋ/), liquids (/l/, /r/), and glides (/w/, /j/).
- **Vowel Inventory:** English has a moderate vowel inventory with around 12-14 monophthongs (single vowels) depending on dialect, and a few diphthongs (combined vowel sounds). The vowels can be categorized based on their tongue height (high, mid, low) and backness (front, central, back).
- **Stress:** English is a stress-timed language, meaning stressed syllables tend to occur at relatively regular intervals. Stress can also affect vowel quality in English (e.g., "ship" vs. "shipping").

## Typological Features:

Here are some typological features to consider when comparing English and your native language:

- **Consonant Inventory Size:** Languages vary in the number of consonants they have. Some languages, like Hawaiian, have very few consonants, while others, like some African languages, have very large inventories.
- **Vowel Inventory Size and Quality:** Similar to consonants, languages differ in the number of vowels they possess and the way they are distinguished (based on tongue height, backness, or other features).
- **Presence of Tones:** Some languages, like Mandarin Chinese, are tonal languages, where pitch variations can change the meaning of a word. English is not a tonal language.
- **Consonant Clusters:** Languages differ in how many consonants they can combine in a single cluster at the beginning or end of a syllable. English allows for some consonant clusters (e.g., "strength"), but some languages might have simpler syllable structures.

## Here's how you can compare your native language to English:

1. **Research your native language's phonetics:** Find resources that describe the consonant and vowel inventories, the presence of tones (if any), and typical consonant clusters.
2. **Compare the features:** Analyze how your native language compares to English in terms of these typological features. Does it have a larger or smaller consonant inventory? Does it have more or fewer vowels? Does it use tones?
3. **Consider the implications:** Think about how these phonetic characteristics might influence the sound of your native language compared to English. For instance, a language with many consonant clusters might sound denser than

English, while a language with a simpler syllable structure might sound more rhythmic.

By comparing these features, you can gain a deeper understanding of the typological differences between English and your native language's sound systems.

Here's a breakdown of some key typological features comparing the phonetics of English and Kyrgyz:

**Consonant Inventory:**

**English:** Possesses a relatively large consonant inventory with around 24 consonants. It includes voiceless and voiced plosives, fricatives, nasals, liquids, and glides.

**Kyrgyz:** Has a smaller consonant inventory compared to English, with around 20 consonants. It includes voiceless and voiced plosives, fricatives, affricates (combined plosive and fricative), nasals, liquids, and glides. A notable difference is the presence of affricates in Kyrgyz, which are absent in standard English.

**Inventory:**

**English:** Has a moderate vowel inventory with around 12-14 monophthongs depending on dialect, and a few diphthongs. Vowels are distinguished based on tongue height and backness.

**Kyrgyz:** Has a smaller vowel inventory compared to English, with around 8 vowels. Similarly, these vowels are categorized based on tongue height and backness.

**Stress:**

**English:** A stress-timed language, where stressed syllables occur at relatively regular intervals. Stress can also affect vowel quality.

**Kyrgyz:** A syllabic language, where each syllable has roughly equal prominence. Stress is not a distinctive feature in Kyrgyz.

**Other Features:**

**Tone:** English is not a tonal language. Kyrgyz is also not a tonal language.

**Consonant Clusters:** Both English and Kyrgyz allow for some consonant clusters, but Kyrgyz might have a slightly higher tolerance for complex clusters, especially at the beginning of syllables.

**Summary Table:**

Here's a breakdown of some key typological features comparing the phonetics of English and Kyrgyz:

**Consonant Inventory:**

**English:** Possesses a relatively large consonant inventory with around 24 consonants. It includes voiceless and voiced plosives, fricatives, nasals, liquids, and glides.

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Vowel Inventory:

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Summary Table:

| Feature                  | English                 | Kyrgyz                   |
|--------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| Consonant Inventory Size | Larger (around 24)      | Smaller (around 20)      |
| Presence of Affricates   | No                      | Yes                      |
| Vowel Inventory Size     | Moderate (around 12-14) | Smaller (around 8)       |
| Stress                   | Stress-Timed            | Syllabic                 |
| Tone                     | No                      | No                       |
| Consonant Clusters       | Allowed                 | Potentially more complex |

The information above provides a general comparison, and specific details might vary depending on dialects within each language.

Vowel harmony is a prominent feature in Kyrgyz, where vowels within a word tend to share certain phonetic features. This phenomenon is not present in English.

By analyzing these typological characteristics, we can see that English and Kyrgyz have distinct sound systems. English has a larger consonant and vowel inventory, relies on stress for meaning distinction, and allows for some consonant clusters. Kyrgyz, on the other hand, has a smaller sound inventory, emphasizes syllable equality, and potentially allows for more complex consonant clusters at the beginning

of syllables. These differences contribute to the unique sound qualities of each language.

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### **TASKS FOR CONTROL**

#### 1. Definition Task

Define phonetic system and explain the meaning of typological characteristics in phonetics.

#### 2. Identification Task

Identify the number of vowels and consonants in English and Kyrgyz.

#### 3. Comparison Task

Compare the monophthongs and diphthongs of English and Kyrgyz. Give examples.

#### 4. True or False

1. English has both short and long vowels, Kyrgyz does as well.
2. Kyrgyz has no diphthongs.
3. English consonants include sounds not present in Kyrgyz.
4. Both English and Kyrgyz have voiced and voiceless consonants.

#### 5. Table Completion Task

Complete the table comparing English and Kyrgyz vowels:

| Feature          | English | Kyrgyz |
|------------------|---------|--------|
| Number of vowels |         |        |
| Long vowels      |         |        |
| Short vowels     |         |        |
| Diphthongs       |         |        |

#### 6. Consonant Comparison

List 5 English consonants that are absent in Kyrgyz, and 5 Kyrgyz consonants absent in English.

#### 7. Analytical Task

Explain aspiration in English consonants and compare it with Kyrgyz pronunciation.

#### 8. Minimal Pairs Task

Provide 3 English minimal pairs and 3 Kyrgyz minimal pairs illustrating phonemic contrasts.

#### 9. Word Stress Task

Compare the word stress patterns in English and Kyrgyz. Give examples.

#### 10. Sentence Stress Task

Analyze how sentence stress differs in English and Kyrgyz. Give example sentences.

#### 11. Intonation Task

Compare the types of intonation in English and Kyrgyz (rising, falling, leveled). Provide examples.

## 12. Transcription Task

Transcribe the following words phonetically in English and Kyrgyz:

- English: *time, bag, house*
- Kyrgyz: *уй, кумен, бара*

## 13. Distinctive Features Task

Identify distinctive phonetic features in English and Kyrgyz vowels and consonants (e.g., front/back, voiced/voiceless).

## 14. Practical Exercise

Compare assimilation phenomena in English and Kyrgyz using examples:

- English: *does she?*
- Kyrgyz: *чык+ба = чыкпа*

## 15. Research Task

Prepare a short report (5–7 minutes) describing typological differences and similarities between the English and Kyrgyz phonetic systems, focusing on vowels, consonants, stress, and intonation.

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## **Theme: Typological characteristics of English and Kyrgyz languages phonological system**

Building upon the analysis of phonetics, let's delve into the phonological systems of English and Kyrgyz, focusing on how sounds are organized and function within each language.

### **English Phonology:**

- **Phonemes:** English has a smaller number of phonemes compared to its phoneme inventory. This is because some phonetically distinct sounds (allophones) don't differentiate meaning and belong to the same phoneme category.
  - Example: The /p/ sound in "pin" and "spin" might be slightly different, but they both belong to the same phoneme /p/ in English.
- **Phonological Processes:** English phonology includes various processes that govern how sounds can be combined and modified in speech. These include:
  - **Assimilation:** A sound becomes more similar to a neighboring sound (e.g., "can you" pronounced as "can'ya").
  - **Elision:** A sound is omitted in connected speech (e.g., "the apple" pronounced as "th'apple").

- **Vowel Reduction:** Unstressed vowels become shorter or centralized (e.g., the "a" in "about").

### **Kyrgyz Phonology:**

- **Phonemes:** Similar to English, Kyrgyz has a smaller number of phonemes compared to its phonetic inventory due to allophones.
- **Vowel Harmony:** A key feature of Kyrgyz phonology is vowel harmony. Vowels within a word tend to share certain features, like being front or back rounded vowels (e.g., "ölü" - dead, all vowels are front vowels). This harmony system influences vowel selection and phonological rules.
- **Phonological Processes:** Kyrgyz phonology also employs various processes like assimilation and elision, but the specific rules might differ from English.

### **Comparison:**

Here's a breakdown of how they compare:

| <b>Feature</b>                    | <b>English</b>                             | <b>Kyrgyz</b>  |
|-----------------------------------|--|--|
| Phoneme Inventory (relative size) | Smaller than phonetic inventory            | Smaller than phonetic inventory                                    |
| Distinctive Feature               | Primarily place and manner of articulation | Vowel harmony plays a significant role                             |
| Phonological Processes            | Assimilation, elision, vowel reduction     | Vowel harmony, assimilation, elision (potentially different rules) |

- **Stress Assignment:** While English uses stress for meaning distinction, stress placement in Kyrgyz words is generally predictable and doesn't affect meaning.
- **Syllable Structure:** Both languages allow for consonant clusters, but the specific constraints and preferred syllable structure might differ.

By examining the phonological systems of English and Kyrgyz, we see that despite some similarities in using allophones and processes like assimilation, they differ significantly. English relies on a larger phoneme inventory and stress for meaning, while Kyrgyz phonology is heavily influenced by vowel harmony and predictable stress patterns. These features contribute to the unique sound patterns and overall linguistic identity of each language.

### **TASKS FOR CONTROL**

#### 1. Definition Task

Define phonology and explain the difference between phonetics and phonology using English and Kyrgyz examples.

#### 2. Identification Task

List the number of phonemes in English and Kyrgyz languages.

#### 3. Comparison Task

Compare vowel phonemes in English and Kyrgyz. Include short, long, and diphthongs where applicable.

#### 4. True or False

1. English has 12 monophthongs; Kyrgyz has 14.
2. Kyrgyz has no diphthongs.
3. English vowels are divided by tongue position, lip rounding, and length.
4. Kyrgyz vowels are classified mainly by tongue position and lip participation.

#### 5. Table Completion Task

Complete the table comparing English and Kyrgyz vowel systems:

| Feature          | English | Kyrgyz |
|------------------|---------|--------|
| Number of vowels |         |        |
| Short vowels     |         |        |
| Long vowels      |         |        |
| Diphthongs       |         |        |

#### 6. Consonant Comparison Task

Compare consonant phonemes in English and Kyrgyz. Identify unique sounds in each language.

#### 7. Minimal Pairs Task

Provide three minimal pairs in English and Kyrgyz to illustrate phonemic contrasts.

#### 8. Stress Analysis Task

Compare word stress patterns in English (dynamic/fixed) and Kyrgyz (fixed final syllable). Provide examples.

#### 9. Sentence Stress Task

Analyze the function of sentence stress in English and Kyrgyz with examples.

#### 10. Intonation Task

Compare types of intonation patterns in English and Kyrgyz: falling, rising, leveled. Give examples.

#### 11. Assimilation Task

Compare assimilation phenomena in English and Kyrgyz:

- English: *does she?*
- Kyrgyz: *чык+ба = чыкпа*

#### 12. Phoneme vs Allophone Task

Give examples of phonemes and their allophones in English and Kyrgyz. Explain the differences.

#### 13. Articulatory Features Task

Describe the distinctive features of consonants in English and Kyrgyz: voiced/voiceless, aspiration, place, and manner of articulation.

#### 14. Transcription Task

Phonetically transcribe these words in English and Kyrgyz:

- English: *cat, sting, house*
- Kyrgyz: *үй, кутен, барак*

#### 15. Research and Presentation Task

Prepare a short report or presentation (5–7 minutes) discussing typological similarities and differences in the phonological systems of English and Kyrgyz, focusing on vowels, consonants, stress, intonation, and phonemic features.

**В результате освоения лекции формируется ряд компетенций:**

- способен самостоятельно анализировать и интерпретировать с лингвистической (и литературоведческой) точки зрения различные типы текстов (ПК-13);

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## **Theme: Theoretical basis of determining necessary constants in morphological level**

The theoretical basis for determining necessary constants in morphology revolves around the core principle of **capturing the most essential information** to represent the morphological structure of words in a language. Here are some key approaches and considerations:

### **1. Markedness Theory:**

- This theory posits that some morphological features are more basic (unmarked) and universally present, while others are additional modifications (marked) and carry specific meanings.
- **Example:** In many languages, the singular form of a noun is considered unmarked, while the plural form is marked with a suffix. The theory suggests the singular form carries the core meaning of the noun, and the plural adds the extra information of "more than one."

### **2. Feature Economy:**

- This principle aims to describe the morphological structure of words using the fewest features or morphemes possible while still capturing the intended meaning.
- **Example:** If a language has a suffix for both past tense and plural, it might be more economical to have separate suffixes for each feature rather than a single combined suffix, as the combined suffix would be more complex and less transparent.

### **3. Morpheme Integrity:**

- This principle emphasizes the importance of maintaining the integrity of morphemes (meaningful units) within a word.
- **Example:** If a language has a prefix for negation (e.g., "un-"), it's important to ensure this prefix remains recognizable when attached to different stems (e.g., "unhappy," "uncertain"). This avoids creating overly complex morphemes that might be difficult to analyze.

### **4. Language-Specific Constraints:**

- The specific set of necessary constants will ultimately be determined by the unique features and constraints of a particular language.
- **Example:** A language with a complex case system might require more constants to represent different grammatical cases (nominative, accusative, etc.) compared to a language with a simpler case system.

### **Determining Necessary Constants:**

Linguists typically employ a combination of these theoretical frameworks and empirical data from the language to determine the necessary constants:

- **Analyzing a large corpus of words:** This allows for identifying patterns and recurring morphemes.
- **Considering productivity:** Necessary constants should be productive, meaning they can be used to form new words or inflect existing ones.
- **Accounting for allomorphs:** If a morpheme has different forms in different contexts (e.g., the English plural suffix "-s" changes to "-es" or "-ies"), these allomorphs should be accounted for within the system of constants.

**The goal is to create a system that is both efficient and comprehensive, capturing the essential morphological structure of the language without unnecessary complexity.**

### **Additional Notes:**

- The concept of "necessary constants" might also be referred to as "morphological features," "morphemes," or "building blocks" depending on the specific theoretical framework.
- Computational linguistics often utilizes these principles to develop algorithms for morphological analysis and generation.

By understanding the theoretical basis for determining necessary constants, we gain insight into how linguists analyze and represent the intricate world of word formation in human languages.

Morphology is the identification, analysis, and description of the structure of words (words as units in the lexicon are the subject matter of lexicology). While words are generally accepted as being (with clitics) the smallest units of syntax, it is clear that in most (if not all) languages, words can be related to other words by rules. For example, English speakers recognize that the words dog, dogs, and dogcatcher are closely related. English speakers recognize these relations from their tacit knowledge of the rules of word formation in English. They infer intuitively that dog is to dogs as cat is to cats; similarly, the dog is to dogcatcher as the dish is to the dishwasher. The rules understood by the speaker reflect specific patterns (or regularities) in the way words are formed from smaller units and how those smaller units interact in speech. In this way, morphology is the branch of linguistics that studies patterns of word formation within and across languages and attempts to formulate rules that model the knowledge of the speakers of those languages.

In linguistics, a morpheme is the smallest grammatical unit in a language. In other words, it is the smallest meaningful unit of a language. A morpheme is not identical to a word, and the principal difference between the two is that a morpheme may or may

not stand alone, whereas a word, by definition, is freestanding. When it stands by itself, it is considered a root because it has a meaning of its own (e.g. the morpheme cat) and when it depends on another morpheme to express an idea, it is an affix because it has a grammatical function (e.g. the –s in cats to indicate that it is plural). Every word comprises one or more morphemes.

### TASKS FOR CONTROL

1. **Define Morphological Constants**

Explain what is meant by “necessary constants” in the morphological level of a language. Give examples from English, Russian, and Kyrgyz.

2. **Identify Constants in Nouns**

List morphological constants in the noun system of English, Russian, and Kyrgyz (e.g., case endings, plural markers).

3. **Verb Morphology Analysis**

Compare the tense, aspect, and mood markers in English, Russian, and Kyrgyz. Identify which are obligatory constants for proper communication.

4. **Morphological Paradigms**

Construct a paradigm table for a regular verb in English, Russian, and Kyrgyz, highlighting necessary constants.

5. **Inflectional vs. Derivational Morphology**

Distinguish between constants in inflectional and derivational morphology with examples.

6. **Case System Constants**

Identify the minimum set of case markers necessary to convey meaning in Russian and Kyrgyz nouns. Compare with English prepositional phrases.

7. **Gender and Agreement**

Examine how gender or noun class affects necessary morphological constants in Russian and Kyrgyz.

8. **Plurality and Number**

Determine which morphological markers are essential to indicate number in all three languages. Provide examples.

9. **Person and Number in Verbs**

Identify necessary constants in verb conjugation to indicate person and number in English, Russian, and Kyrgyz.

10. **Definiteness and Articles**

Analyze how English expresses definiteness via articles and compare it with morphological strategies in Russian and Kyrgyz. Which are necessary constants?

11. **Morphological Minimalism**

Identify the minimal morphological markers required to preserve meaning in short sentences in each language.

12. **Word Formation Rules**

Determine the constants needed for proper derivation in forming nouns, adjectives, and verbs.

13. **Morphological Redundancy**

Identify cases where multiple markers express the same grammatical category. Decide which are truly necessary constants.

14. **Morphological Typology Application**

Classify each language as analytic, synthetic, or agglutinative, and explain how this affects the determination of necessary constants.

### 15. Practical Task: Sentence Construction

Construct five sentences in English, Russian, and Kyrgyz using only the necessary morphological constants. Identify which markers are indispensable for grammatical correctness.

#### Литература:

1. Бондарко А. В. — Теория морфологических категорий
2. Булыгина Т. В. — Проблемы теории морфологических моделей
3. Кубрякова Е. С. — Основы морфологического анализа
4. Мельчук И. А. — Курс общей морфологии

### Theme: Typology of Parts of Speech in English and Kyrgyz Languages

A part of speech is a category of words (or, more generally, of lexical items) which have similar grammatical properties. Words that are assigned to the same part of speech generally display similar behavior in terms of syntax—they play similar roles within the grammatical structure of sentences—and sometimes in terms of morphology, in that they undergo inflection for similar properties. In grammar, a part of speech (also called lexical categories, grammatical categories or word classes) is a linguistic category of words.

According to their meaning, morphological characteristics and syntactical functions, words fall under certain classes called parts of speech. We distinguish between notional and structural parts of speech in English.

The notional parts of speech perform certain functions in the sentence. The notional parts of speech are:

1. noun
2. adjective
3. pronoun
4. numeral
5. verb
6. adverb
7. words of the category of state
8. modal words
9. interjection

The structural parts of speech either express relations between words or sentences or emphasize the meaning of words or sentences. They never perform any independent function in the sentence. Here belong:

1. preposition
2. conjunction
3. particle
4. article

English and Kyrgyz exhibit some similarities and differences in their categorization of words into parts of speech (POS). Here's a breakdown:

### Similarities:

- **Core Categories:** Both languages share fundamental categories like nouns (naming things), verbs (actions or states of being), adjectives (describe nouns), and adverbs (modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs).
- **Function Words:** Both languages utilize function words like pronouns (substitute for nouns), conjunctions (connect words or phrases), and interjections (express emotions).

### Differences:

- **Number of Categories:** English has a wider range of distinct parts of speech compared to Kyrgyz.
  - **English:** Includes articles ("a," "an," "the"), determiners (specify nouns), and numerals (numbers) as separate categories.
  - **Kyrgyz:** Might not have direct equivalents for articles and might categorize numerals as adjectives.
- **Morphological vs. Syntactic Cues:** English relies more on word order (syntax) to define parts of speech, while Kyrgyz morphology (word structure) plays a more significant role.
  - **English:** "Running" can be a verb ("He is running") or an adjective ("running water").
  - **Kyrgyz:** Verb conjugations often indicate tense, person, and aspect, reducing the need for separate adverbs in some cases.

### Unique Kyrgyz Features:

- **Postpositions:** Kyrgyz uses postpositions (particles placed after nouns) to convey grammatical relationships, unlike English prepositions. (e.g., "Kitapta" - "in the book," "Kitap\_da" - literally "book-at").
- **Verb Classes:** Kyrgyz verbs might be categorized based on aspect (completed vs. ongoing action) or modality (potential vs. obligation).

### Here's a table summarizing the key points:

| Feature               | English                           | Kyrgyz                                |
|-----------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| Core Categories       | Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives, Adverbs | Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives, Adverbs     |
| Additional Categories | Articles, Numerals                | Determiners, (Numerals as adjectives) |
| Emphasis on           | Syntax                            | Morphology                            |
| Function Words        | Yes                               | Yes                                   |

**Further Exploration:**

- **Grammar Resources:** Explore Kyrgyz grammar books or online resources that discuss parts of speech in detail.
- **Typological Databases:** Consider resources like the World Atlas of Language Structures (<https://wals.info/>) to compare parts of speech features across languages.

By understanding the typological differences in parts of speech between English and Kyrgyz, you gain insights into how each language organizes its vocabulary to build grammatical structures and express meaning. Remember, these categories are tools for analysis, and languages might exhibit flexibility in how words function depending on context.

**TASKS FOR CONTROL**

1. Identify Major Word Classes  
List the main parts of speech in English and Kyrgyz. Compare which classes are common and which are language-specific.
2. Noun Typology  
Compare how English and Kyrgyz express noun categories such as number, case, and definiteness. Give examples.
3. Verb Typology  
Identify differences in tense, aspect, mood, and voice marking in English and Kyrgyz verbs.
4. Adjective Functions  
Compare how adjectives behave in English and Kyrgyz. Are they inflected for degree, number, or case? Provide examples.
5. Pronoun Systems  
Analyze the pronoun systems of both languages: person, number, gender, and case.
6. Adverb Usage  
Compare how adverbs are formed and used in English and Kyrgyz. Identify any adverbial derivational morphemes.
7. Prepositions vs. Postpositions  
Contrast English prepositions with Kyrgyz postpositions. Give examples of their syntactic roles.
8. Conjunctions  
Identify and compare coordinating and subordinating conjunctions in both languages.
9. Determiners and Articles  
Examine the presence of articles and determiners in English compared with their expression in Kyrgyz.
10. Interjections  
Compare the use and morphological characteristics of interjections in English and Kyrgyz.
11. Numerals  
Analyze how numerals function as a part of speech in both languages. Consider agreement with nouns and grammatical features.

12. Part-of-Speech Flexibility  
Identify words in both languages that can belong to more than one class (e.g., noun-verb shifts). Give examples.
13. Functional Words vs. Content Words  
Distinguish between functional and content words in English and Kyrgyz and analyze their typological significance.
14. Morphological Markers of POS  
Compare the morphological markers that indicate parts of speech (e.g., suffixes, prefixes, endings) in English and Kyrgyz.
15. Practical Exercise: Sentence Analysis  
Take five English sentences and translate them into Kyrgyz. Identify the parts of speech in both versions and compare their syntactic roles.

**Литература:**

1. Otto Jespersen — *The Philosophy of Grammar*
2. Ilyish B. A. — *The Structure of Modern English*
3. David Crystal — *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*
4. A Practical English Grammar — A. J. Thomson & A. V. Martinet
5. Comparative English Grammar Articles
6. Грамматика киргизского литературного языка
7. Справочник по грамматике кыргызского языка — К. А. Биялиев
8. Кыргыз тилинин морфологиясы, A Handbook of Kyrgyz Grammar (online)
9. Comprehensive Grammar of the Kyrgyz Language — Mahabat Sadyrbek  
Articles on comparative parts of speech analyses
10. Typological works on language categories (reference typology)  
*The World Atlas of Language Structures (WALS)*

**Theme: Typology of Grammatical Categories in English and Kyrgyz Languages**

A grammatical category is a system opposed to each other grammatical forms with similar values. Members of the same grammatical category are the general grammatical meaning and differ in connotation.

Grammatical categories are subdivided into morphological and syntactic. Among the morphological categories are distinguished, for example, the kind of grammatical categories, tense, mood, person, gender, number, case; consistent expression of these categories are characterized by the whole grammatical word classes (parts of speech).

Grammatical categories in different languages with a strong word formation, ie such members can be represented by the forms of the same word within its paradigm (for example, in the Russian language - the tense, the inclination, the number of the verb, number, case, gender adjectives degrees of comparison).

Word changing, ie such that the members can not be represented forms of the same word (for example, in the Russian language - the genus and animation/inanimation nouns).

Also, grammatical categories are distinguished as:

-revealed a syntactically (relational), i.e. pointing especially to the combinability of the forms as part of the phrase or sentence (for example, in the Russian language - gender, case) → non-syntactical detected (referential, nominative), ie expressed primarily different semantic abstraction, abstracted from properties, →

-connections and relationships extralinguistic reality (for example, in the Russian language - the kind of time)

Such grammatical category as for example, the number or the person can combine features of both these types.

According to Dr. Buranov, grammatical categories can be divided into two:

→ grammatical macro categories or primary grammatical categories (the term suggested by Aristotle);

→ Grammatical micro categories or secondary grammatical categories (the term suggested by Aristotle).

Parts of speech or lexico- groups of words are primary grammatical categories. As it is known the classification of parts of speech in compared languages can be identified according to the following features of lexemes:

→ Lexical and grammatical meaning

→ Generalization of morphologic forms for certain word groups

→ According to the function of words in the sentences.

Every word of a certain part of speech has its own morphological forms, these forms contain morphological paradigm and can be connected with certain grammatical categories. For instance, in English the inflection –s can represent a category of the number and –ed of the verb can represent tense category and etc [Buranov, 1973, 101].

English and Kyrgyz languages exhibit both similarities and differences in the grammatical categories they use to express meaning within sentences. Here's a breakdown of some key categories:

### **Similarities:**

- **Nouns:** Both languages have nouns that represent people, places, things, and ideas. They can be marked for number (singular/plural) and potentially definiteness (English: "the book" vs. Kyrgyz: "kitap" (indefinite) vs "kitaby" (definite)).
- **Verbs:** Both languages have verbs that express actions or states of being. They can be conjugated to indicate tense (past, present, future) and aspect (completed, ongoing).

## Differences:

- **Number:** English has a simpler number system for nouns (singular/plural), while Kyrgyz might have additional categories like dual (for exactly two objects) or paucal (for a small indefinite number).
- **Case:** English has minimal case marking (mostly limited to pronouns), while Kyrgyz has a complex case system. Nouns are marked for their grammatical role in the sentence (subject, object, etc.) using suffixes. (e.g., "Kitap oquym" - "I am reading a book," "Kitap\_dy" - "by the book").
- **Agreement:** English has limited verb agreement (subject-verb agreement in number and person). Kyrgyz verbs might agree with not only the subject but also the object in certain cases.
- **Possession:** Both languages express possession, but Kyrgyz might use specific possessive suffixes attached to the noun being possessed. (e.g., "Kitabim" - "my book").

## Unique Kyrgyz Features:

- **Aspect:** The Kyrgyz verb system has a rich aspectual system, distinguishing between completed actions, ongoing actions, habitual actions, and the potential or obligation to perform an action.
- **Mood:** Kyrgyz verbs might be marked for mood, indicating the speaker's modality (indicative, imperative, conditional, etc.).

## Here's a table summarizing the key points:

| Feature               | English                                | Kyrgyz   |
|-----------------------|--|--|
| Nouns                 | Number (singular/plural), definiteness | Number (singular/plural, potentially dual/paucal), case      |
| Verbs                 | Tense, aspect                          | Tense, aspect, mood, agreement (subject, potentially object) |
| Possession            | Prepositions, pronouns                 | possessive Possessive suffixes                               |
| Additional Categories | -                                      | Case, aspect-mood system                                     |

## Further Exploration:

- **Grammar Resources:** Delve deeper into Kyrgyz grammar using textbooks or online resources that explain grammatical categories in detail.
- **Typological Databases:** Explore resources like the World Atlas of Language Structures (<https://wals.info/>) to compare features like case systems and verb morphology across languages.

By understanding the typological differences in grammatical categories between English and Kyrgyz, you can appreciate the diverse ways languages encode grammatical information and structure sentences. Remember, these categories are analytical tools, and the way languages use them can be nuanced and context-dependent.

### TASKS FOR CONTROL

#### 1. **Identify Core Grammatical Categories**

List the main grammatical categories (e.g., tense, aspect, mood, number, case, gender) in English and Kyrgyz. Compare which are present in both languages.

#### 2. **Tense Typology**

Compare the tense systems in English (past, present, future) and Kyrgyz (past, present, future). How is tense marked morphologically or periphrastically?

#### 3. **Aspect Typology**

Identify how English and Kyrgyz express aspect (perfective vs. imperfective, continuous, habitual). Provide examples.

#### 4. **Mood Comparison**

Analyze the grammatical mood system in English (indicative, imperative, subjunctive) and Kyrgyz. Which moods are obligatory and which are optional?

#### 5. **Number**

Compare singular, plural, and other number distinctions in English nouns and Kyrgyz nouns. Examine morphological markers.

#### 6. **Case Systems**

Contrast English prepositional phrases with the Kyrgyz case system (nominative, accusative, dative, genitive, locative, ablative). Identify necessary morphological markers.

#### 7. **Gender**

Compare how grammatical gender is expressed: English mostly natural gender in pronouns vs. Kyrgyz lack of gender in nouns.

#### 8. **Person and Agreement**

Analyze personal pronouns and verb agreement in English and Kyrgyz. How is person and number agreement expressed?

#### 9. **Definiteness and Articles**

Examine how English uses definite and indefinite articles, and compare with strategies in Kyrgyz for expressing definiteness or specificity.

#### 10. **Voice**

Compare active, passive, and causative constructions in English and Kyrgyz. How are these categories expressed grammatically?

#### 11. **Degree in Adjectives/Adverbs**

Compare degrees of comparison (positive, comparative, superlative) in English and Kyrgyz. Which markers are used?

#### 12. **Negation**

Analyze how negation is expressed in English and Kyrgyz verbs or sentences. Compare morphological vs. syntactic strategies.

#### 13. **Interrogativity**

Compare question formation: English uses auxiliaries and word order; Kyrgyz uses particles or suffixes. Identify grammatical categories involved.

#### 14. **Mood + Tense + Aspect Interaction**

Take sentences in both languages and analyze the interaction of tense, aspect, and mood. How do these categories combine to convey meaning?

### 15. Practical Task: Category Identification

Take five sentences in English, translate them into Kyrgyz, and identify all grammatical categories in each word. Compare patterns and differences.

#### Литература:

1. Otto Jespersen — *The Philosophy of Grammar*
2. Ilyish B. A. — *The Structure of Modern English*
3. David Crystal — *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*
4. A Practical English Grammar — A. J. Thomson & A. V. Martinet
5. Comparative English Grammar Articles
6. Грамматика киргизского литературного языка
7. Справочник по грамматике кыргызского языка — К. А. Биялиев
8. Кыргыз тилинин морфологиясы, A Handbook of Kyrgyz Grammar (online)
9. Comprehensive Grammar of the Kyrgyz Language — Mahabat Sadyrbek, Articles on comparative parts of speech analyses
10. Typological works on language categories (reference typology)  
*The World Atlas of Language Structures (WALS)*

### Theme: Typology of phrases/word-combinations

The definition given by the scholar Ilyish to the phrase (“every combination of two or more words which is a grammatical unit but is not an analytical form of some word”) leaves no doubt as to its equivalence to the term “word combination”.

The word combination, along with the sentence, is the main syntactic unit. The smallest word combination consists of two members, whereas the largest word combination may theoretically be indefinitely large though this issue has not yet been studied properly. In Russian, it is described as non-communicative units served for the concretization of object naming, actions, features and etc.

Phrases, also known as word-combinations, are groups of words that function as a grammatical unit within a sentence. They can be classified based on different criteria, offering insights into how languages build complex structures. Here's a breakdown of some common typological approaches:

#### 1. By Syntactic Function:

- **Noun Phrases (NPs):** These function as nouns within a sentence. They typically consist of a head noun (e.g., "book," "teacher") and can include modifiers like adjectives ("red book"), determiners ("the teacher"), and relative clauses ("the book that I borrowed").
- **Verb Phrases (VPs):** These center around a verb and can include adverbs ("walked quickly"), objects ("bought a hat"), and prepositional phrases ("talked to him").
- **Adjective Phrases (AdjPs):** These modify nouns and can include intensifiers ("very happy"), comparative constructions ("happier than you"), and prepositional phrases ("happy about the news").

- **Adverb Phrases (AdvP):** These modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. They can be formed with adverbs ("quickly"), prepositional phrases ("in a hurry"), or verb phrases ("walking slowly").
- **Prepositional Phrases (PPs):** These consist of a preposition and its complement (noun phrase, verb phrase, etc.). They express spatial relationships ("on the table"), temporal relationships ("after dinner"), or other functions.

## 2. By Word Order:

- **Head-Directionality:** Languages can be classified based on the typical order of the head word (noun, verb, adjective) and its modifiers.
  - **Head-First:** The head word comes before its modifiers (e.g., "red car" - English).
  - **Head-Last:** The head word comes after its modifiers (e.g., "kitap katta" - "book big" - Turkish).

## 3. By Complexity:

- **Endocentric vs. Exocentric Constructions:**
  - **Endocentric:** The phrase has a head word that determines its category (e.g., "red car" - the noun "car" is the head of the NP).
  - **Exocentric:** The phrase doesn't have a single head word and its category is determined by the relationship between its parts (e.g., "in the morning" - PP).

## Additional Considerations:

- **Recursion:** Languages can differ in their ability to embed phrases within other phrases, creating complex hierarchical structures. (e.g., "The red car that I saw yesterday was parked in the driveway").
- **Idiomatic Expressions:** Some languages might have more fixed or idiomatic phrases that don't strictly follow these categories.

## Exploring Typological Differences:

- **Compare English Phrase Structure:** Analyze how English forms noun phrases, verb phrases, etc., and how word order affects meaning.
- **Research Kyrgyz Phrase Typology:** See if resources discuss the classification of phrases in Kyrgyz and compare it to English.

By understanding the typology of phrases, you gain a deeper appreciation for how languages build blocks of meaning beyond single words. The way languages categorize and structure phrases reveals their unique grammatical systems.

## TASKS FOR CONTROL

### 1. Identify Basic Phrase Types

List the main types of phrases in English and Kyrgyz (e.g., noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverbial phrase, prepositional/postpositional phrase). Compare similarities and differences.

2. **Noun Phrase Structure**  
Analyze the structure of a noun phrase in English and Kyrgyz. Identify the head, modifiers, determiners, and postmodifiers. Provide examples.
3. **Verb Phrase Typology**  
Compare the structure of verb phrases in English and Kyrgyz, including auxiliaries, tense markers, and aspectual forms.
4. **Adjective + Noun Combinations**  
Compare how adjectives modify nouns in English vs. Kyrgyz. Examine word order, agreement, and morphological marking.
5. **Adverbial Word-Combinations**  
Identify adverbial phrases in both languages and analyze their structure and placement in sentences.
6. **Prepositional vs. Postpositional Phrases**  
Compare English prepositional phrases with Kyrgyz postpositional phrases. Identify heads, complements, and functions.
7. **Possessive Constructions**  
Analyze possessive constructions in English ('s, of-phrase) and Kyrgyz (genitive case + possessive suffix). Compare their syntactic structures.
8. **Coordination and Subordination**  
Examine coordinated and subordinate word-combinations. Compare conjunction use and syntactic integration in both languages.
9. **Fixed Expressions / Idiomatic Combinations**  
Identify examples of idiomatic or semi-fixed word-combinations in English and Kyrgyz. Compare their structure and flexibility.
10. **Practical Exercise: Phrase Analysis**  
Take five sentences in English, translate them into Kyrgyz, and identify all phrases/word-combinations in each sentence. Compare their typological structures.

**Literatures:**

1. A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language — Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech & Jan Svartvik.
2. The Syntactic Phenomena of English — James D. McCawley
4. Comprehensive Grammar of the Kyrgyz Language — Mahabat Sadyrbek (*academic monograph, English*)
5. A Handbook of Kyrgyz Grammar — online / Wikibooks
6. Справочник по грамматике кыргызского языка — К. А. Biyaliev (*reference grammar in Russian*)
7. Грамматика литературного кыргызского языка — traditional Kyrgyz grammar text (*in Russian*)

**Theme: Typology of sentences.**

It is rather difficult to define the sentence as it is connected with many lingual and extra lingual aspects – logical, psychological and philosophical. There are many definitions of the sentence and these definitions differ from each other because that the scientists approach from different viewpoints to this question. Some of them consider the sentence from the point view of phonetics, others - from the point of view of semantics (the meaning of the sentence) and so on.

Some of the definitions of a sentence are given below.

**The Notional Definition of a Sentence:** "It is sometimes said that a sentence expresses a complete thought. This is a notional definition: it defines a term by the notion or idea it conveys. The difficulty with this definition lies in fixing what is meant by a 'complete thought.' There are notices, for example, that seems to be complete in themselves but are not generally regarded as sentences: Exit, Danger, 50 mph speed limit. "On the other hand, there are sentences that clearly consist of more than one thought. Here is one relatively simple example: *This week marks the 300th anniversary of the publication of Sir Isaac Newton's Philosophiae Naturalis Principia Mathematica, a fundamental work for the whole of modern science and a key influence on the philosophy of the European Enlightenment.*

**Jespersen's Definition of a Sentence:** "Traditional attempts to define the sentence were generally either psychological or logical-analytic in nature: the former type spoke of 'a complete thought' or some other inaccessible psychological phenomenon; the latter type, following Aristotle, expected to find every sentence made up of a logical subject and logical predicate, units that themselves rely on the sentence for their definition. A more fruitful approach is that of Otto Jespersen (1924: 307), who suggests testing the completeness and independence of a sentence, by assessing its potential for standing alone, as a complete utterance."

According to **B.A.Ilyish** "The sentence is the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose". The definition proves that is quite right when he writes: "The notion of the sentence has not so far received a satisfactory definition". "A sentence is a unit of speech whose grammatical structure conforms to the laws of the language and which serves as the chief means of conveying a thought. A sentence is not only a means of communicating something about reality but also a means of showing the speaker's attitude to it.

The train moved out of the city.

Are you ready?

Put down the book.

Thus, concluding the above-mentioned conceptions, there can be said that in any act of communication there are three factors:

1. The act of speech;
2. The speaker;
3. Reality (as viewed by the speaker).

B. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya state that these factors are variable since they change with every act of speech. They may be viewed from two viewpoints:

1) From the point of view of language are constant because they are found in all acts of

communication;

2) They are variable because they change in every act of speech.

Every act of communication contains the notions of time, person, and reality. The events mentioned in the communications are correlated in time and time correlation is expressed by certain grammatical and lexical means.

Any act of communication presupposes the existence of the speaker and the hearer. The meaning of person is expressed by the category of the person of verbs.

Sentences are the building blocks of communication that convey complete thoughts or ideas. Here's a breakdown of some key typological approaches to classifying sentences:

### 1. By Function (Informative vs. Non-Informative):

- **Declarative Sentences:** These are the most common type, stating facts or making assertions. (e.g., "The cat is on the mat.")
- **Interrogative Sentences:** These ask questions, seeking information from the listener. (e.g., "Where is the cat?")
- **Imperative Sentences:** These express commands, requests, or instructions. (e.g., "Put the cat on the mat.")
- **Exclamative Sentences:** These express strong emotions like surprise, anger, or joy. (e.g., "The cat is on the mat!") (Note that some languages might use different punctuation or intonation for exclamations.)

### 2. By Structure:

- **Simple Sentences:** These contain one independent clause, expressing a single main idea. (e.g., "The dog barks.")
- **Compound Sentences:** These contain two or more independent clauses joined by coordinating conjunctions (and, but, or, etc.) or subordinating conjunctions (because, if, although, etc.). (e.g., "The dog barks and the cat meows.")
- **Complex Sentences:** These contain one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses that cannot stand alone grammatically. (e.g., "The dog barks when the mailman arrives.")
- **Compound-Complex Sentences:** These combine features of compound and complex sentences, containing multiple independent clauses and dependent clauses. (e.g., "The dog barks when the mailman arrives, but the cat hides under the bed.")

### 3. By Word Order:

- **Basic Word Order:** Languages can be classified based on the typical order of subject, verb, and object (SVO, SOV, VSO, etc.). This order can influence how grammatical roles are assigned to words.

### 4. By Modality:

- **Declarative Mood:** This is the most common mood, conveying statements as facts.
- **Interrogative Mood:** This is used in questions.
- **Imperative Mood:** This expresses commands or requests.
- **Subjunctive Mood:** This mood is used to express hypothetical situations, wishes, or non-factual ideas. (Not all languages have a subjunctive mood.)

### Exploring Typological Differences:

- **Analyze English Sentence Types:** Identify examples of declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory sentences in English. Explore simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences.
- **Compare with Kyrgyz:** Research sentence types and structures in Kyrgyz and see if there are any significant typological differences compared to English. Does Kyrgyz have a subjunctive mood? What is the typical word order for basic sentences?

By understanding the typology of sentences, you can appreciate the diverse ways languages package information and express meaning through grammatical structures. Remember, these classifications are tools for analysis, and real-world language use can be more flexible and nuanced.

### TASKS FOR CONTROL

1. **Identify Sentence Types**  
List the main types of sentences in English and Kyrgyz (declarative, interrogative, imperative, exclamatory). Compare which types are formally marked in each language.
2. **Simple vs. Complex Sentences**  
Compare the structure of simple and complex sentences in English and Kyrgyz. Identify how subordinate clauses are introduced.
3. **Compound Sentences**  
Analyze coordination in compound sentences. Compare the use of conjunctions in English and Kyrgyz.
4. **Negative Sentences**  
Compare how negation is expressed in English and Kyrgyz sentences (syntactic vs. morphological strategies).
5. **Interrogative Sentences**  
Compare yes/no questions and wh-questions in English and Kyrgyz. Examine word order changes, particles, or auxiliary verbs.
6. **Imperative Sentences**  
Identify how commands or requests are expressed. Compare verb forms and particles used in English and Kyrgyz.
7. **Exclamatory Sentences**  
Compare methods of expressing exclamation in English and Kyrgyz. Examine sentence intonation, particles, or morphological markers.
8. **Word Order Typology**  
Compare default word order in declarative sentences: English (SVO) vs. Kyrgyz (SOV). Provide examples illustrating flexibility.

## 9. Conditional Sentences

Compare the structure of conditional sentences in English (if-clauses) and Kyrgyz. Examine tense and mood marking in each language.

## 10. Practical Exercise: Sentence Analysis

Take five English sentences of different types, translate them into Kyrgyz, and identify their type, structure, and grammatical features. Compare cross-linguistic strategies.

### Literatures:

1. **Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G., & Svartvik, J.** — *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*

Classic reference on English syntax and sentence types, including declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory sentences.

[Link](#)

2. **Huddleston, R., & Pullum, G.K.** — *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*

Detailed modern description of English sentence structures, clause types, word order, and complex sentence analysis.

[Link](#)

3. **Radford, A.** — *English Syntax: An Introduction*

Clear introduction to syntactic structures and sentence typology in English, including clauses and sentence transformations.

[Link](#)

4. **Mahabat Sadyrbek** — *Comprehensive Grammar of the Kyrgyz Language*

Modern reference covering morphology and syntax, including sentence types, clause structures, and word order in Kyrgyz.

[Amazon link](#)

5. **A Handbook of Kyrgyz Grammar** — Wikibooks

Online resource summarizing sentence types, word order, and syntactic rules in Kyrgyz.

[Link](#)

6. **Справочник по грамматике кыргызского языка — К.А. Биялиев**

Reference guide covering sentence structures and grammatical categories in Kyrgyz.

[Link](#)

7. **Грамматика литературного кыргызского языка**

Traditional descriptive grammar including sections on sentence typology and syntactic analysis.

[Link](#)

8. **Lehmann, C.** — *A Structural Comparison of English and Turkic Languages*

Discusses sentence structures and syntactic typology across English and Turkic languages, including Kyrgyz.

9. **Akisheva, N.S.** — *Typology of Languages: Principles and Methods*

Provides frameworks for cross-linguistic typology and comparison of grammatical categories, including sentence types.

[Link](#)

10. **World Atlas of Language Structures (WALS)**

Database with typological data on word order, clause structure, and sentence features across languages. Useful for English-Kyrgyz comparison.

### Theme: Lexical Typology and its branches.

The term “typology”, as is well known, has many different uses. What primarily matters for the present volume is typology understood as “the study of linguistic patterns that are found cross-linguistically, in particular, patterns that can be discovered

solely by cross-linguistic comparison”. Typology can also refer to the typological classification of languages into (structural) types on the basis of particular patterns for particular phenomena. Typological research is driven by the persuasion that the variation across attested (and, further, possible) human languages is severely restricted, and aims therefore at unveiling systematicity behind the whole huge complex of linguistic diversity. In pursuing their tasks, typologists raise – and often try to answer – important theoretical questions, such as:

- According to what parameters does a specific phenomenon vary across languages,
  - in what patterns do these parameters (co-)occur?
- What generalisations can be made about attested vs. possible patterns?
- What is universal vs. language particular in a given phenomenon, what phenomena
  - are frequent vs. rare?
- How are various linguistic phenomena distributed across the languages of the world?
- Which phenomena are genetically stable and which are subject to contact induced change?
- How can the attested distribution of the different patterns across languages be explained?
- How can the attested cross-linguistic patterns /generalizations be explained?

Lexical typology consists of following branches:

- \* Lexical typology of words
- \* Word-building typology
- \* Comparative lexicology
- \* Lexical-statistic typology
- \* Lexical typology of borrowings
- \* Lexical typology of phraseology
- \* Lexical typology of proverbs and sayings and etc.

Lexical typology is a branch of linguistic typology that explores the systematic cross-linguistic variation in how languages organize and express meaning through vocabulary, specifically focusing on the lexicon (the mental dictionary of a language). Here's a breakdown of Lexical Typology and its main branches:

### **Lexical Typology:**

- **Focus:** Analyzes how languages categorize concepts into words and how these words relate to each other. It compares how different languages lexicalize (express meaning through words) similar concepts.

- **Key Questions:**

- How many words does a language typically need to express a certain concept (e.g., color spectrum)?
- Does a language have a single word for a concept, or multiple words with subtle differences (e.g., "big" vs. "large")?
- How are semantic fields (related words like kinship terms or color terms) organized within a language?

**Branches of Lexical Typology:**

- **Noun Classification Systems:** Explores how languages categorize nouns based on animacy (living vs. non-living), gender (grammatical, not biological), or other criteria. (e.g., Bantu languages often have noun classes with prefixes indicating things like people, places, or tools).
- **Verb Classification Systems:** Analyzes how languages categorize verbs based on aspect (completed vs. ongoing action), modality (possibility, obligation), or other features. (e.g., some languages have separate verbs for simple actions like "go" and "come back").
- **Event Typology:** Investigates how languages encode events (actions, situations) into verbs. This includes looking at factors like transitivity (number of participants in an action) and causation (who or what caused the event).
- **Lexicalization Patterns:** Studies how languages express complex concepts using single words or combinations of words. This includes the use of compounding (combining words to create new ones) and derivation (adding prefixes or suffixes to modify meaning).
- **Frame Semantics:** Analyzes how languages frame situations using specific verb-argument structures. (e.g., "The dog chased the cat" vs. "The cat was chased by the dog" highlights the focus on the agent vs. the patient).
- **Cognitive Linguistics:** Explores the connection between human cognition and lexical organization. It examines how our thought processes might influence the way languages categorize concepts.

**Importance of Lexical Typology:**

- Provides insights into the relationship between language and thought.
- Helps us understand how different cultures perceive and categorize the world around them.
- Contributes to the development of universal theories about lexical organization.
- Valuable for tasks like machine translation, where understanding lexical differences between languages is crucial.

**Further Exploration:**

- Resources like the Leipzig Glossing Archive (<https://archive.mpi.nl/>) provide data on how concepts are expressed across languages.
- Explore the book "The World Atlas of Language Structures" (<https://wals.info/>) for information on typological features of various languages.

By understanding Lexical Typology and its branches, you gain a deeper appreciation for the rich and diverse ways languages represent the world through words.

### TASKS FOR CONTROL

#### 1. Define Lexical Typology

Explain the concept of lexical typology. What is its goal in linguistics, and how does it differ from grammatical typology? Provide examples.

#### 2. Identify Main Branches

List and briefly describe the main branches of lexical typology (e.g., semantic fields, lexical universals, comparative lexicology).

#### 3. Semantic Fields Analysis

Choose a semantic field (e.g., color, kinship, body parts) and compare how English and Kyrgyz lexical items are categorized and named.

#### 4. Lexical Universals

Identify examples of lexical universals (concepts with common words across languages) in English and Kyrgyz. Discuss possible reasons for their universality.

#### 5. Lexical Borrowings

Analyze English loanwords in Kyrgyz and Kyrgyz borrowings in English (if any). Discuss their role in the lexical system and typology.

#### 6. Polysemy and Homonymy

Identify examples of polysemy and homonymy in English and Kyrgyz. Compare how multiple meanings of a word affect lexical typology.

#### 7. Synonymy and Lexical Fields

Examine a lexical field (e.g., emotion, weather) in English and Kyrgyz. Compare the number of synonyms and how meaning distinctions are marked.

#### 8. Lexical Gaps and Cultural Concepts

Identify lexical gaps in English or Kyrgyz (concepts expressed in one language but lacking a single-word equivalent in the other). Discuss implications for lexical typology.

#### 9. Derivational Morphology and Lexical Typology

Analyze how word-formation (prefixes, suffixes) affects lexical categorization in English and Kyrgyz. Compare productivity and systematicity.

#### 10. Practical Exercise: Comparative Lexical Analysis

Take 10 words from a semantic field (e.g., emotions, animals) in English, find their equivalents in Kyrgyz, classify them by subfield or meaning components, and discuss cross-linguistic similarities and differences.

### Literatures:

1. Wierzbicka, A. (1996). *Semantics: Primes and Universals*.
2. Lehmann, C. (1982). *Semantic Fields in Comparative Linguistics*.
3. Apresjan, J.D. (1974). *Regular Polysemy*.
4. Mel'čuk, I.A. (1995). *Lexical Functions: A Tool for Lexical Typology*.
5. Haspelmath, M. (2007). *Universals of Lexical Semantics*.
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7. Lyons, J. (1977). *Semantics* (Vols. 1–2).
8. Lehrer, A. (1990). *Semantic Fields and Lexical Structure*.
9. Mahabat Sadyrbek — *Comprehensive Grammar of the Kyrgyz Language*.

## Theme: Comparative analysis of English and Kyrgyz language words

The main unit of the lexical system of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning is a word. This unit is used in grammatical functions characteristic of it. It is the smallest language unit which can stand alone as a complete utterance. A word, however, can be divided into smaller sense units - morphemes. The morpheme is the smallest meaningful language unit.

The morpheme consists of a class of variants, allomorphs, which are either phonologically or morphologically conditioned, e.g. please, pleasant, pleasure. Morphemes are divided into two large groups: lexical morphemes and grammatical (functional) morphemes. Both lexical and grammatical morphemes can be free and bound. Free lexical morphemes are roots of words which express the lexical meaning of the word, they coincide with the stem of simple words.

Free grammatical morphemes are function words:

- articles
- conjunctions
- prepositions (the, with, and). Bound lexical morphemes are affixes:
  - prefixes (dis-)
  - suffixes (-ish)
  - blocked (unique) root morphemes (e.g. Fri-day, cran-berry).

Word is a basic two sided and independent unit of a language. It has been attracted the attentions of many linguists from ancient times. Thus, the word is the basis unit of a language, directly corresponds to the object of thought (referent)- which is a generalized reverberation of a certain 'slice', 'piece' of objective reality and by immediately referring to it names the thing meant.

Here's a breakdown of some key areas for comparison when analyzing vocabulary in English and Kyrgyz:

### 1. Lexical Gaps and Overlap:

- **Lexical Gaps:** A concept might exist in one language but not have a direct equivalent in the other.
  - **Example:** English "cozy" might not have a single-word equivalent in Kyrgyz, requiring a descriptive phrase.
- **Lexical Overlap:** Both languages might share words for basic concepts due to cultural exchange or borrowing.

- **Example:** Words like "taxi" or "futbol" (soccer) might be found in both English and Kyrgyz.

## 2. Levels of Specificity:

- **English:** Often has multiple words for a single concept with subtle differences (e.g., "big" vs. "large" vs. "enormous").
- **Kyrgyz:** Might express a broader range of meaning with a single word, relying on context for specific interpretation. (This can be related to the concept of "polysemy" - one word with multiple meanings.)

## 3. Noun Classification Systems:

- **English:** Lacks a grammatical gender system for nouns.
- **Kyrgyz:** Might have noun classes categorized based on animacy or other features, requiring specific markers to be used with the noun.

## 4. Verb Classification Systems:

- **English:** Relies on adverbs or verb tense to express aspect (completed vs. ongoing action).
- **Kyrgyz:** Verb morphology might encode aspect directly into the verb conjugation, reducing the need for separate adverbs.

## 5. Compounding and Derivation:

- **English:** Frequently uses compounding (combining words) and derivation (adding prefixes or suffixes) to create new words.
- **Kyrgyz:** Might rely more on agglutination (adding multiple suffixes to a single word) to modify meaning.

## Things to Consider:

- **Loanwords:** Both languages borrow words from other languages, which can create vocabulary similarities.
- **Cultural Specificity:** Certain concepts might be more prominent in one culture and have more specific vocabulary in that language. (e.g., Types of horses in Kyrgyz vs. English)
- **Diachronic Comparison:** Looking at historical changes in vocabulary can reveal interesting connections and influences between languages.

## Further Exploration:

- **Bilingual Dictionaries:** Explore English-Kyrgyz dictionaries to see how words are translated and identify potential lexical gaps.
- **Corpus Linguistics:** Use online corpora (large collections of text data) to compare word frequency and usage patterns in both languages.
- **Etymological Dictionaries:** Investigate the origins of words in both languages to understand historical connections and borrowing.

By conducting a comparative analysis of English and Kyrgyz vocabulary, you can gain valuable insights into the unique ways these languages represent concepts and how cultural factors influence word choice. Remember, vocabulary is dynamic and constantly evolving, so ongoing exploration can be fascinating.

#### **TASKS FOR CONTROL**

1. **Word Classification by Part of Speech**

Take 20 words in English and find their Kyrgyz equivalents. Classify them by part of speech (noun, verb, adjective, etc.) and compare distribution patterns.

2. **Lexical Meaning Comparison**

Choose 10 English words with multiple senses. Compare their Kyrgyz equivalents and discuss whether polysemy is preserved or differs.

3. **Synonyms and Semantic Fields**

Identify a semantic field (e.g., emotions, colors, family). List synonyms in English and Kyrgyz, and analyze similarities and differences in lexical distinctions.

4. **Antonyms**

Select 10 pairs of antonyms in English and find Kyrgyz equivalents. Compare how opposition is expressed (morphologically, lexically, or syntactically).

5. **Loanwords and Borrowings**

Identify 10 English loanwords in Kyrgyz. Analyze phonological and morphological adaptation and their integration into the Kyrgyz lexical system.

6. **Cultural Lexical Gaps**

Find English words with no direct equivalent in Kyrgyz and vice versa. Discuss cultural or conceptual reasons for lexical gaps.

7. **Word Formation Patterns**

Compare derivational morphology in English and Kyrgyz. Take 5 base words from each language and show how affixes produce related words.

8. **False Friends**

Identify 5 words in English and Kyrgyz that look/sound similar but have different meanings. Analyze potential confusion and semantic divergence.

9. **Frequency and Productivity**

Select a set of commonly used English and Kyrgyz words. Compare frequency and productivity in word formation (e.g., how often affixes create new words).

10. **Practical Exercise: Translation and Analysis**

Take 10 sentences in English and translate them into Kyrgyz. Identify key words, compare their lexical equivalents, analyze nuances of meaning, and note structural differences in word usage.

#### **Literatures:**

1. Wierzbicka, A. (1996). *Semantics: Primes and Universals*.
2. Lehmann, C. (1982). *Semantic Fields in Comparative Linguistics*.
3. Apresjan, J.D. (1974). *Regular Polysemy*.
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## **Theme: Comparative Analysis of Word-Formation in English and Kyrgyz Language**

In linguistics, word formation is the creation of a new word. Word formation is sometimes contrasted with semantic change, which is a change in a single word's meaning. The line between word formation and semantic change is sometimes a bit blurry; what one person views as a new use of an old word, another person might view as a new word derived from an old one and identical to it in form. Word formation can also be contrasted with the formation of idiomatic expressions, though sometimes words can form from multi-word phrases. Wordbuilding is one of the main ways of enriching vocabulary. As it is known morpheme can be subdivided into root and derived types. These features of morphemes are characterized all types of languages. There are two major groups of word formation in Modern English: **productive** and **unproductive**.

**Productive:** *compounding, prefixation, suffixation, conversion, shortening*

**Unproductive:** *sound interchange, stress interchange, sound imitation, blending, back formation*

Both English and Kyrgyz have various methods for creating new words and expanding their vocabulary. Here's a detailed breakdown comparing word-formation processes in English and Kyrgyz, highlighting their strengths and weaknesses:

### **Morphological Processes:**

- **Affixation:**

- **English:** Prefers prefixes (un-happy, pre-order) and suffixes (-ness, -able) for derivation. However, English affixation can be less transparent compared to Kyrgyz. (e.g., "understand" - the prefix "un" doesn't always negate the meaning).
- **Kyrgyz:** Utilizes suffixes extensively for nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Suffixes often have clear and consistent meanings. (e.g., "-tuu" creates abstract nouns indicating state or condition, "-ar" creates causative verbs). Kyrgyz can also use multiple suffixes together (agglutination) for complex derivations. (e.g., "oky (oku) - read" -> "окут (okut) - teach" -> "окут-тур (okut-tur) - cause to teach")

- **Infixation:**

- **English:** Rare, but exists (e.g., "blood-sucker").
- **Kyrgyz:** Not a common word-formation process.

### **Non-Morphological Processes:**

- **Compounding:**

- **English:** Frequently combines words (bookstore, weekend). This can create more complex meanings, but can also be less transparent if the

component words lose their original meaning. (e.g., "underground" might not be understood literally by someone unfamiliar with the language).

- **Kyrgyz:** Compounding occurs, but might be less frequent than in English. Compounding in Kyrgyz often retains the transparency of the component words. (e.g., "кол китеп (kol kitap)" - "hand book" = notebook)
- **Acronyms & Initialisms:**
  - **Both Languages:** Use acronyms (NATO) and initialisms (FBI) for brevity.
- **Clipping:**
  - **Both Languages:** Can shorten words informally (e.g., "lab" from "laboratory").
- **Borrowing:**
  - **Both Languages:** Enrich vocabulary through borrowing (e.g., "sushi" from Japanese in English, "futbol" from Spanish in Kyrgyz). Borrowing can introduce new concepts or fill lexical gaps.

### Key Differences:

- **Affixation:** Kyrgyz relies more on suffixes with clear meanings, while English affixation can be less transparent.
- **Compounding:** English uses compounding more frequently, but it can sometimes lead to less transparency. Kyrgyz compounds often retain clarity.
- **Conversion:** Conversion (using a word in a different grammatical category) is more common in English word-formation.

### Additional Considerations:

- **Productivity:** Some processes might be more productive (frequently used) than others in each language.
  - **English:** Suffixation like "-er" for professions (baker) or "-able" for adjectives (washable) might be productive.
  - **Kyrgyz:** Derivational suffixes like "-чы (chy)" for people performing actions (сүпүр-гүчү (supur-guchy) - sweeper) might be highly productive.
- **Historical Influences:** The historical development of each language can influence preferred word-formation processes. (e.g., English being influenced by French with prefixes like "de-" or "re-")

### Further Exploration:

- **English Etymology Dictionaries:** Explore resources like the Online Etymology Dictionary (<https://www.etymonline.com/>) to understand how English words were formed historically.
- **Kyrgyz Morphology Resources:** Search for academic journals or textbooks that delve deeper into Kyrgyz morphology and word-formation processes.

- **Corpus Linguistics:** Use online corpora (large collections of text data) to analyze the frequency and distribution of words formed through different processes in both languages. (e.g., <https://www.sketchengine.eu/>)

By comparing word-formation processes, you gain insights into how these languages create new vocabulary and how these processes reflect their unique structure and history. Remember, word-formation is an ongoing process, constantly enriching the lexicon of both English and Kyrgyz.

### TASKS FOR CONTROL

#### 1. Identify Basic Word-Formation Types

List the main word-formation processes in English and Kyrgyz (derivation, compounding, conversion, affixation). Compare which processes are dominant in each language.

#### 2. Derivational Affixes

Choose 5 English words with prefixes and suffixes (e.g., *unhappy*, *happiness*). Find the Kyrgyz equivalents and identify the derivational morphemes. Compare the morphological strategies.

#### 3. Compounding

Compare how English and Kyrgyz form compound words (e.g., *toothbrush* vs. Kyrgyz *китепкана* [book + place = library]). Analyze structural patterns.

#### 4. Conversion / Zero Derivation

Identify examples in English where words change class without morphological changes (e.g., *to run* (verb) vs. *a run* (noun)). Compare if Kyrgyz has similar processes.

#### 5. Prefixation vs. Postfixation

Compare English prefixes with Kyrgyz suffixes in word formation. Discuss how position of affixes affects meaning.

#### 6. Productivity Analysis

Choose a productive English suffix (e.g., *-ness*, *-er*) and a Kyrgyz suffix (e.g., *-лык / -лик*). Analyze their productivity and semantic scope.

#### 7. Reduplication

Examine whether reduplication is used in Kyrgyz word formation (e.g., *аз-аздан* [little by little]) and compare with English repetition for emphasis (*tick-tock*).

#### 8. Semantic Transparency

Compare English and Kyrgyz derived words for semantic transparency. Which language tends to have more transparent derivational patterns?

#### 9. Loanword Adaptation

Identify English loanwords in Kyrgyz (e.g., *компьютер* [computer]) and analyze how word-formation rules adapt them.

#### 10. Practical Exercise: Word-Family Analysis

Take 5 English base words (e.g., *teach*, *happy*, *write*, *act*, *friend*) and find the corresponding Kyrgyz base words. List their derived forms in both languages and compare derivational strategies, affix types, and productivity.

### Literatures:

1. Wierzbicka, A. (1996). *Semantics: Primes and Universals*.
2. Lehmann, C. (1982). *Semantic Fields in Comparative Linguistics*.
3. Апресян, J.D. (1974). *Regular Polysemy*.
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**Theme: Comparative Typology in Modern trends of linguistics.**

It is known that linguistics and variety fields of it were developed in every period of developing process. Hence, we can observe that in XVIII century, there were mostly done researches of comparative-historical investigations among related languages and in the last century collection of anthropocentric, functional, cognitive and dynamic paradigms occupied the position of structural paradigm. Movement of interests of researcher from the object of cognition to the subject in anthropocentric paradigm, with another word it can be understood the analysis of language in a human being and human being in language.

The anthropocentric paradigm is the last and modern scientific paradigm where the problem of human in language and language in a human being is analyzed, i.e. interrelation of human and language becomes the main object of linguistic researches. This paradigm appeared in the 30s of the XXth century with the linguistic works of American philosophers and linguists, and a number of great linguists all over the world developed it. List of areas are developing in the anthropocentric paradigm of the modern linguistics such as pragmatics, sociolinguistics, ethnolinguistics, psycholinguistics, linguistic anthropology and cognitive linguistics, linguistic culturology and gender linguistics are considered the urgent directions of it. Cognitive linguistics investigates language as a mechanism of transformation and codification of it. The aim of this linguistics covers the cognition of the world from one's point of view and ways of appearing of receiving processes, categorization, and classification of it.

According to a number of specialists, cognitive linguistics and lingua culturology are progressing in the frame of the collection of single general cognitive sciences [Kubryakova, 1994, 37-47]. The term of “Cognitive science” includes learning processes jointly, receiving them and reworking, saving and using, organizing the structure of knowledge and collection, furthermore, it arranges collection of a certain scientific thought which is joint for forming the mental activity of these structures. Cognitive science is closely connected with mathematics, logic, philosophy, anthropology, and linguistics.

Lingua culturology is a complex scientific science direction appeared on the basis of inter reaction of linguistics and culturology. This direction investigates interconnection between culture and language and researches the language as a phenomenon of culture. It shows the observation of the world in the certain view by the cultural prism and by a certain nation’s mind and culture.

It is known that the first researches on gender started to be investigated in western humanitarian sciences. The reason of appearing them was the new views of investigations of the problems of intelligence, philosophy of science and philosophy of society.

Specifically, such anchor domains in modern linguistic research as communication, interaction, culture, habitus, cybernetics, culture, and cognition can be considered as a target of comparative typology.

Comparative typology is a vibrant field within linguistics that explores the systematic similarities and differences between languages. In recent years, it has undergone some exciting developments, moving beyond its traditional focus and offering valuable insights into the nature of language itself. Here's a breakdown of these trends:

### **Shifting Focus:**

- **From Universals to Variation:** Traditionally, comparative typology aimed to identify universal grammatical features shared by all languages. The modern approach recognizes the rich diversity of human languages and focuses on explaining why languages exhibit the variation they do.
- **Functional Explanations:** Beyond mere description, modern typology seeks explanations for observed patterns. It explores how features like word order, case systems, or verb morphology relate to factors like processing efficiency, information packaging, or historical influences.

### **New Methodological Approaches:**

- **Quantitative Analysis:** Modern typology utilizes statistical methods and large datasets (language corpora) to analyze patterns across a wider range of languages. This allows for more robust conclusions and comparisons.
- **Experimental Methods:** Psycho-linguistic experiments are used to investigate how speakers process and produce language according to typological features of their native language. This sheds light on the cognitive underpinnings of typological variation.
- **Computational Modeling:** Computational models are being developed to simulate language evolution and predict typological patterns. This allows for testing hypotheses and exploring the space of possible language structures.

### **Benefits of Comparative Typology:**

- **Understanding Language Universals:** While recognizing variation, typology can still reveal underlying universals – core cognitive principles that constrain language structure across languages. (e.g., all languages have some way of expressing basic concepts like agents, objects, actions)

- **Insights into Language Change:** Studying typological patterns across languages with known historical relationships can help us understand how languages evolve and change over time.
- **Informing Language Acquisition Research:** Comparative typology offers insights into the challenges and strategies learners face when acquiring languages with different typological features.
- **Applications in Language Technology:** Understanding typological variation is crucial for developing effective tools for machine translation, speech recognition, and natural language processing.

### Examples of Modern Research:

- **Theories of Alignment:** Typological research explores how languages mark grammatical roles (subject, object) and how these strategies might relate to information packaging and processing efficiency.
- **The Typological Atlas of Language Structure (WALS):** This online resource provides comprehensive information on the typological features of hundreds of languages, facilitating cross-linguistic comparisons. (<https://www.eva.mpg.de/linguistics/past-research-resources/typological-surveys/the-world-atlas-of-language-structures-wals/>)
- **Evolution of Grammatical Categories:** Researchers use comparative frameworks to understand how grammatical categories like tense, aspect, or mood emerge and diversify across languages.

### The Future of Comparative Typology:

The field of comparative typology is constantly evolving. As new data, methodologies, and theoretical frameworks emerge, we can expect even more exciting discoveries about the remarkable diversity and fascinating properties of human languages.

### Further Exploration:

- **Journal of Typological Linguistics:** Explore this academic journal for in-depth research articles on comparative typology. (<https://www.jbe-platform.com/content/journals>)
- **The World Atlas of Language Structures (WALS):** Delve deeper into the typological features of various languages using this online resource.
- **Books:** Consider reading books like "The Cambridge Handbook of Linguistic Typology" or "Language Universals and Language Change" for a comprehensive introduction to the field.

By understanding the trends in comparative typology, you gain a deeper appreciation for the power of this approach in unveiling the intricate relationships and fascinating complexities within the vast world of human languages.

### TASKS FOR CONTROL

1. **Define Comparative Typology**  
Explain the concept of comparative typology. Discuss its goals and significance in modern linguistic research.
2. **Historical vs. Modern Approaches**  
Compare classical typology (e.g., Bloomfield, Greenberg) with modern trends (functional, cognitive, and corpus-based approaches). Identify key differences in methodology.
3. **Syntactic Typology**  
Analyze modern approaches to syntactic typology. Compare methods used to classify languages based on sentence structures, word order (SVO, SOV), and clause patterns.
4. **Morphological Typology**  
Compare agglutinative, fusional, and isolating languages. Apply modern computational or statistical methods to analyze morphological patterns in different languages.
5. **Lexical Typology**  
Examine modern trends in semantic field analysis, lexical universals, and cross-linguistic studies of polysemy and synonymy.
6. **Cognitive and Functional Approaches**  
Investigate how modern cognitive linguistics informs comparative typology. Compare functional explanations of grammatical categories across languages.
7. **Corpus-Based Typology**  
Compare traditional descriptive approaches with corpus-based methods in identifying linguistic universals and typological patterns. Provide examples from English and Turkic languages.
8. **Diachronic Comparative Typology**  
Analyze how comparative typology integrates historical linguistics. Examine modern trends in reconstructing language evolution and typological shifts.
9. **Application of Computational Tools**  
Explore modern computational approaches in typology: databases (e.g., WALS), statistical modeling, and machine learning for cross-linguistic comparison.
10. **Practical Task: Cross-Linguistic Analysis**  
Choose a linguistic feature (e.g., word order, tense marking, plural formation). Compare English, Kyrgyz, and one other language using modern typological methods. Analyze universals, variation, and functional patterns.

**Literatures:**

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**Theme: Typology of cultural concepts of English and Kyrgyz language.**

Traditionally, the culture was understood in terms of formal or "high" culture (literature, art, music, and philosophy) and popular or "low" culture. From this perspective, one main reason for studying a language is to be able to understand and appreciate the high culture of the people who speak that language. The pop culture is regarded as inferior and not worthy of study.

Some scientists define culture as an integrated pattern of human behavior that includes thoughts, communications, languages, practices, beliefs, values, customs, courtesies, rituals, manners of interacting and roles, relationships and expected behaviours of a racial, ethnic, religious or social group; and the ability to transmit the above to succeeding generations.

In this understanding of "deep culture," language and culture are integral to one another. The structure of language and the ways it is used reflect the norms and values that members of a culture share. However, they also determine how those norms and values are shared because language is the means through which culture is transmitted.

The communicative competence model is based on this understanding of the relationship between language and culture. Linguistic, discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence each incorporate facets of culture, and the development of these competences is intertwined with the development of cultural awareness.

"The exquisite connection between the culture that is lived and the language that is spoken can only be realized by those who possess a knowledge of both" [National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, 1999, p. 47].

According to **V. N. Telia**, culture is described as a world-conception, world-perception, and world-comprehension of a people. (This statement does not certainly deny the material component of culture but only puts in focus its "ideal" / mental component, which is much more significant for lingual-cultural and lingual-cognitive studies.) Therefore, lingua-culture is the verbalized culture, the culture externalized in signs of language. Hence, signs of language (in the linguistic sense of this term) are regarded as the substances for signs of culture. Culture itself is not; however, simply a body of knowledge but rather a framework in which people live their lives and communicate shared meanings with each other. Regarding the benefits of learning about the culture, attending the culture class has raised cultural awareness in ELT students concerning both native and target societies.

Conceptual research have an important role as well in lingua culturology as cognitive linguistics. The Cultural concept is considered as a subject of research of lingua culturology. In lingua culturology concept can be understood as "culturalmental-lexical" expression. The Cultural concept is considered as a multifunctional mental expression.

According to the opinion of **Yu. S. Stepanov** concept is a part of the culture in the mind of a human being and with this, he includes the culture into the mental world of a human being [Stepanov, 1997, 40-76]. The dyad of "language and human being" of anthropocentric paradigm changes into the construction of "language-human being-culture" in lingua culturology. As an example, the concept of "love" can be analyzed from the lingua-cultural point of view. The concept "love" itself has broad sense and it

can be interpreted with a variety of notions and conceptions from a cultural point of view. Hence, if we see it from a philosophical point of view, this concept can be analyzed as the accident-social-financial level in different nation and culture. Besides, the national-cultural features of this concept explicitly shown in the literature and poetry of variety nations. For example, in Western nations, this concept is devoted to human being with great passion and feelings, but in Eastern poetry mostly the great love is devoted to God from a religious point of view.

Cultural concepts are those deeply rooted ideas, values, and beliefs that shape a society's worldview and are reflected in their language. Analyzing these concepts typologically can reveal fascinating insights into the unique characteristics of each culture. Here's a breakdown of how we can compare cultural concepts in English and Kyrgyz:

### 1. Identifying Key Domains:

- **Family:** Explore how family structure, kinship relations, and terms of address are reflected in both languages. (e.g., extended family emphasis in Kyrgyz vs. nuclear family focus in modern English)
- **Social Hierarchy:** Analyze concepts related to social status, respect, and authority. (e.g., honorific speech in Kyrgyz vs. more casual forms of address in English)
- **Time and Space:** Compare how languages conceptualize time (linear vs. cyclical), space (individualistic vs. communal), and punctuality. (e.g., emphasis on present and hospitality in Kyrgyz culture reflected in language)
- **Religion and Spirituality:** Investigate vocabulary and expressions related to religious beliefs, practices, and values.
- **Nature and Environment:** Explore how each language reflects the relationship between humans and the natural world. (e.g., importance of horses and herding in Kyrgyz culture reflected in vocabulary)

### 2. Analyzing Linguistic Expression:

- **Lexical Gaps and Overlap:** Identify concepts prominent in one culture that lack direct equivalents in the other. (e.g., "cozy" in English might not have a single word in Kyrgyz)
- **Figurative Language:** Compare proverbs, idioms, and metaphors that capture cultural values and beliefs. (e.g., Kyrgyz proverbs emphasizing hospitality vs. English proverbs on self-reliance)
- **Discourse Patterns:** Analyze how conversations are structured and how politeness is observed in each language. (e.g., indirect communication in Kyrgyz vs. more directness in English)

### 3. Considering Historical and Social Context:

- **Historical Influences:** Investigate how historical events, trade, or cultural exchange might have shaped vocabulary and concepts. (e.g., Russian loanwords in Kyrgyz)
- **Social Stratification:** Explore how cultural concepts might vary among different social groups within each society.

### Challenges and Considerations:

- **Translation Issues:** Cultural concepts are often difficult to translate directly, requiring an understanding of the underlying cultural context.
- **Evolving Cultures:** Both English and Kyrgyz cultures are constantly evolving, so the concepts they represent might also change over time.

### Further Exploration:

- **Ethnographic Studies:** Research anthropological studies about Kyrgyz and English cultures to gain a deeper understanding of their values and beliefs.
- **Cultural Dictionaries:** Explore dictionaries that explain cultural concepts specific to each language.
- **Corpus Linguistics:** Utilize online corpora to analyze how language is used to express cultural concepts in real-world contexts.

By delving into the typology of cultural concepts, you can appreciate the intricate relationship between language and culture. Understanding these connections allows you to navigate cross-cultural communication more effectively and fosters a deeper appreciation for the diversity of human experience.

### TASKS FOR CONTROL

#### 1. Define Cultural Concepts

Explain what is meant by “cultural concepts” in linguistics. Discuss their role in reflecting national identity, values, and worldview.

#### 2. Identify Key Cultural Domains

List the main domains of cultural concepts in English and Kyrgyz (e.g., family, hospitality, social hierarchy, nature, time). Compare which domains are more prominent in each language.

#### 3. Kinship Terms

Compare English and Kyrgyz kinship vocabulary. Identify specific terms unique to each culture and analyze their semantic and social significance.

#### 4. Food and Cuisine

Identify food-related words and expressions in English and Kyrgyz. Compare how traditional dishes and eating habits reflect cultural values.

#### 5. Emotional Expressions

Analyze words expressing emotions in both languages. Identify culturally specific concepts (e.g., English *homesick* vs. Kyrgyz *кайгы*, deep sorrow) and their semantic ranges.

#### 6. Rituals and Traditions

Compare lexical representations of customs, rituals, and holidays. Discuss differences in vocabulary and expression between English and Kyrgyz cultural contexts.

### 7. **Proverbs and Idioms**

Identify English and Kyrgyz proverbs/idioms reflecting cultural norms. Analyze their lexical and semantic structure and cultural meaning.

### 8. **Nature and Environment Concepts**

Compare how natural phenomena and landscapes are lexically represented in English and Kyrgyz. Identify culture-specific lexical items.

### 9. **Societal Values**

Examine vocabulary expressing values such as freedom, respect, hospitality, and collectivism. Compare how each language encodes societal priorities.

### 10. **Practical Exercise: Cross-Cultural Translation Analysis**

Take 5 English sentences with culture-specific words or idioms, translate them into Kyrgyz, and analyze the challenges of representing cultural concepts. Identify lexical gaps, approximate equivalents, or culturally adapted expressions.

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## **Theme: Typology in gender linguistics of English and Kyrgyz language.**

In linguistics, the new directions of anthropocentric paradigm have been developing in recent years and gender linguistics can be included in this development. It is known that the first research on gender started to be investigated in western humanitarian sciences. The reason of appearing them was the new views of investigations of the problems of intelligence, philosophy of science and philosophy of society. “Gender” is considered the main object of genderology. It includes a national description of cultures, the roles of male and female in society and their relationship and behavior.

Post-structuralism has provided a major challenge to essentialist notions of gender and has been crucial in the developing understanding of gender. With its emphasis on the constitutive nature of discourse, it has thoroughly informed linguistic study – and indeed has been largely responsible for the “linguistic turn” in many other disciplines. Chris Weedon famously characterized language as ‘the place where actual and possible forms of social organization and their likely social and political consequences are defined and contested. Yet it is also the place where our sense of selves, our subjectivity is constructed’ [Weedon,1987, 21].

In addition, the term “gender” is considered as one of the problematic concepts in this direction of linguistics. The main attention of linguists was paid to distinguish the terms of “gender” and “sex”. Cameron points out that a ‘correlational’ relationship between sex and gender is usually seen in one of two possible ways: first, that gendered behavior is ‘built on’ to pre-existing sex differences, and, second, that the sex-gender relationship may be arbitrary, but that there will always be gender differences in behavior, which then come to “symbolize” sex (1997p). This sex–gender relationship entails differences or tendencies in what women and men do and say, stemming from the notion of gender as an idea about the importance of differentiation between women and men. “Gender refers to the array of socially constructed roles and relationships, personality traits, attitudes, behavior, values, relative power and influence that society ascribes to the two sexes on a differential basis. Whereas biological sex is determined by genetic and anatomical characteristics, gender is an acquired identity that is learned, changes over time and varies widely within and across cultures. Gender is relational and refers not simply to women or men but to the relationship between them”. **O.V. Ryabov** explains the relationship of these two terms as one whole and part: “Sex is biological, consists of sociocultural sex with sociocultural elements. That is why “gender” and “sex” is appeared as “whole and part”.

Genderological analysis of a language can serve in understanding not only its anthropocentric paradigm but also its male and female peculiarities. The opinion of **V.A.Maslova** can be an example for this understanding: “human being can receive the majority of data through linguistic frequency, therefore human lives in his own world created by himself with intellectual, spiritual and social need concepts than the world of things”. Moreover, through gender humanity can understand and evaluate the existence as individual and collective consciousness, they can investigate flamboyant relationships of a human being based on relations between male and female. Thus, gender as a meaningful source identifies all sociocultural sides of human’s life.

According to **Jane Sunderland** gender can be found and can be analyzed in the following contexts: The list below represents a starting point: -

- in differences between women and men, boys and girls;
- in similarities between women and men, boys and girls;
- in diversity within women, within men, within boys, within girls;
- in aspects of linguistic dealings with (individual, and groups of) women, men, boys, and girls, for example, how they are addressed, what is said to them(‘hearer sex’);
- in aspects of what is said and written about gender differences/tendencies, similarities, and diversity;

- in aspects of what is said and written about (individual, and groups of) women, men, boys and girls (the assumption being that gender may be relevant in such spoken and written texts).

Gender can be observed in the vocabulary of every nation. Male and female characteristics are reflected in phraseological units and proverbs in the vocabulary of different ethnos and cultures. As an example, a number of groups of phraseological units can be used for comparison of genderological features of three languages:

→ a list of phraseological units can be related only male features such as: *general's battle*,

*brother of the angle* → *шутгороховый, рыцарь без страха и упрёка* → *кулагынан*

*күн көрүнүп калыптыр, аракет кылсаң берекет*

- a list of phraseological units can be related only female features such as: *lady of the*

*house, one's good lady*, → *подруга жизни, талия в рюмочку* → *энеси өпөгөн кыз*,

*кызга бергис жубан*

Grammatical gender is a linguistic category that assigns words to classes (masculine, feminine, neuter, etc.) While both English and Kyrgyz have grammatical categories that influence how nouns are used, they approach gender in fundamentally different ways. Here's a detailed breakdown:

### English:

- **No inherent grammatical gender:** Nouns themselves are not classified as masculine, feminine, or neuter.
- **Natural Gender:** Gender is distinguished only for animate beings based on biological sex (e.g., he, she, it).
- **Gender-neutral Pronouns:** Singular "they/them" is increasingly used for non-binary individuals or situations where the gender is unknown.
- **Agreement:** Limited agreement – pronouns and sometimes determiners (the, this, that) change depending on the noun's natural gender (e.g., the boy vs. the girl).

### Kyrgyz:

- **Grammatical Gender System:** Nouns are classified into grammatical genders (masculine, feminine, inanimate) regardless of biological sex.
- **Gender Marking:** Suffixes are added to nouns to indicate gender (e.g., at (horse) - masculine; kiz (girl) - feminine; kitap (book) - inanimate).

- **Agreement:** Extensive agreement – adjectives, pronouns, possessive markers, and verb conjugations all change depending on the noun's gender (e.g., ak at (white horse) vs. ak kiz (white girl) vs. ak kitap (white book)).

### Key Differences:

- **Basis for Classification:** English uses biological sex for animate beings, while Kyrgyz uses a grammatical system independent of biological sex.
- **Number of Genders:** English has a limited natural gender system, while Kyrgyz has a more elaborate grammatical gender system with three categories.
- **Agreement:** English has limited agreement, while Kyrgyz has extensive agreement across various grammatical elements.

### Additional Considerations:

- **Historical Development:** English lost its grammatical gender system over time, while Kyrgyz retained it.
- **Cultural Influence:** Grammatical gender can sometimes reflect cultural perceptions of masculinity, femininity, and animacy. However, this isn't always a perfect correlation.
- **Social Change:** Both languages are evolving, and the use of gendered language is a topic of ongoing discussion, particularly in English with the growing use of gender-neutral pronouns.

### Further Exploration:

- **Books:** Explore books on gender linguistics, such as "The Gender of Language" by Deborah Tannen or "Language and Gender" by Janet Holmes.
- **Kyrgyz Grammar Resources:** Search for resources that delve deeper into Kyrgyz morphology and noun classification based on gender.
- **Corpus Analysis:** Use online corpora of English and Kyrgyz texts to analyze pronoun usage and agreement patterns in real-world contexts.

By comparing the typology of gender in English and Kyrgyz, you gain insights into the diverse ways languages categorize nouns and how these systems reflect the unique structure and history of each language. Remember, gender in language is a complex phenomenon, and its relationship to cultural norms is constantly evolving.

### TASKS FOR CONTROL

#### 1. Define Gender in Linguistics

Explain the concept of grammatical and natural gender. Distinguish between languages with grammatical gender (e.g., Kyrgyz) and those with mostly natural gender (e.g., English).

#### 2. Identify Gendered Nouns

Compare gender distinctions in English nouns (*man, woman, actor/actress*) with Kyrgyz nouns, if any. Discuss whether Kyrgyz encodes gender morphologically or through context.

#### 3. Pronouns and Gender

Compare English personal pronouns (*he, she, it*) with Kyrgyz pronouns. Analyze how gender is marked (or unmarked) and how neutral forms function.

#### 4. **Occupational and Social Terms**

Compare gendered occupational terms in English (*actor/actress, waiter/waitress*) and Kyrgyz (*мугалым* [teacher], *доктор* [doctor]) to see if gender is explicitly marked.

#### 5. **Gender-Neutral Language**

Explore strategies for gender-neutral expression in English (e.g., *firefighter, chairperson*) and Kyrgyz. Discuss how modern trends affect linguistic practice.

#### 6. **Morphological Gender Marking**

Identify cases where gender is encoded morphologically in English (suffixes: *-ess, -ette*) versus Kyrgyz (if any). Compare productivity and social perception.

#### 7. **Cultural and Social Implications**

Analyze how gendered vocabulary reflects social attitudes in English and Kyrgyz. Consider historical, cultural, and sociolinguistic perspectives.

#### 8. **Semantic Roles and Gender**

Examine verbs or expressions that are culturally associated with a specific gender in each language. Example: *nurse* (English) vs. *мейманкеч* [hostess-like roles] in Kyrgyz.

#### 9. **Gender in Address and Titles**

Compare gender marking in honorifics and titles (*Mr., Mrs., Miss, Ms.* in English vs. Kyrgyz respectful forms like *азай, эже*).

#### 10. **Practical Exercise: Translation Analysis**

Take 5 English sentences with gendered expressions, translate them into Kyrgyz, and analyze how gender is conveyed, neutralized, or omitted. Note challenges in cross-cultural and linguistic gender representation.

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